

Making pedagogical links between languages: exploring how teachers are responding to the crosslinguistic and interdisciplinary challenges in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

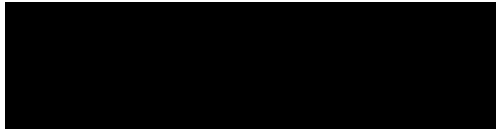
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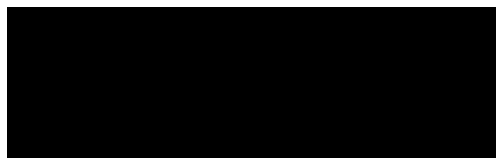


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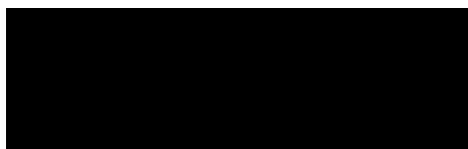


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ABSTRACT

At a time of significant curriculum reform in Wales, this study sought to establish the perceptions of teachers of Welsh, English and international languages in secondary English-medium schools in Wales to the grouping of their languages into a curriculum area of Language, Literacy and Communication, an understanding of the challenges they are facing as well as their confidence in the pedagogical practices needed to teach elements of What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*. The assumptions explored were that teachers of Welsh, English and international languages are having significant issues with teaching What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*, crosslinguistic influence between the languages taught in Wales is beneficial to pupils and teachers and exploiting this benefit requires new or different pedagogy. This mixed methods research project adopted a case study approach, and nine language teachers were interviewed. The resultant qualitative data was cross-validated by a survey sent to all secondary schools in Wales. From this data emerged genuine concerns by teachers about the grouping of languages, the challenge of collaborating with colleagues and fears about new monitoring and assessment procedures with an unchanged GCSE as end goal. Recommendations from this study include instigating collaborative Welsh context-specific research into crosslinguistic influence, creating a pedagogical centre of excellence for this curriculum area, curating a shared knowledge-base for student teachers of Welsh, English and modern languages in teacher education, auditing and monitoring the status of international languages, and providing teachers with a roadmap for future changes to assessment in Wales to allay their fears.

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I dedicate this thesis to my late father, Vernon Griffiths who was the kindest of men and an inspirational teacher. He instilled in me a love of language and etymology from a young age.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A level	Advanced Level
AfL	Assessment for Learning
AoLE	Area of Learning and Experience
ALN	Additional Learning Need
BAC	Basque Autonomous Community
BSL	British Sign Language
CAQDAