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Welcome

Welcome to the second volume of the Birmingham City University (BCU) Education Journal Magazine (EJM) and the second edition of this academic year. This edition contains several articles from a variety of sources, ranging from students, ex-students, academics and teaching professionals.

In this edition, we have an increased contribution from our postgraduate community, including those completing level 7 study in postgraduate certificates or diplomas and level 8 PhD students. We also have three 'double contributions' in this edition, with Matthew, Conner and Poppy contributing two articles for this Spring edition. We have several articles from the foundation subjects, such as modern foreign languages, physical education and history, but we also have interesting articles based in science teaching. We also have two fantastic articles from Poppy Wyatt on the themes of LGBT+ and pupils with ADHD and Joshua's article on Tripp's critical incident framework is an interesting read for all. We finally have one guest article from Tarandeep on using the Boston Matrix in physical education.

I hope you find these articles interesting, and you can reflect upon any of the findings found from these articles. Please get in touch if you have any thoughts around what you have read.

I would like to say thank you to our editorial peer review team, who have read through all these articles and offered constructive feedback to develop the authors writing. Without them, this journal couldn't be released in the timely manner that it is.

If this Spring edition has inspired you to contribute a research article, book review or a thinking piece, please get in touch ready for publication in the summer edition.

Best wishes

Grant Huddleston

Meet the editorial reviewer team:

Grant Huddleston — *Course Leader for BA/BSc Hons. Secondary Education with QTS*

Dr Chris Bolton — *Senior Lecturer in Drama Education*

Dr Tina Collins — *Course Leader for MA Education*

Gary Pykitt — *Senior Lecturer in Primary Education*

Mary Bennett-Hartley — *Senior Lecturer in Primary Education*

Dr Victoria Kinsella — *Senior Research Fellow in Education*

Kelly Davey Nicklin — *Course Leader for PGCE Secondary Education with QTS*

Our Aim

Our aim is to help support practice across our partnership schools and promote enquiry and research. We welcome contributions from students, teachers and academics who wish to make a positive difference to teaching and learning and believe they could help develop and support other's practice. We aim to support new and experienced writers to submit their work so that we share a variety of perspectives.

Our Goals

- *Showcase the excellent work our BCU students produce.*
- *Allow an opportunity for those interested to publish their work to promote positive development and reflection across our partnership schools.*
- *Promote confidence and competence to write for an education publication*
- *Promote interest towards research and enquiry*

How to Contribute

Anybody wishing to contribute an article for consideration should email their draft to BCUEJM@bcu.ac.uk

You do not need to decide which chapter you wish your article to appear, but you can indicate this if you wish. Please ensure you follow the house style. Final decisions on publication are made by the editorial board. You can submit as many articles as you wish. If the editorial team have received a large number of contributions, your article may be held for later editions.

House style

When submitting an article for consideration, please aim to follow the subsequent *house style*:

- Documents must be submitted in **Word** in font **Calibri**, size **11**, with **1.5 line spacing.**
- Include your full name and role/school – this will appear under the title.
- Any web links given should be accessible by the reader and not sit behind passwords or paywalls.
- Word count is expected to be **500** to **3000** words "all in" (including references lists).
- Acronyms and abbreviations must be written in full the first time they are used in each article; thereafter the abbreviation may be used, e.g. "The special educational needs and disability co-ordinator (SENDCO) is … "
- UK English should be used, e.g. "…ise" endings instead of "…ize"
- Numbers one to ten written in full; thereafter numerical (e.g. 28 pupils aged nine completed… etc.)
- Double speech marks for direct speech or quotes; otherwise single speech marks
- Please use the Harvard referencing system (where applicable – we can support with this if necessary).

Please note that the editorial team will amend the final copy to suit our house style. You will receive a copy back if any major changes have been made for you to proof read.

Contents

Title	Author/s	Page
Enquiry and Support within the Partnership		
The Emerging Teaching and Learning Philosophy of an Early Career History Teacher Through the Lens of Change and Continuity	*Francis Simmons*	*6*
An investigation into the effectiveness of inductive grammar teaching in French	*Matthew Hartill*	*11*
An investigation into the effectiveness of inductive grammar teaching of the present tense of regular -ir and -re verbs in French	*Matthew Hartill*	*18*
A critical report on effective feedback in the science classroom	*Dr Conner Hodgkiss*	*23*
The challenges faced by EAL pupils in science education	*Dr Conner Hodgkiss*	*28*
Current Enquiry and Practice		
Exploring Physical Education Transition from KS2 to KS3 through Brookfield's Lens	*Grant Huddleston & Brianne Pearson*	*32*
The Importance of Understanding, Supporting and Creating an Inclusive and Diverse School Environment for LGBT+ Pupils	*Poppy Wyatt*	*36*
The Impact of ADHD on Pupils' Academic Performance: What Support Teachers can give within the Classroom Environment	*Poppy Wyatt*	*40*
Considering Oracy through Tripp's Critical Incident framework; a Teach First teacher's account	*Joshua Hemmings-Buckler*	*44*
Research-informed interventions to improve the teaching of grammar in Modern Foreign Languages	*Charlotte Power*	*51*
Individual Enquiry and Scholarship		
Character Education and its place in 21st century society?	*Barwago Ismail*	*57*
Using the Boston Matrix as a curriculum assessment concept for KS3 PE Curriculum design	*Tarandeep Malhi*	*60*
Adjectival Agreement within Modern Foreign Language Teaching	*Jessica Hadden*	*68*

Eight reasons to contribute to the BCU Education Journal…

We are incredibly thankful for all contributions sent in for our editorial team to review and discuss. However, we'd like to highlight why contributing an article is worthwhile for you and not just worthwhile for us.

Teaching and learning is an evidence-based profession and engaging with this journal will help others develop their own practise.

- Brings to the forefront the importance of research, evidence and literature in the profession
- Supports new ideas/strategies/theories for colleagues to use/try out/reflect upon
- Puts the writer's name in the 'shop window' to the partnership and nationally.
- Great addition to the writer's CV
- Allows an opportunity to show off the high standard of BCU trainees' thoughts/ideas/research
- Allows an opportunity to signpost further research/textbooks etc.
- Allows for an opportunity to get your 'foot on the ladder' in publishing and engages writer's with the processes involved.
- Provides an opportunity for potential networking across the partnership.

The Emerging Teaching and Learning Philosophy of an Early Career History Teacher Through the Lens of Change and Continuity

Francis Simmons – Teacher of History

Introduction

As a teacher in my first year of training, determining my initial philosophy has been an essential aspect of understanding my own practise and to ensure I am delivering effective lessons to all of my students. In order to engage with my initial philosophy, I was tasked with designing and implementing a series of lessons that developed an understanding of a particular historical concept. Throughout the planning process, I was able to understand my own teaching influences, align myself with a working philosophy and utilise this to ensure the best results for my teaching practise.

Identifying a Conceptual Challenge

The concept of change and continuity is essential for history students, allowing them to demonstrate fundamental skills and engage effectively with the lesson's content. However, this concept also presents challenges for young learners. Blow (2011) effectively illustrates how these challenges can arise, highlighting the progression from understanding change and continuity from being different points in time to being considered as theoretical constructs. In order to ensure students are progressing to this level of higher-order thinking, it is necessary both to scaffold this advancement (Lee & Shemilt, 2003) and to understand the conceptual barriers preventing student understanding. My school (Academy A) is a secondary academy and sixth form in the Midlands, and from my own experience teaching Key Stage Three, the students in my school experience some difficulty in understanding lines of development. As opposed to taking change to be a concept that is relative and operating in conjunction with continuity, many students regard history to be the study of a continuous flow of change. I selected my Year Seven class to address this challenge with, as I believed that using a relatively simplistic approach to a historical event would allow for greater focus on overcoming the conceptual barrier. Furthermore, the Year Seven curriculum in their first term predominantly addresses change, regarding the transition from Stone Age to Roman to Anglo-Saxon to Norman. Notions of continuity were less prevalent in the curriculum, with lesson topics focused more prominently around ideas of change. For instance, as opposed to focusing on the lasting changes brought about by the Roman settlers in Britain, Year Seven lessons were primarily concerned with how *different* their way of life was compared to the Anglo-Saxons. Therefore, students may have incorrectly assumed that History is merely the study of changes in the past, with little or no regard for the interconnectedness of change with continuity. As such I believed it would be beneficial to introduce this at an early stage in the student's learning.

It became necessary to select an appropriate topic with which to challenge these preconceptions. The History curriculum of Academy A is linear, moving chronologically from the Stone Age to the Early Modern period. Not

wanting to disrupt this, the focus for my class was thus centred around the Norman Conquest. There were numerous benefits to selecting this topic. Firstly, the Norman Conquest is a popular Key Stage Three topic due to its relative simplicity and notoriety as a major turning point in British history. As such, there are frequent opportunities to draw upon both change and continuity. The developments across British society following the Norman Conquest are incredibly widespread, as William made major alterations to both society and religion. Therefore, there is an opportunity here to discuss the nature of change, and understand that the concept is multifaceted. Furthermore, several elements of Norman society remained unchanged in the wake of the Norman Conquest, and indeed for much of the English peasantry the vast political upheaval passed by largely unnoticed. As a result, this period of historical study presents the opportunity to demonstrate that change and continuity are not mutually exclusive factors, and in fact it is very common to see elements of both throughout history.

Understanding 'Change and Continuity'

Considerable research has been conducted into the challenges of teaching change and continuity. Advice from historical practitioners is vast, yet common practise for overcoming the aforementioned barrier is through illustration and metaphors. Counsell (2011) advocates the image of a car journey to depict the "speed, rate, nature and direction of change" in a way that is relatable to students. Such teaching is frequently reflected in other writings (Jenner, 2010; Foster, 2013), with Jarman (2009) further suggesting that the use of visual aids such as line graphs would allow students to make connections with possible future events and to "[apprehend] …change as a process". The notion of metaphors connects to a wider impression amongst practitioners that students benefit from historical teaching when it is contextualised, and associations are made to the present. This could take the form of scenario-based questioning (Counsell, 2011), in which students consider the emotional resonance of an event such as the Harrying of the North from the perspective of a northern peasant, or regarding the possibility of connecting the topic to a form of local history (Hughes and De Silva, 2013), as "placing history in a familiar and recognisable context often promotes engagement with… a difficult subject". As such, where possible, I aimed to include links to the local area to secure interest and allow ideas of change to become more palpable for students. A crucial point that has been further identified with teaching change and continuity is the notion of 'big picture' teaching (Dawson, 2008; Hamilton and McConnell, 2005; Howson, 2009). The role of this is two-fold: firstly, as Hamilton and McConnell (2005) suggest, chronological understanding allows students to develop understanding as to why events are important. Additionally, Dawson (2008) purports that comprehending 'big picture' narratives provides "far greater potential for pupils getting a real sense of achievement from history lessons". Due to the significance of the Norman Conquest in British history, there are frequent opportunities to observe large-scale examples of change and continuity, while also providing the opportunity to focus on more personal and small-scale examples. Due to the complexity of teaching change and continuity, Jenner (2010) advocates for a "close focus" on a clear enquiry question that is rigidly followed throughout the teaching unit. Brooker (2009) further suggests that a central enquiry question "serves not merely to motivate students… but also acts as a scaffold for the planning of individual lessons.". When addressing the challenge of misconceptions, which are likely to occur with Year Seven students, creating a space for dialogue ensures that conceptual understanding is achieved (Brooker, 2009). Furthermore, the language

that students are using to address second-order concepts should also be introduced in dialogue first prior to students producing written work (Jarman, 2009). Indeed, it is important to remain open to different student interpretations of change and continuity, as not to do so would risk students believing "that there is a ‘right’ answer” that a teacher is seeking (Rogers, 2008). Therefore, it is important to use discussion as a tool to assess and, if necessary, realign student understanding.

Change and continuity is a cornerstone of historical understanding, but at Key Stage Three is often understood in very linear terms. A simplistic understanding of history, such as change being merely “identifying differences between points in time” (Blow, 2011), prevents students from building skills based around what type of change is occurring, how impactful change can be, and how change is connected to continuity. The latter of these points is particularly key, as to understand change as a constant occurrence that is omnipresent throughout history risks mischaracterising the entirety of historical study. As such, it is important to address the conceptual challenge at an early stage in students’ historical learning. Through using the comparison of Anglo-Saxon and Norman England, students will be able to navigate the issues of change and continuity initially by using basic skills of comparison. From this, I will aim to develop this further by introducing factors of similarity and difference between the two periods of English history and invite students to draw their own conclusions as to the extent of change brought about by William the Conqueror.

Recognising my Influences

My emerging philosophy of teaching and learning has been influenced by a number of factors. Prior to beginning my training year with Teach First, my idealised view of teaching was primarily influenced by the strong teaching that I had received personally at school. As such, my philosophy became rooted in Existentialism (Tan, 2006), as I believed the value of school should prioritise building confident individuals over successful learners, and one that “respects the individual freedom and choice of the student”. The formative impact that school years have on a young person’s development cannot be overstated or disregarded, and it is the responsibility of schools to show an awareness of this by crafting individuality into their teaching. Expanding from this, my theoretical understanding at the beginning of my first training year favoured a humanist approach. This may have been informed by a recency bias, as my most recent recollections of my school experience were performing primarily independent-led study in Sixth Form, in which the role of the teacher took the role of a facilitator of discussion. Furthermore, I considered the possibility of integrating a Post-Modernist approach to teaching History, as this philosophy allows for a more progressive and less elitist understanding of History, aiming for “empowerment and transformation” (Tan, 2006). By moving away from viewing History through a myopic study of victors and elitism, a post-modern mindset would allow students to consider the importance of all perspectives when constructing a historical narrative. As such, my initial philosophy of teaching was notably progressive in its approach, favouring a heavier student-led approach over a more traditional school model.

Following Teach First's Summer Institute and my first weeks of teaching, my philosophy was significantly influenced by both an increased awareness of differing teaching philosophies and the focus of my placement school. The ethos of Academy A is centred primarily around Social Learning Theory (SLT) and Behaviourism, representing a more traditional approach to schooling. A school ethos is characterised through learning and character 'habits', a clearly defined behaviour system, and guidance on starting and finishing lessons to ensure cohesion throughout school. Within the History department of Academy A, there is room for flexibility regarding teaching philosophies. Therefore, studying works such as those of Tan (2006) gave me greater confidence in developing a philosophy that was both compatible with my school's approach and develop the skills appropriate for studying History. As such, I was drawn to Social Constructivism as a theory that had the potential to build on historical learning. The theory is grounded in social interaction and collaborative learning, which are well-suited to my own personality as well as capable of developing students' understanding through discussion (Brooker, 2009). Another key focus was that of progression models, as exemplified by Lee and Shemilt (2003) as being highly effective means of addressing historical misconceptions and aiding student development in learning. Coupling these with pedagogies such as Rosenshine's Principles of Instruction (Sherrington, 2019) allowed for a practical application to build an effective climate for learning in which I could better understand the needs of students, and scaffold work accordingly to ensure students were achieving their potential. Additionally, due to my lack of classroom experience, I sought to integrate Social Learning Theory into my teaching philosophy in order to ensure discipline and consistency across my classes. My adoption of Social Learning Theory was also influenced by the advice from both my Mentor and Development Lead, both of whom encouraged that making clear routines (a central tenet of SLT) should be a priority to secure a controlled learning environment from an early stage. This too would allow for greater confidence when introducing the collaborative approach of Social Constructivism. An additional influence in my pedagogical understanding was the works of Lemov (2021), with his seminal 'Teach Like a Champion'. Lemov's work has not only assisted me in considering stable and effective routines to benefit classes, but also developing techniques for stretching and challenging students to achieve their full potential. Furthermore, it became necessary to reassess my initial and ideal view of an Existentialist approach, since this particular style lacked compatibility with the Realist ethos of Academy A (Tan, 2006). Despite this, by prioritising cognitive development and assessment yardsticks, the Realist approach offered viable opportunities to develop an effective teaching philosophy for History. However, I remained determined to include a post-modernist perspective where possible to prevent students from forming a limited view of studying History. As such, due to the influence of further study and exposure to Academy A's ethos, my teaching philosophy shifted from Existentialism to Realism, supported by the learning theories of Social Constructivism and Social Learning Theory.

My emerging philosophy of teaching and learning provides many benefits in addressing the conceptual challenge of change and continuity. Discussion-based learning has been singled out as an effective method of addressing historical misconceptions and making sure they are "engaged meaningfully in the context of their learning" (Brooker, 2009). Social Constructivism advocates for discussion and collaboration in completing tasks, and I made changes to allow for this. For instance, I altered the layout of my classroom into grouped tables as opposed to rows to maximise

the potential of group discussion and tasks. Social Learning Theory supports an effective classroom atmosphere of focus and control, which can be paired with effective contextualisation predisposes students to engage with difficult topics and concepts (Hughes and De Silva, 2013). Realism is characterised by effective means of assessment, which is key in measuring the impact of teaching frameworks (Rogers, 2008) and therefore allows for clear self-assessment in my teaching of the conceptual challenge. Furthermore, by integrating elements of post-modernism, there is greater opportunity to explore social history. In doing so, students will have a wider exposure to the historical components that characterised Anglo-Saxon and Norman England, and as such develop a wider understanding of the factors affecting change and continuity.

Conclusion

This scheme of work has provided me with valuable practical experience in engaging with my emerging philosophy of teaching. I have gained confidence in my approach and have formed practical targets to ensure this continues to develop. My pursuit of a discussion-based approach continues, with some significant successes, and although I am comfortable with my current teaching philosophy, I look forward to this being expanded by even broader influences as my teaching journey continues.

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An investigation into the effectiveness of inductive grammar teaching in French

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As part of the *Emerging Philosophy of Teaching and Learning* assignment that I completed as part of my first assignment on the Teach First training programme, I carried out an investigation into the effectiveness of inductive and deductive grammar teaching in French. In the investigation, I compared the two different approaches across two Year 8 groups of similar ability. In this article, a theoretical comparison of the two approaches is presented.

Review of Literature

In contrast to the inductive approach, the deductive approach to teaching grammar holds that grammar is most effectively taught when a teacher presents grammatical rules to students, followed by examples of these rules in context. Only when learners have been taught the rules are they then encouraged to apply these rules themselves in exercises. (Widodo, 2006).

The deductive approach has its own advocates. Eisenstein's 1987 article (cited in Yarkofoji, 2019) suggested that due to the fact rules and examples have been explained clearly to students before they are expected to practice them for themselves, students have less fear when completing this practice, and as such ultimately have greater control over their own learning. This lack of fear if taught deductively is significant, as it has been suggested before that anxiety can seriously restrict students' chances of success in acquiring language. This is the idea of a so-called affective filter, which controls the amount of language which learners acquire. It was first posited by Burt and Dulay (1977), (cited in Krashen, 1982). This idea really began to gain prominence under Krashen, however, in a theory which came to be known as the *Affective Filter Hypothesis*. It claimed that there are various factors relating to learners' attitude which affect success in second language acquisition. Learners whose attitudes are not optimal for second language acquisition will have a high affective filter, meaning that, even if they understand the message or concept being communicated to them, this input is unlikely to reach the part of the brain responsible for second language acquisition, and thus they will not acquire the language successfully. By contrast, those with attitudes which are more conducive to language acquisition will have a lower filter and will thus find acquiring language easier.

These attitudinal factors include anxiety. Krashen states that low anxiety (whether personal anxiety or anxiety induced by the classroom environment) is more conducive to second language acquisition. Therefore, Eisenstein's claim that deductive teaching leads students to have less fear and anxiety when completing independent exercises would perhaps suggest that this approach allows students to acquire language more successfully.

The idea of language acquisition merits further exploration here. Perhaps the most famous of Krashen's hypotheses relating to second language teaching is the *Acquisition-Learning* hypothesis and, if Krashen's *Affective Filter* hypothesis supports the case for more deductive teaching, then his *Acquisition-Learning* theory appears to make the case for greater use of the inductive approach.

The hypothesis states that adults have two distinct ways of developing their skills in a second language. The first way is language *acquisition*, which Krashen claims is a subconscious process; students are encouraged to primarily use language for communication and are not usually aware that they are acquiring it through this process. If the process is subconscious, then so too is the outcome; according to Krashen, students are not generally aware of any grammatical rules acquired. Instead, students may simply develop a sense that sentences or utterances are correct. The second way in which Krashen claims adults develop skills in a second language is by language *learning*. This is conscious knowledge of a second language; for example, in language learning, students are aware that they know grammatical rules.

It should be said that Krashen is clear that it would be an oversimplification to label deductive teaching as synonymous with language learning and inductive teaching with language acquisition. However, he also acknowledges that inductive teaching and his theory of language acquisition share the fundamental feature of *input first*, *rule second*. (Krashen, 1982). Combine this with the fact that Krashen also claimed language learning was less meaningful as a process than language acquisition (Yarkofoji, 2019), and the assumption that the Acquisition-Learning theory is in support of the effectiveness of inductive teaching seems a reasonable one to make.

However, there is equally research available which would suggest that the difference in the effectiveness of the two approaches is negligible, and this must too be acknowledged. This is neatly evidenced in a 2014 Iranian study. The study investigated the difference in effectiveness between the deductive and inductive approach in teaching grammar to Iranian English as a Foreign Language students. 21 students were chosen for the study. All 21 were of a similar proficiency level, based on a general English test conducted before the study proper began. The students were randomly split into deductive and inductive groups (10 students were in the deductive group, 11 in the inductive group). All students took a pre-test, based around the focus of the study, (the English conditional tense). Following the study, an identical post-test was given to students, which found that there was no significant mean difference in the scores on the post-tests between the two groups. (Mohammadi and Zamani, 2014).

It may therefore be concluded from this study that there is no significant difference in impact between the two approaches. However, this belief that the difference between them is so insignificant, if, indeed, it exists at all, seems to be a dangerous path to go down, at the end of which may potentially lie some apathetic, *random* choice between the two. After all, if there is no difference, what does it matter? This cannot be a healthy conclusion for practitioners to draw, not if they are serious about delivering the best possible outcomes for students. In this case, perhaps, then, an exploration of what is happening in practice regarding teaching grammar in classrooms up and down the country, rather than a merely theoretical discussion, is what is required.

Blyth and Katz's 2007 work, (cited in Katz and Watzinger-Tharp, 2008) states that certain language teachers nowadays will claim to teach grammar in as *communicative* a way as possible. In this context, it may be assumed that the term *communicative* refers to *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT). CLT is a language teaching method characterised by the belief that language teaching should focus primarily on proficiency of communication, as opposed to a more traditional knowledge of structures. (Richards and Rogers, 2001). CLT has itself influenced various other communicative approaches to language teaching, perhaps the most famous of which is the *Natural Approach*. This is an approach outlined by Krashen and Terrell, (as described in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), as being based on the use of language in communicative situations, without major reference to grammatical rules or theories. Blyth and Katz (2007) go on to state that, in communicative approaches, grammar teaching is carried out often using implicit techniques.

As previously discussed, inductive teaching is often referred to as an *implicit* style of teaching, and as such there is clear overlap between grammar teaching within CLT (and other communicative approaches) and the inductive approach. Indeed, Brown (2006) emphasises how inductive grammar teaching appears well-suited to communicative approaches, as it shifts its focus from traditional instruction in grammatical structures: "While it may be appropriate at times to articulate a rule and then proceed to its instances, most of the evidence in communicative second language learning points to the superiority of an inductive approach to rules and generalisations." This is significant because, as Richards (2006) claims, if many language teachers today were quizzed on the method they used most often in their classroom, they would likely reply 'communicative.'

Outline of Sequence of Learning

A natural assumption from Richards' claim may therefore be that it is inductive teaching which is the more commonly-used approach to teach grammar in classrooms across the country. While caution against jumping to any sweeping generalisations around the grammar instruction methods used most in individual classrooms should be encouraged, it is a claim which would certainly imply the greater effectiveness of inductive grammar teaching. This is

certainly worthy of investigation. Is the inductive approach, apparently so widespread across the country, more effective than more traditional forms of grammar instruction?

That is what this essay hypothesised, before the teaching of the sequence of lessons takes place. This belief is driven in part by evidence put forward in the Noticing Hypothesis, which states that a grammatical form must be *noticed* during input, (or in other words consciously registered), to be acquired. (Ünlü, 2015). This is a technique that is central to inductive teaching (Alomari and Obeidat, 2020), and one that I therefore attempted to incorporate in my own inductively-taught lessons.

The sequence of lessons planned attempted to take into account much of what has been discussed above. Two sets of two lessons were planned around the concept of using regular -ir and -re verbs in the present tense. One set was taught deductively, the other inductively. It should be noted that both sets of lessons made use of the same resources from the *Dynamo* textbook (Bell and Ramage, 2019). This is referenced here to make clear that the purpose of this assignment was not to conduct a study on the effectiveness of the content of the textbook (including exercises and explanations of grammatical rules), but solely to draw a comparison between the effectiveness of the two different approaches used to present the content to students over the course of the two sets of lessons. In the second lesson of both sequences, both groups were asked to carry out a summative assessment. This took the form of a *Grammar Quiz*, (taken from the textbook). The quiz was comprised of four exercises, all four of which broadly focused on eliciting from students the knowledge they should have acquired by that point about the verb endings for these verbs.

In the inductively taught lessons, 8N4 were also provided with another (formative) assessment opportunity. Following the presentation of various examples of -re/-ir verbs in the present tense, and subsequent opportunity to practice this (hopefully) acquired knowledge in the form of independent exercises, students were asked to articulate in writing what they believed the grammatical rule for the conjugation of -re/-ir verbs in the present tense to be. This allowed the class teacher, when looking back over their work, to see whether the students had acquired the knowledge in the way that was hoped by that point in the lesson, before they went on to complete a summative assessment on the topic. Students' work on this point will be discussed later in this essay.

Evaluation of Sequence of Lessons

Due to the nature of the two different approaches, the teaching students received before these assessment opportunities was different across the two groups. For example, prior to the assessment, 8G4 (deductive) were introduced first to the grammatical rule, followed by examples. Following this, they were expected to complete a series of graduated exercises to consolidate this knowledge. This also reflected research conducted on a deductive approach to teaching, as discussed previously (Hird, 2015).

By contrast, prior to the assessment 8N4 (inductive) were introduced first to examples in context and were then expected to complete the same graduated exercises given to 8G4. This approach was informed throughout by research on an inductive approach to grammar teaching, but also on the constructivism theory of learning, which, as discussed, is itself also an inductive approach (Bhattacharjee, 2015).

As previously discussed, the constructivism learning theory believes learning should be an active process on the part of students. (Olusegun, 2015). This is something which the inductively-taught sequence of lessons attempted to replicate through the almost instant introduction of independent exercises for students to complete. It is often also said that in constructivism the most meaningful learning is built upon prior knowledge. (McLeod, 2019). Piaget, who heavily influenced constructivism as a theory, emphasised the importance of building upon prior knowledge in the learning process in his 1952 work, (cited in Aberasturi et al., 2007). He suggested that people learn first by encountering and exploring a new concept or idea for themselves. Initially, the student will try to assimilate this new information into their prior knowledge. However, if, (as is likely with new information), this new concept does not fit neatly with the student's prior knowledge, the student will attempt to *accommodate* this new knowledge, a significant process which involves constructing new thought structures into which the new information can be placed. As Aberasturi et al. explain, it was Piaget's belief that new knowledge can only be successfully constructed when this new information cannot be neatly assimilated into existing prior knowledge. Rather, for new knowledge to be meaningfully constructed, prior knowledge must be reconstituted, newly accommodated, built upon.

This is a central belief within constructivism, and so naturally it is one which the sequence of lessons attempted to incorporate also. As discussed above, the most significant piece of knowledge around this concept which students had already seen was the use in the present tense of regular -er verbs. Therefore, at the beginning of the first inductive lesson, students were reminded of the three different 'types' of French verb, of which one was -er verbs, (-er, -ir, -re verbs). Students were then presented with an -er verb in the infinitive, (*porter*), complete with an appropriate translation, (*to wear*). Following this, students were presented with the full paradigm of the verb *porter* in the present tense, complete with translations into English. Here, what students should have already known regarding -er verbs in the present tense was recapped; namely that the -er ending is removed from the infinitive, before adding the various different verb endings depending on the subject of the phrase. Though an inductive approach advises against explicitly explaining concepts to students in this way, given the importance the constructivism theory places on building upon prior knowledge, it was considered important for students to be explicitly reminded of what they had already covered, especially as they had not covered -er verbs in the present tense since Year 7. It must be acknowledged, however, that in so doing the sequence of lessons may well have strayed from the inductive approach they were supposed to be constructed around. Though each intervention was informed through research, the question of the lessons' impact on students remains. The percentage of marks both groups received on the summative assessment at the end of the second lesson is perhaps the most effective way of

gauging the impact of each approach. By that token, the most effective approach was, in fact, the deductive approach. 8G4 (deductive) scored an average of 58% on the grammar quiz, while 8N4 (inductive) scored an average of 45%.

This is not the outcome to the study which was originally hypothesised. Reasons for this may include a well-documented potential downfall of an inductive approach; as discussed above, an inductive approach is often considered more demanding of and more difficult for students, and so it is often said that the inductive approach should only be used for simpler grammatical structures. (Shaffer, 1989). Though the present tense of any language is often a fundamental grammatical structure, that is not to say that it is a simple one, and, as Stokes (1985) points out, if "there is little in English to help conceptually", certain verb endings (and we may assume these exist in the present tense of -re/-ir verbs also, such as the unpronounced -ent ending in the third person plural, which students often find difficult) may be more difficult to internalise when taught inductively. Given that the main focus of the summative assessment was to elicit knowledge of verb endings from students, it is therefore perhaps little wonder that the inductively-taught group scored lower.

This is not to say, however, that the inductive approach was completely ineffective. One of the most immediate differences notable between the two groups was the level of engagement in the lessons. 8N4 (inductive) can be a difficult class to engage, with behaviour often subsequently poor. However, in particular during the first lesson, they worked well, and it appeared that many of them seemed to like attempting to derive for themselves what the grammatical rule was. This is in keeping with a belief shared by many about inductive teaching; that the expectation that students discover grammatical rules for themselves motivates students more effectively than when they are explicitly presented with the rules in the deductive approach. (Behjat, 2008). This belief was certainly borne out in this comparison between the two groups.

The inductive group also had an additional (formative) assessment opportunity, the outcome of which should be noted; the task of articulating in writing what students believed the grammatical rule to be. In setting this task, students were advised to choose one example from the verb paradigm of *choisir* (which had been presented to students towards the end of the lesson), to help them illustrate what they felt the rule to be. Therefore, often students would write something along the lines of: *You take off the -r and add -ssent if you want to say 'They choose'* or, in a similar vein, *… and add a -t if you want to say 'He chooses*.' Though this was not perhaps the most advisable way to articulate the rule to students, (it may have been more accurate to say instead to *take off the -ir* and then add the various endings), these answers seemed to demonstrate that they had understood the broad outline of the rule in principle; that is, to conjugate these verbs accurately, something must be taken away, before other elements can then be added. Even this basic understanding will surely stand students in good stead as they continue their

grammatical instruction into other tenses in the future. This would suggest that the inductive approach was not as ineffective as the results of the summative assessment would suggest. Indeed, the increase in student motivation would suggest that there are elements of the approach worth retaining in future practice.

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An investigation into the effectiveness of inductive grammar teaching of the present tense of regular -ir and -re verbs in French

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This article discusses an investigation that I undertook into the effectiveness of inductive and deductive grammar teaching in French. I compared the two different approaches across two Year 8 groups of similar ability. This was due to previous low attainment and poor engagement by these groups. As their teacher, I decided the time was right to explore a fresh approach. This article recounts the story of that process.

My vision for MFL teaching

My vision for MFL teaching is characterised by the belief that the most successful students are independent in their thought processes and learning as often as is possible. I believe learning should be student-centred, and in this way my philosophy could be considered progressive (Sherrington, 2017). A student-centred style of learning often stems from inductive teaching, an approach which also forms part of my vision. The *inductive teaching vs deductive teaching* debate is age-old, but appears especially applicable to languages teaching, and indeed to grammar teaching. As Hird (2015) explains, the expectation in inductive grammar teaching is that students will infer grammatical rules from examples in context presented to them.

I also believe that the teacher's role should primarily be to facilitate students' understanding of key points of a lesson for themselves. This philosophy is in part influenced by constructivism, which views learning as an active process on the part of the students in which, if the learner is to be successful, new learning must be built upon prior knowledge (McLeod, 2019). This style of learning is also considered to be inductive (Bhattacharjee, 2015). Constructivism is influenced by Piaget, who theorised that humans construct knowledge through the interaction that occurs between their experiences and their ideas. Piaget believed in student-centred learning and considered the individual to be at the centre of knowledge creation and acquisition (Brau, 2018). In contrast to inductive teaching, deductive grammar teaching involves learners being presented first with the grammatical rule, which is then applied to specific examples (Hird, 2015). Often, inductive and deductive teaching are talked about in terms of *implicit* and *explicit* instruction respectively. Fotos and Nassaji (2011) characterise explicit instruction (and here we can see parallels with deductive teaching) as "a formal presentation of grammatical rules", and implicit instruction (and here there are parallels with inductive teaching) as "natural exposure to meaningful language use".

The greater independence an inductive style of teaching demands from students means that it too has a place in my vision for languages teaching. However, despite having begun to form a clear picture of my philosophy for MFL teaching over the course of my first few weeks in my placement school, the approach of my department has at times felt at odds with these values. Content for French lessons (the only language taught at the school) is almost exclusively sourced from a textbook (for Key Stage 3, the *Dynamo* series by Pearson (Bell and Ramage, 2019)). While the resources in the textbook are often well-suited to the abilities and interests of the students in school, the approach seemingly favoured by my colleagues for presenting these resources to students is a deductive approach, and one which follows the textbook rigidly; all lessons begin with teacher input, before moving on to a varied range of exercises for consolidation. Naturally, due to the fact I have only just taken up my position at the school, it has rarely (if, indeed, ever) been appropriate for me to attempt to impose my own vision on the department, and as such my own teaching has thus far followed a similar approach to that of my colleagues.

A Conceptual Challenge

However, in the early weeks of my time at the school, I had also been confronted with apparent evidence that the approach favoured by my colleagues was, at least in some instances, not working. For instance, students did not appear to be retaining and internalising much of the grammar taught to them, surely a concern given that, without even a basic knowledge of grammar in a language, students' ability to develop and then independently produce language for themselves will be severely constrained. It is worth highlighting here the change in perception that *grammar teaching* seems to have undergone in recent years. The naturalist movement was advocated by names as illustrious as Krashen, and it appeared to advocate almost no grammar teaching at all. (Azar, 2007). Indeed, Krashen himself appeared to hold the belief that "Formal grammar instruction has a very limited impact on second-language competence." (Krashen, 2003). The general consensus appears to be that this has been dismissed as a theory, and indeed, as Ellis (2006) puts it, "there is ample evidence that teaching grammar works". However, this apparent dichotomy between the two stances is of interest to me. Indeed, a passage in the curriculum document of the multi-academy trust my school is part of caught my attention. In the section "*What are the aims of specific stages of the curriculum?*", (Multi-academy trust, 2021), the document states that by the end of Year 8 "students will be able to…use three tenses…". The three tenses the document refers to are the present, perfect and near future tenses. Of those three tenses, perhaps unsurprisingly it is the present tense which is covered first. Indeed, the present tense is introduced almost at the very beginning of Year 7, when students are taught the use of some common regular -er verbs in the present tense. Yet, despite the fact that this is introduced so early in students' learning, and is reinforced at various points throughout Year 7, students' production of the language in Year 7 using -er verbs appears to be poor, evidence perhaps that, as discussed, students are not retaining and internalising knowledge as the department would like. What's more, the Year 8 textbook course does not revisit in any major way the use of regular -er verbs in the present tense before it moves on to the use of regular -ir and -re verbs in the present tense. Moving students on

to instruction on different groups of verbs when it appears many of them have not yet mastered the largest group of French verbs seems a potentially flawed approach, to say the least.

In light of this, I decided to plan two sets of two lessons around the concept of using regular -ir/-re verbs in the present tense with two of my Year 8 groups. The two sets of lessons compared my own approach, which aims to be more inductive in its teaching, and the approach of the wider department, which is a more deductive approach to teaching grammar, in order to ultimately draw a broad comparison around the effectiveness of the two approaches.

In order to draw an effective and fair comparison, two Year 8 classes of similar ability were needed, and given that I teach both bottom set groups in Year 8, selecting those two groups as the focus classes seemed the most appropriate course of action. One of the classes (hereafter called 8G4) was taught the concept deductively, while the other class (hereafter called 8N4) was taught the concept inductively. A summative assessment was given to both classes at the end of the second lesson. The percentage of marks both groups received on the assessment will be referred to later on in this article in order to draw comparisons between the two approaches.

My reasoning for assigning the different approaches to the two classes is also briefly worthy of note. Brent and Felder's 2004 study (cited in Felder and Prince, 2006) appeared to imply that students require what may be crudely described as greater intelligence in order to succeed in an inductively taught lesson (and in the context of this assignment we may characterise success as receiving a higher percentage of marks on the summative assessment at the end of the sequence of lessons). Felder and Prince described how a high level of intellectual development is signalled by many of the characteristics that have previously been outlined in this essay as being features of an inductive approach; students taking responsibility for their own learning, questioning rather than merely accepting statements of fact, and attempting to link new knowledge to prior learning and experience. This led me to believe that the marginally stronger group out of the two (which, having taught them for a half-term by this point, I believed to be 8N4), should be the inductively taught group. I accept, however, that my belief that a higher level of intelligence was needed to access inductively taught lessons successfully perhaps suggested an implicit lack of faith in the inductive approach before the sequence of lessons had even been taught, an apparent bias that must be acknowledged.

Future Plans for my Development

There was a time, during the peak of the naturalist movement, that practitioners such as myself would have been encouraged not to *teach* any grammar at all. (Azar, 2007). Though this theory has seemingly been dismissed, by Ellis (2006) and others, it is what Ellis goes on to say that is of particular interest. He claims that a more traditional (or, indeed, deductive) approach based on explicit explanations of rules is unlikely, on its own, to result in the language acquisition required for fluent and accurate communication. It would be incorrect to state, however, that Ellis does

not see any value at all in deductive teaching; rather, he would appear to advocate for an approach that combines both inductive and deductive instruction.

According to Ellis, explicit instruction, (considered by some to be synonymous with deductive teaching), may promote language development by encouraging the development of implicit knowledge, (often taught inductively). Ellis cites his own 1993 work when he claims that explicit knowledge of grammatical structures makes it more likely that students will pay attention to, or *notice*, the structure in the input, and thus develop their own implicit knowledge of the structure. In this way, Ellis appears to be suggesting that both explicit and implicit instruction, or deductive and inductive teaching respectively, can be combined in order to ensure instruction is as meaningful as possible for students.

Indeed, this is something that I appeared to do throughout the teaching of the sequence of lessons, almost automatically. For instance, when attempting to build upon students' prior knowledge, I automatically reverted to explicit explanations. Perhaps even more significantly, however, at the beginning of 8N4's second inductive lesson, I began the lesson with some deductive instruction on the conjugation of -ir verbs in the present tense. The first lesson of the inductive sequence focussed almost solely on -ir verbs, the second on -re verbs. At the end of the first lesson, keen as I was to ensure that misconceptions about the process did not begin to form, I made the decision to adapt my plan for the second lesson and introduce some deductive teaching to try and head off any of these potential misconceptions. Undoubtedly, it is telling that, at the first sign of potential difficulty, I reverted to deductive instruction.

The *PACE* model is one such approach to grammar teaching which claims to combine inductive and deductive teaching. It is a form-focused approach, insomuch as it is intended that students' attention will be drawn to form, while attempting to also retain understanding of the general meaning. (González-Bueno, 2021). It starts with the presentation of an authentic text-type, (often a story), the text of which contains examples of the particular language form or grammatical structure being studied. The teacher must guide the students to focus their attention on the particular form. Then, using guided questions, the teacher and students collaborate to construct an explanation for the language form, through attention to patterns present in the text. (Adair-Hauck and Donato, 2002a). Focusing students' attention on structure in this way is often referred to as a guided inductive approach. (Cole et al. 2007).

This approach works on the basis that language must be viewed in a complete, fully rounded context. As Goodman puts it in his 1986 work, (cited in Adair-Hauck and Donato, 2002b), when it comes to language, it is the whole which gives meaning to the various parts. Indeed, according to Adair-Hauck and Donato, disparate words, phrases or sentences only gain meaning when used in connection to each other. With this in mind, an approach such as the

PACE model, which presents language to students in a full context (in stories, poems, songs etc.), should prove to be effective. Indeed, this effectiveness was borne out in a study by Cole et al. (2007). Results of the study, which taught two groups of students (a control group, taught deductively, and an experimental group, taught using the PACE model) eight different French grammatical structures, indicated that the group taught using the PACE model performed better than the control group in a post-test.

It is, however, the collaboration aspect of the model, which is perhaps most significant, because it is here where, in the words of Adair-Hauck and Donato, this approach can "reconcile" the two polarised views of inductive and deductive instruction. As they go on to point out, in inductive teaching learners are expected to infer grammatical explanations for themselves and in the deductive approach learners are provided with grammatical explanation by teachers. Yet, in the PACE model, teachers and students are encouraged to collaborate on grammatical explanations.

With this in mind, it appears that my own vision for MFL teaching has changed over the course of teaching the sequence of lessons. While it started out in support of an inductive approach to teaching, it has become clear that this is not what I appear to put into practice. Indeed, in spite of the fact the results of the summative assessment would suggest that deductive teaching is more effective (see part one), further evidence I have seen throughout the teaching of these lessons suggests that, in certain significant ways, (such as student motivation), it is inductive teaching which is the more effective of the two approaches. In light of this, despite the fact that this was not ultimately what I set out to do, my own practice has seemed to almost automatically advocate a mixed approach, a combination of both inductive and deductive teaching.

The apparent ability of the PACE model to combine the inductive and deductive approach is therefore significant. Though, as discussed, the language teaching profession does seem to have finally agreed upon the fact that grammar teaching (in general) is a necessary part of meaningful instruction, views on *how* to teach grammar remain incredibly polarised. That such markedly different opinions exist is, in my opinion, of serious concern. By continuing to hold steadfast to wildly different views, we as practitioners are doing nothing but placing students' learning of this fundamental aspect of language in jeopardy. Instead, I am now of the belief that the time has come to promote approaches which combine the two different ends of this spectrum, which combine inductive and deductive teaching. In my attempt to do this, I will aim to both incorporate elements of the PACE model into my future practice, and to continue my research on other language teaching methods which combine inductive and deductive teaching, in the hope that this will enable me to provide the most effective instruction possible for my students going forward.

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A critical report on effective feedback in the science classroom

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Introduction

Feedback is part of assessment for learning (AfL), which can be defined as 'the process of seeking and interpreting evidence for use by learners and their teachers to decide where learners are in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there' (Assessment Reform Group, 2002). Indeed, Black and William (1998) indicate AfL is beneficial for the great majority of pupils, but is 'not something added to teaching, but is integral to it' (Harlen, 2006b:176).

Black and Harrison (2004:88) explain how science and formative assessment dovetail so well, in that 'its purpose is for teachers to sift the rich data that arise in classroom discussion and activity, so that professional judgements can be made about the next steps in learning'. Feedback in the classroom can be defined as 'information allowing a learner

to reduce the gap between what is evident currently and what could or should be the case' (Hattie and Yates, 2014:45). However, Hattie and Yates (2014) argue that currently very low levels of teacher-to-student feedback takes place and much more feedback is provided by peers. Despite this, feedback is seen as an extremely rich and varied practice that relies heavily on teachers' expert knowledge of their subjects and students (Education Endowment Foundation, 2018).

Methods of feedback

Feedback is an important tool for learning and achievement and has been proven to have a major influence on pupil success (Binu, 2014). I would suggest that positive feedback can initiate next steps and can improve both teaching and learning. Feedback can provide novel information relating to a task or process of learning that connects the bridge between what is understood and what is sought to be understood. According to Binu (2014:1), 'feedback is an essential part of effective learning' in that 'it helps students understand the subject better and gives them clear guidance on how to proceed with their learning'.

In the case of giving feedback in science to pupils in relation to their learning, several methods can be adopted. During my time as a trainee secondary school teacher working in a catholic college, I have observed methods that include comment only marking, use of feedback to inform next steps, the relationship between feedback and learning objectives in addition to the role of feedback in peer and self-assessment. Indeed, the creation of success criteria is an important AfL strategy and the sharing of this aids in highlighting the importance of what is expected from pupils in class. This suggests that success criteria are a crucial part of the discussion of feedback and therefore pupil involvement in devising said criteria should be encouraged. In reference to the Teachers' Standards (2012:12) teachers must 'give pupils regular feedback, both orally and through accurate marking, and encourage pupils to respond to the feedback'. Furthermore, teachers must 'make use of formative and summative assessment to secure pupils' progress'.

Black and Harrison (2004:3) identify two forms of feedback described as 'essential to formative assessment: the first is from student to teacher, the second from teacher to student. Learning is affected by alternation between these, in which each contribution responds to the other'. I would suggest that providing challenging and stimulating activities to actively encourage thinking and discussion, in addition to the use of thought-provoking questions and opportunities for peer-discussion can aid in providing the link between said examples of AfL and effective feedback, as observed during my time on school placement at an inner city academy. Indeed, feedback is at its most effective when it arises from 'learning experiences that provide rich evidence so that judgments about the next step in learning can be made' (Black and Harrison 2004:5).

Further to this, feedback should be considered a two-way process where pupils give feedback to teachers so that the teacher can see where the pupils are so that the next steps can be taken. Harlen (2006b) identifies the requirement for open-minded comments, with reference to where improvements can be made to ensure that feedback is effective. As a result, pupils can take into account these comments when giving their own feedback when participating in peer-assessment.

I would suggest that pupils should be allocated time to react to and act on feedback in order to 'convey the message that responding to the comments is part of their learning' (Harlen 2006:178). This is supported by Gioka (2006) who states the importance of allocating sufficient opportunity for pupils to act on the narration made during this type of formative assessment.

The inter-relationship between feedback and questioning has been investigated by Chin (2006) who suggested four variable ways of eliciting feedback designed to aid in pupil learning. In addition to affirming the response provided by a pupil, it is suggested that a sequence of questions to 'probe or extend conceptual thinking' (Chin 2006:1326) should be adopted to co-construct a response. I would suggest that this constructive challenge enables the pupil to reflect on and additionally, re-consider their answer which can be used as a form of conceptual and linguistic scaffolding. In the instance of pupils with weaker language skills, this can aid in adjusting the cognitive load of pupils and increase their long-term memory. This is in accordance with the Teachers' Standards (2012:10), which affirms that teachers must 'encourage pupils to take a responsible and conscientious attitude to their own work and study' and 'guide pupils to reflect on the progress they have made and their emerging needs'.

Influence of feedback on learning outcomes

The relationship between learning outcomes and feedback as a two-way process has been identified by Harrison et al (2001). Here, reference is made to teachers developing self-assessment strategies which in addition to helping pupils, also formed an 'important feedback mechanism from the pupil to teacher regarding the pupil's confidence in their current work' (Harrison et al 2001:19). Interestingly, the sharing of learning outcomes served as a useful source for written feedback, providing 'an immediate term of reference' (Harrison et al 2001:20). This suggests that the provision and understanding of learning outcomes aids in pupils understanding what the marking criteria is based on and therefore it can quickly be identified if further teaching on a particular concept is needed. As part of my professional practice, the implementation of pupils rating their confidence on achieving a learning outcome on a scale of 1-3 will provide an immediate visual response to which I can adapt the lesson structure to accommodate for the respective response.

It is important to note that the learning outcomes provided to pupils must be clear as with thorough understanding of said objectives, pupils are able to comprehend the feedback they receive. Indeed, Leaky (2001:68) identified that sharing learning outcomes with pupils served to improve teaching as pupils took 'ownership of their own learning'. Therefore, I would advocate that simply writing comments is not a sufficient form of feedback and that additional communication with pupils focusing on written feedback is necessary in order to support pupils in taking the next step forwards. This is supported by the research of Butler (1998) who compared the provision of varying types of marking, in which feedback was provided in alternate ways. Interestingly, comment-only marking tended to produce the greatest learning gain in comparison to pupils who received marks in isolation or marks with additional comments.

Benefits and limitations

It is important to note that feedback must be effective in moving learners on, and Black and Harrison (2004) suggest that effective feedback should encourage thinking, prompt swift action, draw upon the success criteria, allow learners to compare their own judgment of quality with that of peers and/or teachers and finally direct learners to improve their work. Therefore, feedback must be pertinent and relevant and as such close attention should be given to comments provided to pupils in relation to their work.

Marwick et al (2003) reported that teachers have found that formative marking, despite taking significantly longer than summative marking, was worth it in respect to providing pupils with increased quality feedback, in addition to being able to differentiate tasks with increased effectiveness. Notably, pupils reported that through discussion of feedback with teachers, they had a 'clearer idea about where they were in terms of their potential and how they could continue to improve' (Marwick et al 2003:53). This suggests that through effective feedback, pupils are more involved in the learning process which inevitably results in improved enjoyment of learning. Therefore, high-quality feedback opportunities should be incorporated into lesson planning.

Despite the perceived importance of feedback, many schools have treated it as if it were limited to marking (Educational Endowment Foundation, 2021). Sherrington (2017) denotes that written marking itself has little evidence for its effectiveness and therefore I would suggest that this time could be better spent preparing high quality lessons and providing valuable real-time formative assessment with well-planned and targeted feedback. Furthermore, Thom (2018) argues that written marking can be useful, however I would argue that it has become a proxy measure of feedback. Whole class feedback approaches seem to offer a more time-efficient way of being able to monitor quality and understanding.

Conclusion

I can conclude that feedback is a vital component of the AfL model, particularly in providing pupils with information in regard to their current level of attainment and where they should aim to be with their learning. Indeed, there is an observable strong relationship between the adoption of questioning and resulting feedback with the purpose of feedback being to develop pupils thinking and learning, which is of vital importance. In addition, Ofsted (2021:2) recognises that 'marking and feedback to pupils, both written and oral, are important aspects of assessment' and that 'marking and feedback should be consistent' in 'order to be effective and efficient in promoting learning'. I would recommend that effective feedback must be specific and timely, must address the pupil's advancement towards a learning outcome, be presented carefully and involve pupils in the process.

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The challenges faced by EAL pupils in science education

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This letter was written as part of my professional studies assignment during my time as a trainee secondary school teacher working at a Catholic college.

Dear Mr Adams

I would like to bring about your attention to the difficulties experienced by an English as an additional language (EAL) pupil, that are specific to science education. Despite many of the difficulties, such as culture shock, being well-documented as the result of recent study (Goldstein and Keller, 2015), I feel that the subject of science is beyond this scope of research. In reference to the Teachers' Standards (2012:12) teachers must 'have a clear understanding of the needs of all pupils' and namely 'those with English as an additional language'.

With reference to Cummins (1980), science education is delivered through the medium of academic language and a distinction between social and academic language can be observed. Individual pupils with competence in both basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) in addition to cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) are likely to demonstrate equal competence in an additional language known as common underlying proficiency (CUP). I would like to suggest that this theory is an over-simplification, which is supported by Cummins (2016) who likened the term European and describe someone from a European country. In addition, I believe the application in my professional practice of CUP could be problematic when used as an indicator that the previous level of education of newly arrived EAL pupil can determine the pace of which a pupil will be able to work towards academic proficiency in English.

Furthermore, it can take between three to five years for an EAL pupil to develop oral proficiency in contrast to between four and ten years for academic English proficiency to develop. This is very much dependant on a pupils' previous level of education and based on favourable conditions (Hakuta, Butler and Witt, 2000). My worry as a teacher is that pupils may be judged as being at a proficient level in English because they are able to hold a natural sounding conversation, so consequently the support needed to perform well in an academic language is withdrawn despite the need for this to still be accessible.

Conteh (2015:196) refers to the language patterns used in different contexts as language 'registers', and the register used in academic texts in schools is gradually developed from the day a pupil starts. I would suggest that this

procedure poses difficulties for EAL pupils who may join education part-way through. Indeed, pupils learn to write scientific responses without being given explicit instructions as to how to structure said responses linguistically. This is supported by Schleppegrell (2001) who concluded that scientific texts possess highly structured vocabulary, adopting frequent normalisations and fewer conjunctions. This inevitably results in a large volume of content to process, which in my opinion can create ambiguity.

Scientific language comprises many terms which can sound similar to common conversational English but with different meanings in science. For instance, the confusion arising from the periodic table and animal class identified by Carrier (2005), which is an example of a common misconception amongst EAL pupils. However, an EAL pupil can have an advantage when it comes to learning cross linguistic cognates in the instance of learning English (Kelley and Kohnert, 2012). In addition, specialised vocabulary is prominent in the sciences, and Dutro and Morgan (2001) adopt a powerful graphic analogy for the main building blocks of scientific vocabulary as 'bricks' and the words used to join them together as 'mortar'.

Literacy in science requires the use of specific strategies to support effective reading, writing, listening and note taking. Such strategies I would suggest we adopt in the science classroom consist of demonstrating basic literacy skills, describing, explaining, and predicting natural phenomena and to be able to read and process scientific articles.

Indeed, Carrier (2005) suggests that acquiring this literacy involves being able to utilise many academic functions associated with handling information, such as describing, reporting, and analysing. Consequently, inadequacies in pupils using said academic functions can contribute to a science literacy gap between EAL and English speakers. It is therefore of vital importance that science literacy be taught and routinely incorporated into the science classroom so that this gap is not exasperated, which could inevitably influence attainment levels. The issue with developing literacy skills in the science classroom is identified by Seah et al (2014) who uncovered differences in regard to written and oral language, in addition to differences between everyday language used by EAL pupils and specific science terminology, such as the use of expand.

Pupils need to be able to ask questions and inquire in order for scientific concepts to be fully understood and to produce good scientists. This formulation of new ideas as a result of scientific inquiry, and the ability to be able to debate and defend their ideas highlights the importance of, as a teacher, fostering pupil inquiry and problem solving skills. I would suggest that the ability to ask and answer questions forms the basis of the discipline of science, which is supported by Ardasheva et al (2015) who emphasise that negotiation of meaning is an essential process in the construction of scientific knowledge. I draw upon the statement made by Lemke (1990:24) who advocates that 'it is when we have to put words together and make sense, when we have to formulate questions, argue, reason and

generalise, that we learn the thematics of Science'. This is challenged by Cazden (1992:125) who, unlike Lemke, advocates for using colloquialisms in the science classroom with the relevant explanation to ensure lessons are not dull for pupils. I tend to agree with Cazden in that personal reference and figurative language, in addition to colloquialisms can serve to engage pupils in the learning experience and refrain from alienating pupils, particularly in this instance, EAL pupils.

I would also like to draw your attention to cultural factors that I feel may have an influence on the quality of science education from the viewpoint of an EAL pupil. Varying perceptions of the world by different cultural groups are described by Edmonds (2009) who compares the linear-progressive perceptions of the Western world with the Chinese spiritually based view of cyclical patterns. I would like to draw upon the example of Darwin's theory of evolution in comparison with Yin and Yen which are concerned with balance and not progression. As a result, many EAL pupils arrive in the science classroom having grown up in a culture that can be 'discontinuous with those of Western modern science' Cuevas et al (2005:338) meaning that as a teacher, adopting an inquiry based learning approach for an EAL pupil can be a challenge and can take a significant proportion of time to embed. This is not supported by Joy and Kolb (2009) who conclude that culture only has a marginally significant effect on the learning style of an EAL pupil, and that gender and level of education account for most of the variation.

Culture shock can be an all too evident experience for an EAL pupil newly arrived in a country, which can give rise to high stress levels (Saylag, 2014). As a teacher this potential negative impact on the learning process concerns me and can result in an EAL pupil not participating in the classroom. I would suggest the need to adapt the learning style from reflective observation to active experimentation. Indeed, as a teacher it is important to 'demonstrate an awareness of the physical, social and intellectual development of children' (Department for Education (DfE) Teachers' Standards, 2012:11).

As a science educator, it is of vital importance that we make use of strengths and cultural values of different ethnic groups and that we 'move beyond the myths and stereotypes' (Atwater et al, 2013:11). I deduce that in certain cases, the unrealistic parental expectations for academic success, can result in EAL pupils feeling psychologically and socially isolated when they do not meet expectations. I would suggest that in a large proportion of instances, language barriers beyond pupil control, are responsible for this difficulty.

I would like to conclude with a call for the integration of the teaching of science and language as we move forward. I believe that through close collaboration between science and specialist language teachers, EAL pupils will be able to further develop their communicational skills and seek to adopt a more inquiry based learning approach. Indeed, the willingness to confidently ask and answer questions is fundamental to science learning. I have drawn upon the

knowledge that previous education, cultural factors and funds of knowledge are significant indicators of potential success for EAL pupils and the importance of developing scientific literacy alongside teaching science content to provide said pupils with the best chance of reaching their potential. As expressed by Tong et al (2014:412), 'science provides EAL pupils with a context-enriched setting for the learning of language structure and functions and the expansion of students' vocabulary'.

As a science teacher, I believe that we have a responsibility to teach these skills and develop the inter-relation between science and literacy, as 'science cannot exist or be learned without text' (Norris and Phillips, 2003:226).

Yours sincerely,

Dr. Conner Hodgkiss

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Exploring Physical Education Transition from KS2 to KS3 through Brookfield's Lens

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Introduction

Approaching the end of primary education (KS2) and preparing for secondary school (KS3) is an important and transitional stage of a child's education but can also be a daunting and anxious time for all involved. Unless you are based in a middle school, where changes aren't always as obvious, moving from a primary school to a secondary school can include a vast number of different factors, including:

- Geographical differences, leading to different travel arrangements
- School size and the number of pupils and teachers is often much bigger
- Expectations and policies are often different
- The curriculum will often be delivered very differently, in most cases as single subjects with specialist teachers.

This transition can affect all subjects and has an impact on the traits, qualities and processes not specifically 'taught' within a subject. Factors can include a pupil's general organisation, navigating a new venue, moving between classrooms, learning new names and learning to be responsible and resilient.

The role of this article is to apply Brookfield's (2017) lenses to help understand and support transition in physical education (PE) from Year 6 (Y6) into Year 7 (Y7). Since its development in the mid-1990s, Brookfield's model was designed to support teachers to critically reflect upon certain incidences by allowing them to consider the many different perspectives of those involved. By considering the many perspectives available, it is believed that effective improvement, through self-reflection can take place. These perspectives are broken down across four separate lenses (Figure 1).

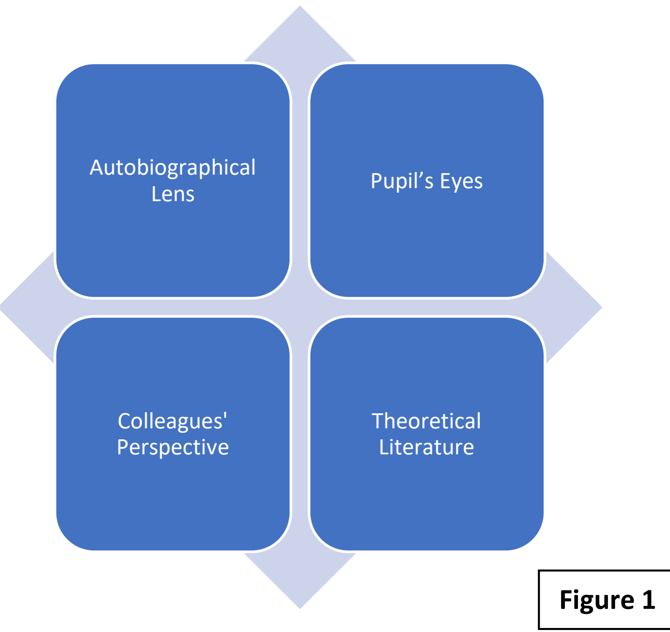

Figure 1

By considering these four separate lenses, I aim to promote a more effective transition into KS3 PE. The lenses have been interpreted in the following manner: the autobiographical lens will be seen through a Y6 teacher's eyes; the pupil's eyes will be those of a Y6 pupil; the colleague's perspective will be that of the receiving PE staff at the secondary school; whilst finally, the theoretical lens will look at the theory that can affect teaching and learning at both at KS2 and KS3. All teacher's and pupils are fictional and are created through our years of experiences in PE.

- **The Autobiographical Lens – The Primary School Teacher**

"As a primary school teacher, preparing our pupils for a new life in secondary school has far more importance than is often appreciated. Properly equipping our pupils with the tools to thrive as they make this momentous transition should be a key part of our job, and even with the current curriculum and time pressures, doing so can be a relatively simple process to implement. Ideas include, but are not limited to:

- *Understanding the KS3 curriculum and its development from KS2; therefore, understanding what the pupils' 'next steps' are once they leave your care (Figure 2).*
- *Exposing pupils to their new schools through visits, competitions and events. Ensuring the settings themselves aren't alien to them on their first day means they can start their new journey with an air of confidence.*
- *Allowing pupils more autonomy over their learning to prepare them for the more independent learning environment of a secondary school.*

Aiding transition is often managed by our year 6 teachers and our SENDCo (Special Educational Needs and Disabilities Co-Ordinator), but for PE, our PE lead has a fantastic relationship with our main secondary school."

- **The Pupil's Eyes – A Y6 Pupil**

"As a Y6 pupil, although I am excited to be growing up and moving into Y7, I still have some big worries and anxieties about the process. Will I fit in? Will I make friends? Will I enjoy it? Will I feel safe? Will I have anyone to support me? Primary school has helped mould me into the person I am now, but I am worried I won't continue to feel this way once I have moved on. I feel settled and comfortable in my primary school and I am concerned it will take me a long time to achieve this feeling in yr7.

I am not worried about everything, though. One thing I am really looking forward to is PE. It is something I have always especially enjoyed and excelled in, and the facilities at my new school are amazing - the sports hall is huge! I am hoping my PE lessons and my teacher will help me feel even more confident in the subject when I move into yr7, as well as showing me how to apply this confidence to other subjects and to my overall experience."

- **Colleagues' Perspective - The Secondary School PE Teacher**

"When I prepare to receive pupils from our local primary schools, we aim to help the pupils feel at ease and relaxed in their new environment. In the first few PE lessons and additional time given to this transition, we spend this time going through our PE policies and routines, for example: what kit do pupils need to bring and when; where to turn up to (we have multiple changing rooms); how they enter the changing rooms; expectations regarding getting changed into kit; and where to go once changed. Most Y7 pupils will not be used to carrying their PE kit, so we try to support them to help organise themselves for bringing in their kit. Some can store it in tutor rooms, whilst others prefer to carry it or leave it in their lockers. Another factor that can sometimes be overlooked is that of hygiene. We make pupils aware that their kit should be washed regularly and that they must also wash and be cleaned before putting their uniform back on. A 'shower in a can' of deodorant is not deemed the most hygienic way of cleaning oneself after a PE lesson! We have mirrors in our changing rooms, so we make pupils aware that they should not spend huge amounts of time checking their appearance or doing their hair after a lesson! Regarding kit, we have the majority of the new Y7 kit delivered direct to the school, so we arrange a time to hand this out. PE Kit is expensive, so we also recycle kit from current and previous students who have donated it and we distribute where we can. We realised that we often overlooked certain skills, such as being able to independently get changed in the changing rooms, being able to organise themselves in relation to their PE kit and tying their shoelaces and their tie, so we spend the first term nurturing and supporting these skills, so they get them right for the rest of their time in our school.

Once these foundations are complete, our first few lessons with Y7 involve gaining an idea of the teaching and learning that has taken place previously (their baseline). We also work with our main feeder schools and we therefore have a better idea of their taught curriculum and what experiences they have had prior to starting with us. We used to adopt a fresh start approach, but we felt this undermined learning taking place in the primary schools, and we wanted secondary to act as a platform for development. It can take a lot of time and work to address and unpick the range of experiences and ability levels of the incoming pupils, but once these are understood, we are able to make any tweaks to groupings and away we go..."

- **The Theoretical Literature - The National Curriculum for Physical Education (NCPE) and Motor Development**

The purpose and four aims of the NCPE (DfE, 2013) remain the same throughout KS1 to KS4, however when concentrating on Y6 – Y7 transition, it is the subject content that differs with swimming now no longer mandatory at secondary level. Although pupils are still expected to develop in the areas of games, dance, 'other competitive sports', outdoor and adventurous activities, and be expected to analyse performances, there are two areas that have changed significantly:

1. Pupils are now expected to participate in **competitive sports** outside of curriculum time (although, this could already be the case, but it is not explicitly stated at KS2).
2. It is expected that pupils **have mastered fundamental movement skills (FMS)** and are able to use these in isolation and combination. However, this is not always the case, making transition to KS3 more challenging.

Alongside what is expected to be taught at KS2 and at KS3, the learning taking place in these key stages in PE also alters slightly. By framing the NCPE through the domains of learning to look at the learning expected to take place, learning opportunities take place across all domains. The psychomotor domain (Dave, 1970; Harrow, 1972; Simpson, 1972) relates to the physical domain of learning, where a child masters movement from an early reflex or imitation stage to a skilled naturalization stage. The cognitive domain (Bloom, 1956; Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001) relates to the cognitive 'thinking' that a pupil will develop, ranging from the early knowledge or remembering stage to the high order skills of evaluating and creating. The affective and social (Krathwohl et al, 1964) domains are often mixed but can be defined separately. The affective domain refers to the feelings or emotional learning that takes place, whilst the social domain refers to the learning with others, whether that be through interaction with others or communication or leadership opportunities.

In Figure 2 below, we have interpreted and highlighted where differences in the domains of learning are present in the NCPE, followed by the key differences between KS2 and KS3. The red text alludes to where learning is taking place physically, green highlights where learning is both social and affective, whilst the blue text emphasises the cognitive earning spaces in the PE curriculum. Knowledge and appreciation of these learning domains helps strengthen the need for a holistic curriculum model and stresses that learning in PE is not purely 'physical'.

Using Gallahue and Ozmun's (2012) hourglass model of motor development, pupils are expected to have left the FMS stage by around 7 years old and should be developing into the transition phase of the specialised movement phase (SMS) at the latter end of KS2. Joining secondary school aged 11 is deemed the beginning of the application stage of the SMS, where pupils transfer and apply those skills towards specific sports skills and begin to specialise; this is evident in the way activities are planned in the NCPE. What is paramount however, in relation to transition, is that if FMS are developed effectively at primary school then this significantly impacts on the likelihood of adolescents being physically active (Barnett et al, 2009) and in later life and adulthood, promoting this notion of physical literacy (Whitehead, 2001).

Conclusion

The purpose of this article was to highlight the importance of alternative and different perspectives when approaching how pupils are best supported when it comes to transition from Y6 to Y7. The use of Brookfield's lenses allows for a deeper insight into the thoughts and process of different stakeholders and whilst attributed to transition in this article, can be used for the purposes of reflecting against other educational process or initiatives. Being able to see the perspective of the pupils involved and both the primary and secondary schools, whilst underpinning this with the theoretical literature can allow for a more effective and supportive system to be in place. Whilst this article serves as an exemplar to the thoughts and feeling towards transition, using this model for your own context could spark similar or new lines of enquiry that are relevant and specific to your pupils, teachers, or school. Gaining varied perspectives is incredibly important, however considering the socio-cultural and socio-economic backgrounds of the pupils or the experiences or years qualified of the teachers can help produce a clearer picture to help support your pupils.

Key Stage 2	**Key Stage 3**
Pupils should continue to apply and develop: • a broader range of skills, learning how to use them in different ways and to link them to make actions and sequences of movement. • They should enjoy communicating, collaborating and competing with each other. • They should develop an understanding of how to improve in different physical activities and sports and learn how to evaluate • and recognise their own success.	Pupils should build on and embed: • the physical development and skills learned in key stages 1 and 2, • become more competent, confident and expert in their techniques, and apply them across different sports and physical activities. • They should understand what makes a performance effective and how to apply these principles to their own and others' work. • They should develop the confidence and interest to get involved in exercise, sports and activities out of school and in later life, • and understand and apply the long-term health benefits of physical activity.
use running, jumping, throwing and catching in isolation and in combination Develop **Fundamental Movement Skills**	
play competitive games, modified where appropriate, and apply basic principles suitable for attacking and defending	use a range of tactics and strategies to overcome opponents in direct competition through team and individual games
Develop **Team and Individual Games** ability (technique, tactics, strategy)	
perform dances using a range of movement patterns	perform dances using advanced dance techniques within a range of dance styles and forms
Develop techniques and performances in **Dance**	
develop flexibility, strength, technique, control and balance	develop their technique and improve their performance in other competitive sports
Develop technique in **other competitive sports** (often Athletics or Gymnastics)	
take part in outdoor and adventurous activity (OAA) challenges both individually and within a team	take part in outdoor and adventurous activities which present intellectual and physical challenges and be encouraged to work in a team, building on trust and developing skills to solve problems, either individually or as a group
Participate in **OAA**	
compare their performances with previous ones and demonstrate improvement to achieve their personal best	analyse their performances compared to previous ones and demonstrate improvement to achieve their personal best
Compare and analyses performances	
	take part in competitive sports and activities outside school through community links or sports clubs. Participate in **extra-curricular / school sport**

Key:
Psychomotor, Affective, Social, Cognitive

Figure 2

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The Importance of Understanding, Supporting and Creating an Inclusive and Diverse School Environment for LGBT+ Pupils

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It is extremely important in today's climate that we use our platforms to educate ourselves and to stress the sheer importance of understanding and supporting Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender plus (LGBT+) students through providing them with a safe and inclusive school environment where LGBT+ homophobic language and bullying are appropriately dealt with and are never accepted as a social normative. Under the Department of Education (DfE) from 2021 it has been made compulsory that all schools must incorporate Relationships and Sex Education (RSE) within their curriculum, also ensuring all pupils are provided with an education about gender reassignment and sexual orientation, with specific influence on moving away from a heteronormative education within secondary schools (DfE, 2019). To further ensure these implications have been effectively put into place, during inspections Ofsted will now also be investigating whether each individual school are providing pupils with knowledge on the world in which they live in and ways in which they should "live alongside, and show respect for, a diverse range of people" (GOV.UK, 2021). Inspectors will spend time in schools gathering evidence on how they are promoting equality, through looking at the pupils and their personal development, alongside looking at leadership and management through analysing the ways in which they have met the requirements of the DfE's instruction on RSE. If these expectations are not met the school will not pass their Ofsted inspection with anything higher than 'requires

improvement' (GOV.UK, 2021). However, it is vitally important that schools do not just provide LGBT+ education just because it is a requirement. It is incredibly important that we all see and believe in the implementation of the instantaneous actions that need to take place in order to tackle homophobia and social constructs within our schools and start to open people's minds to the unique characteristics of each pupil as an individual.

When considering the appropriate environment required to create a positive and equal society within our schools it is vital at first to state that each individual school can interpret how they choose to go about achieving this (DfE, 2019). There are a variety of reasons as to why it is imperative that LGBT+ content should be imbedded within the curriculum. One of the main reasons LBGT+ education is crucial is because it comes under the Equality Act 2010, yet alongside this it is clear to see that LGBT+ issues and information are also widely spread throughout mainstream media, therefore it is vital that schools do not shy away from creating an inclusive school environment through their education (Biegel, 2018). Within school we all want to create an environment where every single pupil can flourish because every child deserves the opportunity to learn. Alongside education we also want all pupils to develop respectful and loyal relationships with their peers (Page, 2017). However, as stated by Michelle Page (2017) it has been found that not all LGBT+ pupils are provided with the same positive experiences compared to their heterosexual classmates. When nothing is put into place to challenge this, negative school environments can be established which in turn can affect the pupils' well-being and academic performance.

When creating a positive and inclusive LGBT+ environment, the first step is to tackle all instances of homophobic language within our schools. When we think about homophobic language it is important to know that this comes in many different forms, none of which should be accepted within our vocabulary. The most heard use of homophobic language within schools is the use of the word 'gay' to say something along the lines of 'that's so gay' (Kibirige and Tryl; Dellenty, 2019). The use of this type of homophobic language is very often viewed as being 'banter' which has no underlying malice. However, within our schools if we let this form of homophobic language go unchallenged then this can fundamentally have a negative impact on pupils' attainment and self-esteem because it is a way of tolerating and accepting homophobia within our schools. The statistics show that only as little as 10% of teachers challenge this form of homophobic language, proving that the correct policies need to be established within every individual school to eradicate the acceptance of homophobic language altogether. This can be achieved through "creating a school policy that clearly states homophobic language is wrong and will not be tolerated from any member of the school community" (Kibirige and Tryl: 14). This is the best way to start to tackle the problem of homophobic language in schools and confirms that it certainly is not impossible.

Alongside homophobic language being a huge problem within schools, an even more serious issue that must be tackled is homophobic bullying as this can have a massively detrimental impact on LGBT+ youths. Furthermore, in

order to rid schools of homophobic bullying it is important to understand that conversations about this form of school bullying almost always focus on the LGBT+ pupils as the victims. In many cases this can encourage negative psychological responses enabling people to continuously view bullied LGBT+ pupils in a lens of victimisation (Payne and Smith, 2013). These dialogues can "reduce the complexities of peer-to-peer aggression" (Payne and Smith, 2013: 2) which in turn makes tackling homophobic bullying in school a more complex issue. One of the most effective solutions to LGBT+ bullying is the implementation of anti-bullying policies which explicitly forbid any forms of bullying based upon pupils' sexuality, gender expression and gender identity (Greytak, Kosciw, Villenas, Goodemow, Gonsiorek and Poteat, 2016). Therefore, implying that homophobic bullying can be prohibited and stopped within every school, and can be achieved through a clear cut no tolerance policy towards LGBT+ bullying.

As a history teacher myself, I am now going to tell you a little bit about how LGBT+ history has previously been portrayed in secondary schools and how this can be implemented in a far more effective manner. As stated by Ian Morrall in 2010, he was incredibly disappointed to hear that as part of LGBT history month pupils had been told the story of a gay man and his fight against HIV. This relates LGBT+ people with sexually transmitted infections and death which certainly is not a positive depiction and can lead to stereotypes and misconceptions (Morrall, 2010). Moreover, LGBT history month should be portrayed in a more positive and progressive manner which does not just focus upon death and disease. History instead should provide 'the opportunity to develop pupils' knowledge of the role that LGBT people have had in Britain and the wider world' (Ward, 2017: 19). Ward (2017) further stated that this could be achieved through examining how LGBT+ equality has evolved over time, the comparison of social movements, research based around the lives of LGBT+ people and highlighting the key LGBT+ historical figures.

Another vital point to make is that protected characteristics should not just be spoken about during the likes of LGBT History Month. It is also not enough to just speak about these characteristics in PHSCE and Religious Studies lessons because when we do this, we are just associating LGBT+ in subject areas which focus upon issues and debates, once again having a negative impact on people's perception of LGBT+ people and their communities (Barnes and Carlie, 2018). Another issue with only including LGBT+ education in these parts of the curriculum is that they are often subjects where parents have the opportunity to remove their children from the lessons. Therefore, incorporating LGBT+ inclusion and education throughout the whole school curriculum, in all subject areas, ensures that all pupils have access to this education and opens their eyes to an equal school environment based on tolerance and acceptance not discrimination and hatred. This can also be achieved through the implementation and use of the LGBT+ inclusive Educate and Celebrate Pride in Secondary Education Book Collection (Barnes and Carlie, 2018). This collection of books was created by Elly Barnes who dedicated her career to changing the educational system through providing inclusion of LGBT+ resources in starting in nurseries all the way up to universities. Educate and Celebrate is also dedicated to providing training to youths, families and even teachers to try and eradicate discrimination altogether. Surveys completed by those who received this training found that a massive 94% of secondary school

pupils stated that they now felt far more confident in expressing themselves and their opinions in school, as this training and inclusion had increased the feeling of community within their schools (Educate & Celebrate, 2021). Therefore, it is very clear to see that an inclusive school community can be achieved and there are brilliant resources available for schools to not only educate pupils about LGBT+, but to also create a diverse and inclusive curriculum and school environment.

To conclude, the information outlined within this article provides you with an insight into some interesting facts about how LGBT+ people have been represented in schools over the years and the changes that need to be made going forward. Moreover, this can be achieved through the implementation of school policies that tackle homophobic language, homophobic bullying, and by utilising LGBT+ inclusive resources within all aspects of the curriculum. Decades of discrimination has meant that positive LGBT+ representation in schools has been made difficult to implement, but I hope this article has proved to you that it is in no way, shape, or form impossible.

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The Impact of ADHD on Pupils' Academic Performance: What Support Teachers can give within the Classroom Environment

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Hello to all subject department colleagues, today I will be talking about the importance of understanding how prevalent Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD) is and how this Special Educational Needs and Disability (SEND) need impacts upon an individual pupils' academic performance and what we can do as teachers to ensure that pupils who have ADHD receive the correct support and understanding. A 2016 survey stated that up until that point approximately 6.1 million children had been diagnosed with ADHD (National Survey of Children's Health, 2016). Another study stated that in a sample of 100 pupils, 8 out of every 10 of them displayed clear signs of ADHD, with more boys seemingly being affected than girls (Westwood, 2018). From these statistics it is very clear to see that ADHD is very prevalent within children and therefore is very regularly diagnosed in school pupils. However, due to the fact ADHD causes hyperactive activity which in turn creates a disruptive environment, many children diagnosed with ADHD will be associated with this label in a negative context and in turn this can lead them to build up a negative image of themselves (Rogers, 2015; Spohrer, 2002). Moreover, I am writing this article as an attempt to change this, based upon my own personal experiences during my initial school engagement week and when I was a pupil, it was evidently seen in some instances that disruptive pupils can sometimes be pushed to one side due to the negative label attached to them for their occasional disruptive behaviour. However, conscious efforts need to be made to stop this which can be achieved through a collection of methods I will be talking about in this article.

As stated within Teacher Standard five (DfE, 2012), as teachers we should "adapt teaching to respond to the strengths and needs of all pupils" (Blatchford, 2013: 29). Richard Blatchford (2013) expanded on this further stating that getting to know individual pupils' learning needs is touched upon and required within a number of the Teacher Standards' and this can be enhanced through acting upon the individual pupils' action plan. As teachers we should all be inspired by the individual striking features, diversity and interests which make up a whole class of pupils. Furthermore, we should tailor our lessons to the pupils' different needs within the classroom through adaptive teaching methods, today we will be focusing on ADHD.

When thinking about ADHD it is vital we understand how SEND needs are viewed within schools. In fact, there has been quite a lot of criticism over the years that refers to SEND as a 'medical' disability rather than working on tackling the practices and cultures which creates the barriers in the first place (Peacey, 2019). The negativity which can sometimes be attached to SEND needs certainly is present when considering ADHD in the classroom. This is

because ADHD in and of itself is the medical diagnosis appointed to people who display behavioural, cognitive, and developmental difficulties (Spohrer, 2002). A diagnosis of ADHD in and of itself actually tells us nothing about what it is like to teach a pupil with this medical diagnosis. Before we go onto talk about what should be done to support pupils with ADHD within our classrooms, I will talk a little bit about the treatments available for this particular SEND need. There are two most common treatments for ADHD which involve behaviour management and interventions, alongside stimulant medications, such as Ritalin (Peacey, 2019; Daley and Birchwood, 2009). Moreover, it is clear to see from this that there are different treatment routes available to these pupils which in turn could influence how pupils act within our classrooms but, as teachers we need to know specific behavioural techniques which allow us to manage all pupils who have ADHD within our classes regardless of whether they receive treatment or not.

It is very important to keep in mind when talking about ADHD pupils that there is no behaviour displayed by someone with ADHD which is so peculiar that we all have not witnessed within our classrooms. However, the problem faced with teaching pupils with ADHD is that at times their behaviour will challenge anyone regardless of how organised, persistent, and calm you may be (Spohrer, 2002). Moreover, with ADHD type behaviours and characteristics being so prevalent within our classrooms they should not be viewed as something that is scary or impossible to manage because they are not. Another point to make when talking about behaviour management in the context of ADHD pupils, as stated by Peter Westwood (2018) highlighted the point that in some cases the label 'ADHD' is applied to pupils who have not been diagnosed with this learning need. This is due to the fact that inappropriate and relentless behaviour has been attached to ADHD but displaying these features does not explicitly mean that every pupil who behaves in a negative manner has ADHD.

Moving on from this, when looking into the works of Paul Cooper (1999) I found that some of the potential mechanisms associated with ADHD can also be closely associated with anti-social behaviour. This is because the cognitive actions associated with ADHD can make it far more difficult for pupils to fully internalise and comprehend certain social rules associated with the classroom when they are communicated verbally. However, this can result in a different outcome if we teach pupils the rules of our classrooms through more active methods (Barkley, 1990 in Cooper, 1999). This is an example of an impact ADHD can have on a pupils' academic performance, but from primary school onwards there are other academic disadvantages faced by pupils who have been diagnosed with this SEND need. Studies have shown that pre-schoolers who have ADHD can experience complications with their memory, academic and reasoning skills which contribute towards further academic complications which follow them throughout their school years (Daley and Birchwood, 2009). Moreover, it is vital moving on from here to outline the tips and classroom management techniques which I recommend you try within your classroom when adapting your teaching to suit pupils with ADHD.

When informing my research on adaptive teaching I came across the book, *500 Tips for Working with Children with Special Needs*, written by Betty Vahid, Sally Harwood, and Sally Brown (1998). This work outlines some very simple but effective tips for teachers to put into place when adapting teaching for pupils with ADHD and I think it is important to share these techniques with you today.

Some of the most effective techniques I found within this book were:

(1) To ensure that the pupils are always safe, keeping them away from any dangerous stimuli.
(2) To ensure discipline is clearly implemented throughout their routine through clear and understandable rewards and consequences.
(3) To recognise the achievements of all pupils through effective use of praise.
(4) To establish with the pupils exactly what constitutes as completed work and what constitutes as unacceptable work.
(5) To contribute towards establishing patience and a habit where pupils work quietly.
(6) To frequently check that pupils are listening at all times.
(7) To encourage pupils to ask for help when they need it rather than just moving onto the next task or sitting there doing nothing.

These are all simple steps which can be taken in order to promote best practice for those pupils within our classrooms who have ADHD. Another vital point to make is that pupils with ADHD greatly benefit from having short breaks away from their work to help maintain their focus and to try and prevent disruptive behaviour in the classroom (Westwood, 2018; Bioulace et al, 2012). Therefore, implementing these simple but effective techniques can have an impact on tackling the anti-social behaviour which can often be associated with this diagnosis. An example of when I experienced anti-social and inappropriate behaviour from a pupil with ADHD was with one of my year 10 pupils during my first school placement, but with the correct behavioural management skills I was able to ensure they got their work done to a great standard whilst causing little to no disruption to their classmates. I achieved this through beginning every lesson checking in with this pupil to ensure they are ok, safe, and ready to settle into a learning environment. From here I can begin the lesson with the clear behavioural boundaries already set for what I expect and what will not be tolerated. Moreover, the lesson can then begin with praise consistently being awarded to great work, contributions to the class, and the correct behaviour displayed throughout the lesson as I have seen through first-hand experience the great impact positive praise can have on ADHD pupils' engagement, motivation, and attainment. Therefore, the seven techniques listed previously are incredibly important and successful methods which should be utilised in all classrooms to ensure the learning environment is suited to ADHD pupils.

Alongside these practical methods that can easily and effectively be implemented within all our lessons I also believe it to be very important to draw your attention towards the positive impact that technology can have on children with

ADHD. Technology can be an effective tool for pupil engagement “because a number of inherent features are closely associated with characteristics of effective instruction” (Xu, Reid and Steckelberg, 2002: 224). This can be utilised within the classroom through the use of computers, words, graphics, animations and sound. Through these methods psychologists and educators have been able to increase their cognition understanding, training and study of the neurological processes present in people with ADHD (Xu, Reid and Steckelberg, 2002). Therefore, where possible we should always think about how we can incorporate the technology available to us to positively impact upon pupil progress.

To conclude, through carrying out research on the impact ADHD has on pupil engagement and progress I found it to be exceptionally necessary to write this article. Moreover, when you have gained a full understanding of ADHD and how it can affect pupil progress, this enables you to give pupils with ADHD the best opportunities to succeed in our classrooms without the negative label which can otherwise affect the way they are viewed by others. I hope you can now enter your classroom with the knowledge of successful and simple techniques which can be implemented in all our classrooms alongside a firm understanding of how ADHD impacts upon an individual pupils’ academic performance.

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Considering Oracy through Tripp's Critical Incident framework; a Teach First teacher's account

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"The most fundamental life skill for children is the ability to communicate. It directly impacts on their ability to learn, to develop friendships and on their life chances."

Bercow Review 2018: 7

Pupils…who do not learn to speak, read and write fluently and confidently are effectively disenfranchised."

Department for Education 2013: 13

"Sir, sir I think that…because…"

Pupil-A, 2020

Introduction

This article reports a qualitative autoethnographic case-study which critically reflects on my developing teaching practice using Tripp's (2002) critical incident (CI) framework. The study, which I conducted as part of the Teach First Leadership Development Programme (LDP), uses the CI framework to consider an incident centring around Pupil-A and the role of oracy. Oracy is said to develop "children's capacity to use speech to express their thoughts and communicate with others, in education and in life" (Alexander 2013: 10). My study indicates broad benefits that oracy can bring to primary education.

The LDP trains participants to become teachers in deprived settings; a program born from a national teacher shortage and the identification that schools, and children, in disadvantaged areas often achieve reduced educational outcomes in comparison with more affluent areas (Sundorph 2018; DfE 2017, 2021; Ofsted 2013). The LDP placed me in a lower key stage two class at a one form entry primary in one of the most deprived areas in the country. The pupils are around 50 percent pupil premium (PP) and 40 percent have English as an additional language (EAL). Prior to the pandemic, the DfE showed that children growing up in deprived areas were around a year behind their more affluent peers (DfE, 2017: 16) and it has been shown that throughout Covid-19 disruptions, disadvantaged pupils have lost the most (DfE 2021). In this article I suggest that the positive impact of oracy is especially valuable in deprived contexts

Tripp's Critical incident framework

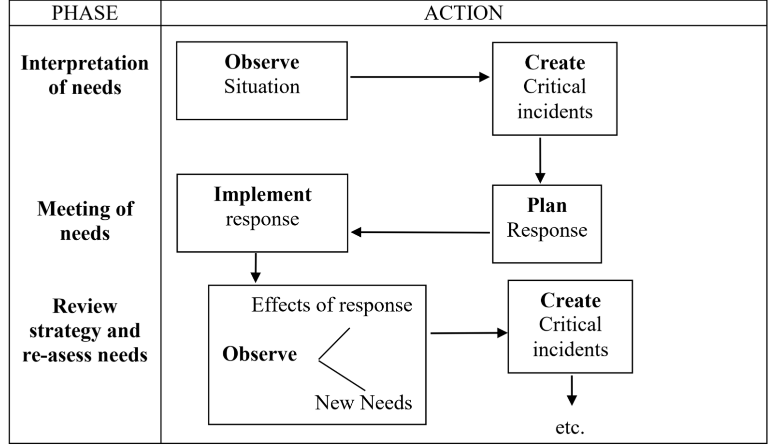
Tripp's CI framework has parallels with a historian's method of analysing pivotal moments in the past, to draw conclusions about related events and determining why an outcome occurred (Tripp 2002: 24). Tripp suggests the

framework be used by teachers on a smaller scale, examining “commonplace events…in routine practice” but to explore “underlying trends, motives and structures” (Tripp 2002: 25). An important aspect of this process is that the teacher’s practice “is not determined only by their own values, beliefs and personal experiences, but also the social and material conditions of the teacher’s material existence” (Mohammed 2016: 28). By reflecting upon their practice and drawing inferences about changes or improvements which could benefit their teaching practice, teachers can work towards “improved professional judgement” (Tripp 2002: 124): a process potentially rich with instructive qualitative detail. As such, it could be argued that studies such as Griffin (2003) and Shapira-Lishchinsky (2011), which collect mass-data from teacher’s CIs and draw inferences, rather miscalculate the framework. Whilst the goal of determining the effectiveness of the CI methodology for early career teachers is highly laudable, it seems reductive to confine that qualitative reflective thinking to coded percentages and tables. Ultimately, it is the teacher’s qualitative commitment to the framework which will facilitate Tripp’s goal of improved professional judgement.

Tripp’s cycle requires four kinds of judgement (2002: 124-141). In brief, these are: practical (core teaching decisions, often instant); diagnostic (harnessing academic and profession-specific understanding); reflective (considering the personal and moral values implicit in teaching decisions); critical (robust formal evaluation). Tripp posits these need to be employed sequentially, each building on the previous judgement (2002: 140).

Tripp also categorises the CI framework as having three ‘phases’: interpretation of needs, meeting of needs and review and assessment of needs (Tripp 2002: 32. See Image A1). The identification of the CI is the first of Tripp’s stages and includes observation of a situation leading to the teacher conceptualising the CI. Tripp suggests a CI should “begin with a concrete description” (2002: 32); first the teacher must outline and contextualise the incident, which I do next.

A1 - Tripp’s Diagnostic Teaching Cycle (reproduced from Tripp 2002: 32)



The critical incident: oracy as commonality of experience

My observation begins with Pupil-A, who arrived in the UK in 2019 and joined the school three months into Year 2. Pupil-A had limited previous experience of formal education and almost no English, a situation which the Education Endowment Foundation (EEF) identifies as likely to hold back a child learning progress until their mid-teens (2016). Pupil-A attended school for four months of Year 2 before the March 2020 national lockdown closed schools, returning to school in September 2020. Pupil-A had little confidence and a negative fixed-mindset (Dweck 2008) about learning at school: a profound fear of speaking English linked to a trepidation of making mistakes led to limited engagement in class. Pupil-A would often become downhearted when spoken to or during one-to-one engagement, despite my efforts to be encouraging and providing tasks with small-step increments. While Pupil-A gained confidence when settled into a routine of differentiated, bespoke English and phonics activities, their learning was not fully engaged.

My CI came during a unit of work in the 2020 autumn term. Although the focus of my planning was writing, it was through oracy that Pupil-A came to make progress in English. I was using a Talk for Writing unit, which the EEF (2015) suggests can improve writing engagement and outcomes, and which the school had recently adopted. TFW units begin with a 'hook' where children encounter something to fire their imagination. The focus was writing a warning tale and I had made a practical judgement (Tripp 2002) to structure writing around a dragon. Making a diagnostic judgement (Tripp 2002), I chose to enthuse the children through the hook of discovering a dragon's egg. I constructed a huge papier-mâché egg and used some branches I had burnt at home to build a sooty-smelling-nest for the egg. To complete the picture, I singed the edges of nearby wall-posters. When the children entered the classroom, they would first be greeted by the smell and then would see the egg within the nest. This aimed to engage the children equally; however, it was an indivual response that ultimately developed my teaching practice.

The focus of my CI is the response to the dragon's egg, specifically the reflective and critical judgements (Tripp 2002) I drew from the improvement in speaking and listening (oracy) it catalysed. I had made a diagnostic judgement (Tripp 2002) to structure talking opportunities to generate ideas that the children could use in their writing. This was successful; however, I would use reflective judgement (Tripp 2002) to highlight that it was the talking itself which created the greatest impact on learning. The oracy response to the egg was very positive; the children decided the egg must have been left by a dragon and cited the surrounding burnt material as evidence. They engaged, both in structured class debates (in pairs, small groups and whole class) and during their own playtimes, in speculation and counter-speculation: why had the dragon chosen our classroom? What kind of dragon laid the egg? When would it hatch? This led to a huge upswell in the quality of oracy as children presented evidence to support their thoughts and swapped their opinions using engaging vocabulary and complex sentences. Children who were previously passive and quiet were drawn into the debate, becoming active participants. Amidst this, Pupil-A came out of their shell in a way that I had not anticipated.

The heart of my critical reflection (Tripp 2002) was Pupil-A returning from break one day; The difference in Pupil-A's confidence and progress with English was clear when they spontaneously used both an expanded noun phrase and subordinate clause:

> "Sir, sir, I think that a green, fire dragon will hatch out of the egg because the egg is green and there is all that burnt stuff."

The dragon egg seemed to light a spark in Pupil-A's confidence. Soon they were confidently speculating, in improving English, about various dragon theories. For the first time, Pupil-A put up their hand volunteering ideas, and would talk about the dragon whenever they had my attention; in this imaginary world, it was less dauting to experiment with English oracy skills. I realised the impact that opportunities for oracy had provided through the 'commonality of experience' of the dragon's egg. Critical judgement (Tripp 2002) has identified that my teaching practice needed to develop to find wider opportunities to truly engage all learners and provide them with more opportunities for personalised success in learning.

I can now see using critical judgement how the CI highlights the extent to which deep planning in advance gave me the opportunity to provide a creative learning experience. I had planned the unit during a special day out-of-class at the end of the previous term, a new privilege afforded by our headteacher. It has been suggested that some teachers find the standard allotted time, ten percent, for Planning Preparation and Assessment (PPA) insufficient to

keep up with weekly planning and other non-contact tasks (DfE 2018). Reflecting on my teaching career to date, I often find that my creativity becomes sapped by the weekly demanding nature of my class teacher role. I certainly found that the additional one-off planning time gave me oxygen for thought and fired my lesson-planning-creativity. My teaching practice had been tempered by the material reality of the teaching week, however, working in a supportive professional environment gave me the opportunity to impact pupil progress.

Evaluating oracy options

Following the CI phases, next I will consider ‘meeting needs’ (Tripp 2001). I chose to develop my vision-focused practice by focusing on oracy to impact outcomes. Speaking and listening are the “most fundamental life skill for children” impacting “on their ability to learn, to develop friendships and on their life chances” (Bercow 2018: 7), however nationally, in a pre-Covid-19 landscape, research suggests that children in deprived areas have reduced educational and life-choices due to low oracy skills (Bercow 2018; Voice 21 2016; Communication Trust 2017). Oracy has been framed as oracy-dialogics (Alexander 2020) which recognises the catalytic role of the teacher (Nichol and Andrews 2018). However, there is “no single pattern of classroom interaction that can meet the varied demands of a modern curriculum” (Alexander 2013: 4); rather the teacher must use a varied ‘structured oracy’ (Voice 21 2016). Many frameworks for oracy have been suggested (Voice 21 2016; 2019; Communication Trust 2017; Oracy Cambridge 2019; Alexander 2020). However, there is much to recommend the clarity of ‘structure’, ‘content’, ‘quality’ and ‘manner’ (Nichol and Andrews 2018), which I adopted to inform my oracy actions.

The theoretical importance of oracy

Adopting an oracy approach is underpinned by academic theory. Vygotsky suggested that it is through the social (oral) interaction with others that people primarily learn; the ‘significant other’, teacher, structuring the learning by scaffolding learning within the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky 1934; 1978). Similarly, Bourdieu’s cultural capital (1977; 1986) acts to support a focus on oracy; one must learn all the skills of language to participate fully in society. Therefore, my teaching actions need to support these skills to cultivate cultural capital. Many studies corroborate this stance, that good oracy improves learning across the curriculum and is vital for later adult life (Alexander 2013; 2020; Bercow 2018; Nichol and Andrews 2018).

Considering language skills, the National Curriculum (NC) does not include the word oracy (DfE 2013), although it does briefly acknowledge ‘speaking’, noting that:

> “English has a pre-eminent place in education…high-quality education in English will teach pupils to speak and write fluently so that they can communicate their ideas and emotions to others and through their reading and listening, others can communicate with them… All the skills of language are essential to participating fully as a member of society; pupils, therefore, who do not learn to speak, read and write fluently and confidently are effectively disenfranchised.” (DfE 2013: 13)

That concern of disenfranchisement has strong parallels relating to Bourdieu’s cultural capital which can determine “the path not taken” in life (Burke 2015: 10). To participate fully across society an individual requires advanced speaking and listening skills. However, despite identifying the importance of speaking and listening the primary NC does not provide guidance about how these skills should be taught. The NC document runs to 201 pages. There are

brief mentions of oracy, including the idealistically affirmative statement that the NC “reflects the importance of spoken language in pupils’ development across the whole curriculum”, a quote reproduced verbatim in the English, maths and science sections (2013: 13;100;145). The DfE give 85 pages of the curriculum to detailing the small steps which must be taught to children for them to reach writing and reading milestones by Year 6. Similarly, 76 pages are focused on the small steps for children within maths and science. Notable by its omission, is that there are no methods, approaches or small steps suggested for the teaching of speaking or listening. Broad goals are touched upon, for example, teachers are required to “ensure the continual development of pupils’ confidence and competence in spoken language and listening skills” (DfE 2013:13-14). This leaves the class teacher with a dilemma; how should one teach to these goals? Clearly, they are vitally important, but what methodology or small steps should be used to achieve them?

Research shows that oracy improves educational attainment. This is not only the case for a subject like English, but rather studies have also shown that oracy improves attainment across all areas of the primary curriculum and beyond into adult-working-life (Bercow Review 2018; Voice 21 2016; 2019; Communication Trust 2017; Alexander 2020). Effective oracy programs have imbedded speaking and listening across the curriculum and throughout schools; so that systems for staff and children are clear and that skills in speaking and listening have deep and rich opportunities to become established in schema and culture (Voice 21 2016; 2019; Alexander 2020).

It has been suggested the DfE should look again at the role of oracy (Alexander 2013): the Bercow Review Ten Years On (2018) proposed the re-examination of oracy’s importance, following the removal of “the distinct ‘speaking and listening’ strand to the National Curriculum…sending a signal to schools that spoken language is not a priority” (2018: 16). Similarly, Alexander noted that shortly before the new NC was established an education minister chose not to require schools “to raise the profile of children’s talk for fear of encouraging what he called ‘idle chatter in class’” (Alexander 2020: 2). Certainly, there is more to oracy than letting children engage in ‘chatter’, as with other topics and skills, oracy needs to be taught and adopted with appropriate learning-behaviours. My study does not seek to advance a political position; however, the expressed importance of speaking and listening is at odds with guidance; oracy is recognised, but not supported by, the National Curriculum leaving teachers without clear national guidance.

My Actions: teaching structured oracy

Considering how oracy could be leveraged across the curriculum I chose to structure oracy to develop my practice by ensuring quieter children have opportunities to speak in class and strengthening talk-partner conventions. Within my classroom I have aimed to harness four aspects of oracy: ‘structure’, ‘content’, ‘quality’ and ‘manner’ (Nichol and Andrews 2018). These fall across four scales: talk-partners (carefully chosen to ensure engagement and appropriate learning-behaviours), small groups and whole class. I structure these across the curriculum and plan opportunities for oracy content at this scale in each lesson. For this to be effective I have had to establish conventions for speaking (structure) and for monitoring such exchanges (quality). During talk-partner episodes I make sure to visually circulate, listening into content and monitoring that children are on task. I also make extensive use of cold calling (Lemov 2015) to check responses and immediately measure the impact of the oracy activity, allowing me to re-focus the activity if required. Cold calling also gives the quieter children in the class a chance to have their voices heard. Throughout, I model (quality and manner) responses and I scaffold oracy using stem-sentences across the curriculum (for example ‘I notice that__’).

I have also organised a weekly lunchtime oracy club, to further provide intervention supporting children who struggle with oracy. I chose six children for this group, who have struggled with low-linguistic-proficiency. The group discusses different engaging topics, for example how could school dinners be improved (structure and content). The small group setting allows me to carefully engage their ZPD by scaffolding and modelling oracy (quality and manner). In a similar vein, I have collaborated with another teacher to re-establish the school council. This has provided opportunities to action oracy beyond my classroom, and I have noted impact observing the councillors using new oracy skills to advocate for changes within the council and within their classes.

'Observing the effect' of my actions (Tripp), establishing oracy routines has been a slow process, especially with the significant disruptions caused by Covid-19 to contact-time. However, I have been able to evaluate my actions by measuring impact; children are internalising the formula and expectations for oracy and are making increased use of the stem sentences, both orally and in written work, this has especially benefited quieter children. I have even noted instances of the children using them during their playtimes.

Conclusion

My CI demonstrated the widespread benefits of oracy – creating stimulus for talk and by giving children opportunities to explore and express their ideas; and crucially to listen to other children. My initial goal was improved writing outcomes, but the engagement of previously withdrawn Pupil-A, became the centre of the CI. Whilst the CI focused on Pupil-A, it had benefits across the class: writing standards, and oracy engagement improved. In response to the CI I took the key action to investigate oracy more deeply to 'meet needs' (Tripp 2002), concluding that oracy would develop my teaching practice by creating more opportunities to positively impact on learning across the curriculum (Alexander 2013; 2020; Bercow 2018). These actions continue to inform my practice and has shown the importance of growth mindset in making educational progress. Similarly, it seems clear that oracy has a vital role to play, particularly in deprived contexts, in facilitating cultural capital but that teachers would be helped by greater guidance, to ensure that school provides children with good oracy skills; that, to paraphrase the DfE, we *enfranchise* children as successful citizens of the future.

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Research-informed interventions to improve the teaching of grammar in Modern Foreign Languages

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Introduction

The aim of this article is to implement research-informed interventions to improve my practice in the classroom regarding the teaching of grammar in Modern Foreign Languages. I chose a middle-ability year seven French class in the school that I am teaching, as the focus group for my article. With this group I will implement my research-informed strategies and evaluate their effectiveness. A conceptual challenge that they have encountered in their learning to date is grammatical competence, in particular adjectival agreements. Smith & Conti (2016) suggest that students "find it relatively easy to grasp the rules of adjective agreement but rarely apply them with total accuracy" (p. 74). Learners have difficulty internalising the rules to the point where the rule is applied so automatically, that it bypasses consciousness (Conti, 2015). This is because the brain focuses on the most semantically salient features of a word, meaning adjective agreements on the ends of words are likely to be neglected. Furthermore, there are a lot of cognitive operations to perform under real operating conditions, which leads to mistakes, as speakers must retrieve the adjective, know the grammatical gender and number of the noun, make the adjective agree, and apply the rules, which may be regular or irregular (Smith & Conti, 2016). The fact that pupils have a poor understanding of grammar does result in a barrier to learning and delays pupil progress within languages, because grammar is an integral part of not only the national curriculum but also GCSE subject content. The National Curriculum (Department for Education, 2014) aims to ensure all pupils can use "a variety of key grammatical structures" (p. 99). Furthermore, the AQA GCSE French Specification requires pupils to "make accurate use of a variety of vocabulary and grammatical structures including some more complex forms" (AQA, 2016, p. 13) and this explicitly includes adjectival agreements. As a result, it is essential that learners have a secure knowledge of core grammar in order to fulfil the objectives of the National Curriculum objectives as well as to succeed in GCSE exams and beyond.

Research literature

The importance of grammar in foreign language teaching is a much-debated topic, where research often disagrees on whether grammar should be taught explicitly or implicitly. Krashen's Monitor hypothesis (1982) suggests that explicit grammar teaching plays "only a limited role in second language performance" (p. 16) and is not necessary if there is sufficient 'comprehensible input' (Krashen, 1985). Research implies that "a traditional approach to teaching grammar based on explicit explanations and drill-like practice is unlikely to result in the acquisition of the implicit knowledge needed for fluent and accurate communication" (Ellis, 2006, p. 102). On the other hand, a lot of the research community does not agree with Krashen's view of excluding grammar teaching from the classroom (Larsen-

Freeman, 2015), as implicit input alone is not sufficient to avoid grammatical errors (Harley & Swain, 1984). This is primarily because classroom-based learning does not allow enough time for natural acquisition to occur, but grammar teaching provides learners with a shortcut (Pachler et al., 2014). Considering these two positions, I believe that there is a compromise to be made, as "both under and over emphasis on grammar can lead to frustration" and can hinder communication (Pachler et al., 2014, p. 257). Grammatical competence and communicative competence are often viewed as entirely separate entities. However, I believe that the first is a subset of the latter, as "the ability to use language grammatically correctly is… an integral part of effective communication" (Pachler et al., 2014, p. 252).

One of the most common approaches to teaching grammar is the 'Presentation-Practice-Production' (PPP) model (Smith & Conti, 2016). Firstly, this model involves presenting the grammatical concept and providing lots of examples as input. The 'practice' stage of the PPP model provides learners with plenty of opportunities to notice, analyse, and evaluate the structure in the context of listening and reading, or drill-style tasks (Smith & Conti, 2016). At first, practice involves a controlled application of the grammar through mini-whiteboards, gap-fills, or multiple-choice questions. Production then becomes less controlled, and pupils gain more responsibility in tasks such as supported sentence writing (Smith & Conti, 2016). This would be appropriate in my context, as pupils get overwhelmed and give up if it is too difficult too quickly. I also like the structure that this approach gives to lessons, and its steps are similar to the Rosenshine principle of "present new material in small steps with student practice after each step" (Rosenshine, 2012).

Regarding the 'presentation' stage of PPP, research suggests two different approaches for first introducing a grammar structure to learners. The first of the two is the deductive approach, where pupils are given a grammatical rule by the teacher, followed by lots of examples, and then pupils put the rule into practice. On the other hand, the inductive approach involves the learners being presented with lots of examples, from which learners develop their own rules through noticing patterns (Ellis, 2006). Research has not come to a clear conclusion as to which approach is more effective (Smith & Conti, 2016), as each approach has its advantages and disadvantages. For example, the deductive approach is quicker, and the grammar is explained clearly and simply (Smith & Conti, 2016), which is likely to avoid misconceptions. On the other hand, the inductive approach "involves problem solving and greater cognitive investment in the process, which means it may lead to better retention" in the long term (Smith, 2018, p. 94), as well as encouraging more engagement from the pupils. In my context, some pupils may respond well to this challenge of pattern-recognition and the approach could be successful in encouraging more autonomy from pupils. However, some pupils "want the security of knowing what is right, which they believe rules give them" (Larsen-Freeman, 2015, p. 271), and therefore would not enjoy this challenge.

As previously mentioned, Krashen (1985) maintains that grammar can be learnt implicitly through comprehensible input alone. Although I do not agree with this position, input is still extremely important in order to model the language, for learners to imitate. Trahey & White (1993) found that 'flooding the input' with many uses of a particular grammar structure has positive effects, as learners start to notice the patterns and then adopt them. Sharwood-Smith (1993) suggests 'input enhancement', which involves making certain features of language in a passage more prominent in order to draw attention to the grammar. This could be done through boldfacing or highlighting certain parts of words such as the adjective endings, or by emphasising parts of oral language (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Smith & Conti (2016) suggest colour coding adjective endings according to the grammatical gender of the noun with which it is agreeing. Seeing as the endings are usually the least salient part of the word, this strategy should be effective in drawing pupils' attention to the endings, therefore training pupils to place word endings in their focal awareness early on in their language learning journey, until it becomes second nature (Smith & Conti, 2016). Another practical suggestion from Smith & Conti (2016) is presenting both the masculine and feminine forms of the adjectives in separate columns in vocabulary lists, so that pupils are constantly reminded that you always must choose between the two and makes it easier for pupils to spell the adjective correctly.

Sequence of learning and evaluation

Having researched these strategies, I planned a sequence of learning for my year 7 focus group, focusing on masculine, feminine, and plural adjective agreements, within the unit of work 'my family'. The first few lessons mostly followed the 'PPP' model, including multiple choice questions, gap-fill activities, 'flooding the input', and a mixture of the inductive and deductive approaches. Higher-ability pupils enjoyed the success that the deductive approach brought, therefore increasing engagement. Moreover, pupils were very successful with gap-fill questions, perhaps thanks to the controlled structure of the PPP model, but perhaps also because pupils were presented with a list of adjectives separated into a masculine and a feminine column, meaning pupils simply needed to identify whether they needed a masculine or feminine adjective, and then find it in the list. According to the pupil voice (see figures 1 and 3), separating the adjectives into separate columns was the most helpful strategy. Although not many pupils rated activities from the PPP model as useful, this may be because these require more effort from the pupils. However, this was a beneficial strategy for me as the teacher because it helped me to structure my lessons and ensured that pupils were gradually given more independence. Colour-coding the endings (Smith & Conti, 2016) was the second most popular strategy according to the pupil voice survey, because it helps them visually see what agreement is being used and notice patterns in spelling. Towards the ends of these lessons using the PPP model, pupils were given more responsibility, as they had to do independent translations of sentences into French involving adjective agreements. As I had predicted, pupils did find the translations difficult but after having broken the cognitive operations down into small steps during a model, pupils were overall successful in translating the sentences (see figure 2).

The lessons in the second half of my sequence of learning had a greater focus on communicative competence as opposed to grammatical competence. This involved using 'focused tasks', where the task naturally requires the use

of a particular grammar structure, therefore allowing practice without resorting to drills. For example, pupils had to write sentences describing themselves and their family members, which undoubtedly requires the use of adjectives and therefore adjectival agreement. This shift to communicative competence had a positive impact on pupil motivation and engagement, as pupils enjoyed writing about their own family, as suggested by the concept of 'personalisation' by Ur (1996). These lessons involved speaking activities, but these highlighted the reason why some argue against the importance of adjectival endings, as they are not very pertinent in speaking and listening. Nevertheless, they are pertinent in reading and writing, and are an essential grammar structure for mastery of the French language.

Overall, pupils improved in their knowledge of adjective agreements compared to before the interventions and made less mistakes in their writing compared to the baseline assessment. For example, 90% of pupils responded that they either agree or strongly agree with the phrase "I now feel confident with adjective agreements". I believe that all the strategies were successful, but of course there will always be some variation especially in the pupils' response to certain strategies.

Conclusion

Overall, I found the research-informed strategies very successful. I enjoyed teaching them and pupils made progress and they were engaged in their learning. Pupils responded that they felt more confident after the lessons than they did before, and pupil work did reflect this as there were fewer mistakes in pupils' writing. However, some literature suggests that one "cannot claim that a grammar structure is acquired until a learner can perform it spontaneously under real operating conditions" (Conti, 2015). According to these success criteria, my interventions were not successful because although pupils made progress, I did not measure their success through independent use under exam conditions. As adjectival agreements take a long time to internalise and become automatic (Conti, 2015), I do not believe it would have been a realistic aim of my interventions to become spontaneous users of masculine, feminine, and plural adjectival agreements within 4 lessons, when this is only the second time the year 7s have seen this grammar in the curriculum. My aim was instead to ensure progress and to increase pupil awareness of adjective endings to condition pupils to place the ends of words in their focal awareness (Smith & Conti, 2016), as this is an essential part of the French language that pupils will encounter later in their learning, such as with verb conjugations and past participles. Furthermore, research suggests that grammar will need to be revisited and recycled several times before it is committed to long-term memory. Turner (1996) describes this as a 'spiral staircase', which allows grammar to be acquired gradually, and this will also show learners that grammar structures are transferable across various topics (Meiring & Norman, 2001). Revisiting grammar may be essential, as some research suggests that students do not pick up grammar in the order that we think they do and are therefore sometimes "not 'ready' to successfully internalise the new grammar" the first time we teach it (Smith & Conti, p. 65).

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Appendices

Figure 1 – this table shows how many pupils voted for each of the strategies that I included on the pupil voice survey.

Translating sentences	Filling in the gap in a sentence	Colour-coding the endings blue, red, and green	Multiple choice questions	Having masculine and feminine adjectives in separate columns
4	4	9	3	11

Figure 2 – an example of a pupil's translations from English into French from lesson 2 on plural adjective endings.

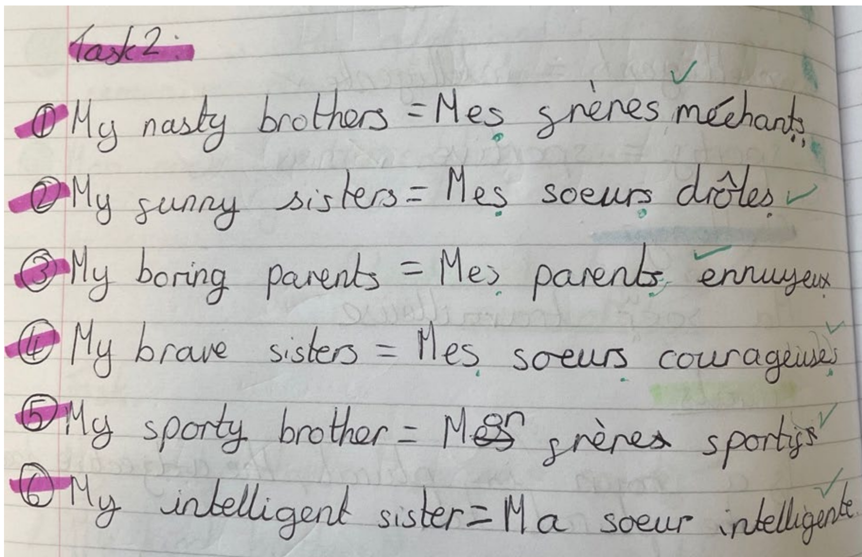

Figure 3 – an example of a pupil feedback survey.

Pupil feedback

I was confident with using adjectives in French before these lessons? (before half term)

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

I now feel confident in identifying an adjective and a noun in a sentence

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

I know where an adjective is supposed to go in a sentence in French (before or after the noun?)

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

I now feel confident with adjective agreements (masculine, feminine, singular, plural)

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

I can confidently describe a family member in French using an adjective

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

What did you find the most useful when practising adjective endings? (circle all that apply)

Translating sentences	Filling in the gap in a sentence	Colour coding the endings red, blue, green	Multiple choice questions	Having masculine and feminine in separate columns

What did you find useful about these methods?

It would help me to see if it was masculine and feminine

What did you learn about adjectives from these lessons?

They have to go after the nouns.

Character Education and its place in 21st century society?

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This paper will examine the development of character education policy within the UK and the way it has had an impact on school's implementation of character. The overall topic for this presentation informs my current PhD research: ‘a critical analysis on the role and influence of character education on young pupils in Birmingham schools.’

Governments around the world recognise the need to support, nurture and encourage virtues within all age groups of young people (Williams, 2000; Arthur et al., 2015). In the United Kingdom character education appeared in the British education policy between 1979 and 1997 by the Conservative government; this was an attempt to undo a perceived decline in moral standards by the government and thus getting schools to provide moral and curricular developments (Arthur et al., 2015). This move towards moral development in schools was further developed by the Labour party in 2001 through the inclusion of citizen education and education for character, in the Department for Education and Skills white paper ’Achieving Success in Schools’ (Department for Education and Skills, 2001) which argued that further development of character was to raise students' performance, meet requirements of future economy and encourage democratic cooperation (Arthur, 2005; Whiteley, 2014).

Character used in the sense of character education denotes an individual’s moral qualities, positive habits and virtues (Kristjánsson, 2015; Sayer, 2020). The Jubilee Centre defines character education as including ‘’all explicit and implicit educational activities that help young people develop positive personal strengths called virtues’’ (2017: 2). This research will explore character education through virtues which are defined by The Jubilee Centre as attributes and qualities which enable an individual to act with compassion, respect, gratitude etc. (Kristjánsson, 2013; The Jubilee Centre, 2017). Great importance is placed on such establishments to shape young people’s character so they can develop independent, rational, informed moral decisions and create their own moral frameworks (Halstead and Taylor, 2000; Arthur et al., 2015). It has been suggested (Williams, 2000; Althof and Berkowitz, 2006) that character education can facilitate creating skilled workers that can have a good standard of living. It can also be a tool that could aid in overcoming and preventing behavioural complications that arise from anti-social behaviour and concerns that originate from poor academic motivation and truanting (Brooks and Kann, 1993; Cassell, 1995; Was et al., 2006). Regardless of the conceptualisation, there is a need to recognise the ‘’complex and ever-evolving nature of pupils’ character, schools and teachers need to take a cautious and considered approach to both how character develops and how character can be evaluated’’ (Watts et al., 2021: 23).

While the definition of character is widely varied and disputed, Spohrer (2021) outlines that there is a spectrum of definitions which mostly incorporate psychological characteristics or values. The epistemology of ‘character’ is derived from the Greek charaktêr, its connotation has evolved to take on a meaning of a set of qualities typical to an individual (Banicki, 2017). The teachings of character can be traced back to the teachings of Greek philosophers, who highlighted the importance of educating people to become good and virtuous citizens (Doyle, 1997). Ancient educational thinkers such as Plato, Aristotle, Cicero and early Christians firmly believed that the development of morally able, loving, compassionate and self-disciplined individuals was more important than creating an intellectually refined person (Lickona, 1991; McClellan, 1999; Husband, 2013; Kristjánsson, 2015). The development of ’morally able’ individual is through formal education as suggested by Lapsley and Narvaez (2007). Education has historically been synonymous with moral enterprise where there is a deliberate and continuous attempt to support students to know and implement what is good and worthwhile (Ryan et al., 1996; Tichnor-Wagner et al., 2016). Thus, within school culture character can be developed by teachers who set good examples in the classroom and outside of it, in addition to a school’s behaviour policies, pastoral care, extra-curricular activities, parental

involvement, and aspects of the curriculum (Berkowitz and Bier, 2004; Lapsley and Yeager, 2012). The goal is for pupils to build moral conduct such as kindness, courage, citizenship etc. with a nature to act upon moral judgment (Kholberg, 1981; Kohn, 1997). An emphasis is thus placed on school leadership, teachers and parents to advocate for the teaching of virtues within character education (Sanchez, 2005; Agboola and Tsai, 2012).

Teaching of character can only occur from identification of virtues these are outlined by Lickona (1999) as traits which help to develop dispositions to behave in a morally good way. Virtues are regarded as a set of personal qualities ‘’that are morally worthwhile and that enable us to live productive, socially engaged, and as an aim, flourishing lives’’ (Watts et al., 2021). These are traits and qualities possessed by individuals to act in a morally and righteous manner such as courage, conviction, gratitude, etc. (Lickona, 1991; Arthur et al., 2015; Curren, 2017; Lerner, 2019). In the current teaching of character education, it is typically considered to be a virtue-based approach as these are regarded as morally reasonable, psychologically practical and effective educationally (Berkowitz and Bier, 2004; Arthur et al., 2015). In further defining character virtues, Lerner and Callina (2014) explore them as an individual's relation with their context that includes doing the right or moral thing to allow for positive outcomes for the self and others (Lumpkin, 2008). For instance, these virtues could aid in the development of interpersonal relations, which would encompass a system of shared universal concerns such as justice, human welfare and rights (Nucci, 2008; Berkowitz, 2012; Lerner, 2019) This conceptualisation of virtues, therefore, facilitates disposition towards a respect towards others, ethical reasoning, personal autonomy and practice of judgment (Curren, 2017; Lerner, 2019).

Another outcome of character education pertains to advocacy and preparation to become leaders; thus, character could contribute to the development of a democratic citizen with social competences which includes positive, social and moral development (Catalano et al., 2004; Berkowitz and Bier, 2004; Lapsley and Narvaez, 2007; Cheung and Lee, 2010). Another element, which Williams (2000) stipulates, is that world leaders want educators to prepare young people for the competitive world market, by allowing young people to learn about and incorporate virtues and moral characteristics that will facilitate their prosperity in society and be more likely to become skilled workers who can maintain a good standard of living. This idea stems from neoliberal ideology which focuses on shaping young people for the wider economic good of society (Berkowitz and Bier, 2005; Bradbury, 2019). Some researchers have argued that an efficient character education programme can tackle and prevent behavioural dilemmas such as antisocial behaviour, criminal activities and wider contemporary problems (Bulach, 2002; Lapsley and Narvaez, 2007; Larson, 2009). In addition, character education programs have been used to influence academic motivation and aspiration leading to reduction in school related concerns such as discipline, truanting, anxiety and suspensions (Brooks and Kann, 1993; Cassell, 1995; Was et al., 2006).

Currently in UK education, critical importance is placed on schools to provide opportunities to enable students to get the support they need to reach their full potential (Pala, 2011; Kelly 2012). The development of moral character is seen as part of formal and informal education with the combination of three elements knowing, valuing and doing the right thing resulting in a good character (Lickona, 1991; Berkwotiz, 2012). In this regard, character education signifies the use of deliberate and planned activity to foster, model, and teach moral development and moral thought (Beller, 2002). The goal of this process is for pupils to build good moral behaviour such as being truthful or courageous with a nature to act upon moral judgment (Kohlberg, 1981; Kohn 1997). Furthermore, ‘good character’ is developed over time rather than automatically formed, this process of development takes place through teaching, learning and practice (Ryan and Bohlin, 1999; Pala, 2011). Pamental (2010) and Althof and Berkowitz (2006) argue that through the teaching of character education, students could then be able to become advocates who can impact the next generation by championing the rights of others regardless of their background as well as developing a spirit of perception.

The overall aim of my research thesis is to evaluate the effectiveness of character education in UK schools by examining their goals, aims and objectives (Berkowitz and Bier 2004). The outcome for this is to build on knowledge of literature, introduce ways to evaluate the review of character education practices and provide a contemporary insight into the development of character education. Character education has overarching links to certain educational and behavioural outcomes, which shows the importance to developing recent and relevant research in this topic (Jeynes, 2019). Therefore, this study will contribute to knowledge by critically interrogating different elements character education may have an influence on academic ethos and curriculum in the school settings.

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Using the Boston Matrix as a curriculum assessment concept for KS3 PE Curriculum design

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Professionalism is a substandard term used to make judgements on teachers' capabilities. Factors, such as the teacher standards (DfE, 2011), pedagogy and curriculum understanding, pupil testing/assessment, and policies tend to shape an image of what a professional teacher is. Furthermore, the basis of a profession is stooped upon individual behaviours and characteristics, which uphold professional status (Elliot, 2017). Ofsted's newest criteria (2019) focuses on the complexity of KS3 curriculums. So why can't we incorporate multi-dimensional pedagogical toolkits to promote education, specifically practical subjects such as P.E? What follows is an exploration of one approach to curriculum

that could support teachers with their curriculum design and potentially help students to understand and assess their learning.

From 2008 to 2016, both Ofsted and The Department for Education (DfE) developed different strategies and policies to combat curriculum within education in the UK. These strategies ranged from national support, whereby Ofsted examined curriculums, to exploring how complex interaction between learning outcomes and developments in students, local communities, interest groups and global society (i.e., technology) took place. Yet, neither Ofsted nor the DfE looked to support schools with structural curriculum ideas for developing students. Although, the DfE then looked to change curriculum and assessment principles through the 2019 inspection framework, assessment protocols should be used to raise standards of teaching and learning. Yet there was no requirement for how curriculums should be created and how assessment should be conducted. As the years have gone on, Ofsted has changed the inspection(?) of curriculums so there is more focus on teaching and learning. Therefore teacher-accountability of progress becomes a major focus because of expectation criteria.

With recent changes to the Ofsted framework inspections and expectations (2019), curriculum designs and quality of education is now at the forefront of effective school development plans. The new focus of intent, implementation, and impact (the 3 is) are the headlines of creating and installing a curriculum that tackles social justice issues to ensure all students have an equal opportunity to succeed. Association for PE CEO, Sue Wilkinson, responded by stating that the curriculum changes will help showcase the difference that high-quality PE will promote in terms of the physical, emotional and well-being of children within schools. Yet, different types of growth opportunities were not highlighted. Suggesting all schools should interpret the National Curriculum (2014?) how they see fit. In addition, the school Sport, and Activity Action Plan (2019) was developed alongside the Ofsted framework, with an action plan of promoting sport and physical activity within a school day and during after-school activities. This was to ensure all students have the same opportunity of taking part in at least 60 minutes of physical activity daily. Yet, how much freedom do teachers have when creating curriculums?

The Boston Matrix was a marketing tool developed in the 1970s with a focus on maximizing profits through growth and market share. Despite its original intention, with a little adaptation, the concept could easily become an educational reference point to support curriculum design for teachers. Bringing concept-like theories into Physical education could influence how students respond, metacognitively. Research has shown that metacognition is the ability to understand your own thought process within a specific situation (William, 2017; Black and William, 2009; Clark, 2012). The relationship between curriculums and metacognition, according to Bass et al. (2014), is that concept-based curriculums provide students with a rich learning environment, whereby they can take responsibility for their own learning and develop a range of metacognitive strategies to achieve the goal. Bass et al. (2014) went on to

examine how education was supporting students in learning how to learn. Students' ability to take responsibility and control of their learning was described as self-regulation, a theory that was created by Zimmerman (2000), whereby students could plan and cyclically personal goals. However, for students to take responsibilities, they must motivate themselves intrinsically through optimising their learning environment. Learning theories such as Sadler's (1989) promotion of feedback, Nicol and MacFarlane-Dicks' (2006) discovery of self-assessment as a motivations tool, and Bass et al. (2014) theory on learning language as an opportunity to support lower attainers, have all ensured their methodologies help develop optimised positive learning opportunities.

Similarly, students could also use this matrix to promote growth and ownership on a personal level. Each dimension of the matrix has different criteria. Reflecting on their position in the "global" market. With some alterations, the dimensions could become a pedagogical base. With an assessment focus on developing self-directives and reflection opportunities it could potentially allow students to develop and showcase growth, based on an individual's understanding of how. Referencing Ofsted's newest expectations, the breadth of the curriculum can focus on different ways in which students can benefit from PE.

https://www.bcg.com/en-gb/about/overview/our-history/growth-share-matrix

The criteria could be used in different ways:

Assessment protocol:

- Rising Star → Students are asked to Identify strengths within their sporting activity
- Cash Cow → Students are asked to Evaluate their strengths
- Problem Child → Students are asked which Skills they know and can identify, but cannot attempt effectively
- Dog → Students are asked to consider the Toughest skills available, tactics and strategies which are game-specific.

Students could complete a topic/sporting activity, followed by completing all 4 of the assessments required. Students would then be able to rank their ability *and* understanding (Skills, knowledge and understanding) in direct response to one of the dimensions and this could provide ways to progress for their next sporting activity. This does not need to correlate with their current one (e.g., football, rugby, tennis to table tennis etc) ….and in this way, the matrix becomes an effective assessment for learning tool.

In 2020, Eishin Teraoko examined PE pedagogies and effective teaching and learning practices. The study aimed to examine Affective learning outcomes within Secondary Scottish schools. One of the main differences between English and Scottish National Curriculums is the fact that the Scottish curriculum focuses on encouraging children to actively engage with daily exercise. When examining teachers' pedagogical approach and behaviours that impacted pupils' effective learning outcomes, the study found holistic understanding of health emphasised the importance of building confidence, a growth mindset, and relationships with others, which could strengthen teaching and learning of health and wellbeing, particularly in the affective domain. However, as one of the major factors being the differences between England and Scotland's National Curriculum, the following were not considered; staff and/or student demographic, staff or students' extracurricular priorities, school ratings and their culture - in relation to teaching, learning and expectations. With many varied approaches, the proposed study would consider demographic adaptations and how schools and departments promote extracurricular activities to encourage life-long participation in sport, physical activity, and exercise.

Wilkinson et al. (2020) examined how policies were enacted by PE teachers in three mix-gender secondary schools in England. The purpose of the study was to assess any inequalities, which may occur and the reasoning behind such practice. However, settings could be out of the department's control and down to the schools' teaching, learning and assessment protocols. They used work by Ball et al (2011) to examine 4 strands of context; situated, material, professional and external dimensions. Out of the 15 PE teachers interviewed, multiple factors shaped their decisions to a group within PE; T&L influences, school cultural aspects, and some forms of equity issues across PE. However, the following aspects were not mentioned; the length of KS3/KS4 per each school, the number of SEND within each school, demographic issues, inclusive practice vs. equity and proposed year 9 to 10 pathways.

Assessment theories

Fields (2017) conducted a study, called thinking outside the box, exploring the concepts of assessment and learning based on Black and Wiliam's theory. She surveyed 83 teachers in the UK, drawing on two concepts; assessment-as measurement (target based) and assessment-as-inquiry (continuous monitoring). Through responses, the study concluded that there was a range of conceptions of assessment, with the two main contradictions being measurement

and learning. With no firm data, she went on to suggest policies should be put in place to allow reflection related to models of assessment and learning. Since then, many policies and educational acts around assessment have been developed using the Black and Wiliam (1998) theory. The Sutton Trust (Cobb, 2016) created six components of a great teacher, with a focus on curriculum assessment. Instead, they labelled assessment criteria as ‘quality of instructions’, which were focused on reviewing, responding to students, and scaffolding. Sean Harford, the former Ofsted inspector, recently said inspectors are looking for schools to implement a system that supports pupils’ journey through the curriculum, by supporting pupils’ progress and deepening their knowledge.

Assessment responses

Instead of using the 4 dimensions as individual criteria, they could be used to evaluate responses, whereby students' skills, knowledge and understanding (SKU) are rated in line with the dimensions:

- Rising Star → Strong responses and effective
- Cash Cow → Good responses, but needs to attempt extension tasks to progress
- Problem Child → Acceptable responses, but there are opportunities to improve through self-reflection
- Dog → Good starting point, but needs to complete extra tasks to progress

Students can visually see where they sit on the matrix and how their capabilities reference their growth and ownership during that sporting activity. Again, the outcome(s) are non-transferable. Students can change from activity to activity (e.g rugby, to tennis, to cricket, etc).

Within the curriculum

In 2017, I created a Personal, learning & thinking skills curriculum for KS3 PE, for one school in Sandwell. The purpose of the curriculum was to encourage students’ ownership of development. Through providing different opportunities to progress, away from practical progress only. Looking at figure 1, the left column could be changed to the Boston Matrix dimension names. With a focus on how to progress, rather than what has been achieved. Schools can look to close the gap between high attainers and special educational needs students by providing alternative opportunities to progress.

	REFLECTION	COMMUNICATION	LEADERSHIP	DECISION MAKING	HEALTH VALUES
MASTERY	To be able to evaluate earning and performance and create ways to successfully develop solutions consistently to improve intended outcome.	To confidently use both verbal and non-verbal communication skills in a variety of settings and situations that show clear subject knowledge and use appropriate terminology.	To use subject-specific analytical terms to analyse performance and promote leadership methods to improve performance.	To be able to mobilise personal strengths to set forth their ideas and to negotiate a fit between personal ideas and ideas of others, using sound subject knowledge.	Describes the characteristics of a balanced activity healthy lifestyle.
SECURE	To take into consideration and prioritise all the relevant factors and opinions needed to improve performance.	To be able to express ideas confidently and clearly in group situations showing clear subject knowledge and use of appropriate terminology	To express several leadership styles or ideas about a sport/activity which can be supported through evidence of either analysis or performing.	To express clear procedures for making decisions and prioritising other decisions whilst involving members.	To be able to perform in activities that will measure components of fitness whilst explaining how they body changes during exercise.
DEVELOPING	To regularly act upon internal and external feedback to develop learning and improvement in performance.	To use both verbal and non-verbal communication skills when leading others in a physical activity.	To respond to leadership styles or coaching methods using sport-specific skills which relates directly to the taught sport or activity.	To be able to adjust the nature of a decision mid-course and explain why they were needed.	To be able to explain short term effects of exercise on the body. To be able to explain why it is important to lead a balanced active healthy lifestyle.
EMERGING	To be able to identify areas of strength and development in my own and others learning.	To respond both verbally and non-verbally to instructions and be able to question for clarification and make suggestions for progression.	To respond to different leadership styles promoted within lesson.	To be able to acknowledge that each member has significant role to play and personal responsibility in decision making.	To be able to identify simple reasons why they should warm up and cool down for exercise.

Where has all of this come from?

Pedagogy.

In 2019, Ofsted changed its inspection framework to focus more on the quality of education, specifically, curriculum development and pedagogy. For years, PE curricula have been aligned to the National Curriculum (2014). This has meant that PE teachers have focussed on developing practical skills within a range of sporting activities. Yet not many schools provide alternative domains to develop, both practical and theoretically (SKU). By having a pedagogical mantra, teaching and assessment opportunities within the subject can be explored in different ways. Allowing for a plethora of outcomes:

- Reflective practice
- Challenge and impact
- Creating a culture of ownership
- Motivational dialogue

However, how many departments across the UK have the same pedagogy focus? How many have considered their school's demographic and socio-economic factors? What about practical barriers which impact access rights? Usefully, Bourne (2015) highlighted different influences that impact education and cultural capital. Ranging from gender inequalities to cohesion amongst low-sociodemographic individuals. Application of pedagogy and curriculums are a mere concept, when attempting to find a balance. Bourne (2015) went on to argue the importance of finding social comfort within our pedagogy, so our students are able to flourish within the curriculum criteria and demands.

When designing a curriculum, the world is our oyster. We have ample opportunity to adapt, recreate and promote opportunities for our students to progress in different ways. By incorporating a vision with a clear pedagogy focus, students and staff can develop the subject through growth and ownership in alternative ways and this could benefit students in different demographic settings on a regular occurrence.

Over the last 15 years, a plethora of studies have been undertaken regarding SEND within PE, ranging from activity mapping, support and development, assessment, and physical literacy amongst SEND students. Banks et al. (2020) reviewed David Morley's studies on inclusive practice for SEND/Disabled within mainstream secondary PE. After reviewing numerous policies and procedures, the study found that SEND pupil inclusivity and development, within PE, was still in the development phases and a significant challenge to most. A total of 31 teachers from 28 schools were

interviewed, with the following information extracted; Not enough CPD for inclusive practice across PE, differentiated teacher understanding of SEND and ways to progress, practically Not enough LSA training regarding SEND and practical development. However, with such changes in government requirements, Association for PE suggestions and individual schools' aims, the following was not mentioned within the study; curriculum developments and methods used by Head of Departments or leads to develop an inclusive activity map, equipment provisions, ideological teaching and learning approaches and assessment to demonstrate progress.

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Adjectival Agreement within Modern Foreign Language Teaching

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This article focuses on the conceptual challenge of adjectival agreement. It is a grammar point that is repeated throughout all Key Stages and remains a challenge posed to students throughout their Modern Foreign Language (MFL) journey; perhaps because 'gender agreement does not exist in the learners' previous knowledge' (Christina, Isabelli-Garcia, 2010, p. 291), when the first language (L1) is English (as is the case with the majority of my students).

In order to address the conceptual challenge of adjectival agreement and improve students' overall accuracy within their work, I drew upon a wide range of literature. It became apparent that there has been a long-standing debate within MFL as to the importance of complete grammatical accuracy if communication is not hindered, which I engaged with to determine the relevancy of the conceptual challenge chosen. The second aspect I consider are the methods of teaching grammar; specifically, whether implicit or explicit instruction would be most successful.

Firstly, it is useful to consider the history of language learning and teaching in the UK. Historically, grammar was used as the basis to determine whether a language had been successfully acquired where 'public examinations stressed the importance of grammar, and the written as opposed to the spoken word' (Wright, 1999, p. 33). In the 1980s, with the introduction of GCSE's and the National Curriculum, communication was deemed an improved way of measuring language success to 'reflect the kind of things that learners might be expected to need to do with the language in the real world' (McLelland, 2018, p. 9). Examinations were to test the four main skills independently: 'productive' skills of speaking and writing, and 'receptive' skills of listening and reading, where previously translation had been used as the assessment for all skills. For a time, the 'productive' skills were given extra weighting in the distribution of marks, but since 2018, and to the present day, the four skills have been given equal weighting after reverting to an exclusively examination-only assessment where previously controlled assessments had been used (see McLelland, 2018, pp. 6 – 16). Alongside competence in these four skills, the National Curriculum states there should be 'a sound foundation of core grammar and vocabulary' (Department for Education, 2013, p. 2). According to this framework, it appears that there is capacity for misunderstanding as to what exactly constitutes 'core grammar' or which grammar points can be overlooked if not wholly accurate in students work and perhaps signifies why this debate is still ongoing.

Conti (2016) discusses the grammar versus communication debate by comparing the opposing teaching methodologies of Grammar-Translation (GT), focussing on 'the passing-on of a body of knowledge from one generation to the next,' and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which 'prioritizes teaching skills rather than knowledge'. GT resembles the traditional teaching of the mid-twentieth century and before, where 'the explicit teaching of grammar' took precedence and aural/oral skills were rarely practised. On the other hand, CLT is a more modern approach to teaching MFL where each of the four skills are practised regularly with communication being

the main priority.

In the article, Conti (2016) concludes that CLT appears to be 'a more effective approach because it aims at preparing the learners for effective interaction in the real world.' However, Conti states that the method does not focus enough on accuracy and 'is particularly counterproductive in acquisition-poor learning environments, that is environments where the learners' exposure to the target language is minimal' as is typical of Secondary Schools in the UK where MFL is customarily taught for two or three hours per week. To remedy this, Conti proposes an integration of both methodologies with the stipulation that communication is always prioritised over form. Although Conti appears quite critical of the GT approach throughout the article, I believe there is a place for it in MFL teaching. I agree with his suggestion of using elements from each methodology as communicative success would not be possible if grammatical accuracy were entirely omitted as for language learners 'the ability to recognise linguistic patterns and to make use of and apply grammatical rules aids communication rather than inhibits it' (Pachler and Field, 1997, p. 129). Although grammar may not be the primary purpose of MFL, it maintains a vital role in the learning process and ultimate mastery of a foreign language and ensures a solid basis which supplies learners with the means to converse beyond the content they are taught 'as opposed to merely reproduce set phrases' (Pachler, Evans, Redondo and Fisher, 2013, p. 255). Therefore, to gain independence of thought and expression in another language, the learner must have some grammatical competence.

In terms of studying MFL to a higher level, The Nuffield Inquiry (2000, p. 45) states that those with limited understanding of grammar 'makes future language learning difficult, and limits their ability to use language flexibly,' once again suggesting that a solid grammatical understanding is necessary from the outset. It seems to me that the GT approach is more of a sustained approach to being able to communicate in the language; the process takes longer but is thorough. This is useful for those wishing to continue their language studies but perhaps not for those who do not wish to take it further than KS3 and whose main aim is to be able to communicate simple, practical information in the MFL.

Another aspect of the CLT approach that I would like to draw attention to is that of error correction where CLT gives priority to errors that impede meaning (Walz, 1982) and where the teacher only interrupts if there are serious breakdowns in communication (Edge, 1989). In my opinion, I agree that certain errors should be given priority as there are some potentially more significant and detrimental to comprehension. Equally, I understand that interrupting a conversation can discourage and demotivate students however, I think there is an argument for recognising that they are in a learning process and are not expected to produce perfectly-formed language from the outset. Having established a Culture of Error 'where students feel safe making and discussing mistakes' (Lemov, 2015, p. 64), I think that analysing errors can aid students in their education and allow the educator to 'determine whether their understanding of the content is superficial or deep' (Gooding and Metz, 2011, p. 36). In addition to this, a potential complication of refraining from correcting errors is that 'the longer a misconception remains unchallenged, the more likely it is to become entrenched' (Gooding and Metz, 2011, p. 35). If an error has not been corrected, particularly an error that is recurring, then it is possible that the student has not recognised it as an error

and will continue to make it. This links to L1 acquisition where a child is dependent on those around them to correct grammatical mistakes by repeating utterances correctly, rather than 'explicitly' correcting the child. In my view, errors can and should be corrected, it is the method through which this is achieved that is important. This is something I considered when planning and delivering my sequence of learning as the concept of adjectival agreement is not new to the students, yet errors were repeatedly made.

Having acknowledged my stance and the thoughts of others on the importance of grammar within MFL teaching, attention must turn to methods of delivery. Krashen (1985) first distinguishes between 'learning' where rules and patterns are learnt through explicit instruction and 'acquisition' in which material is attained through exposure to the target language. Research for Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has suggested that in a native and immersive setting, SLA can occur in a similar way to how a first language is developed, implicitly and without formal grammar instruction (White, 1998). MFL teaching in the UK has attempted to replicate a system where natural acquisition can take place with a focus on use of Target Language in classrooms and authentic material. However, it has equally recognised that curriculum time is a barrier to this method with Dodson (1967) calculating that one year of foreign language teaching in the classroom equates to approximately one week's contact time in the natural first language environment. In this way, implicit instruction alone would not be sufficient to cover content which is where Heafford (1993:56) suggests an explicit teaching of grammar is most beneficial as it accelerates learning and learners' ability to independently 'notice' patterns.

Ultimately research is ongoing as to whether one method is more successful than another with some indicating 'that many activities are more effective if accompanied by grammar explanation than if they do not have this component' (Fernández, 2011, p. 158). On the other hand, Larsen-Freeman (2003) and Williams (2005) suggest that explicit instruction 'may be obtrusive for communication because it usually requires learners to focus on the form before experiencing its meaning' (Fernández, 2011, p. 158). Methods of instruction seem to interlink with the GT or CLT approaches where explicit instruction promotes grammar accuracy over communication and implicit instruction promotes communication over form. Forth and Naysmith (1995:80) suggest that because of the diversity and differences between learners, a range of approaches will be required. I believe that success through implicit instruction alone is based upon learner's differences and engagement, where higher engagement levels may succeed with an explicit approach as students take personal responsibility and interest in the steps to learning a foreign language.

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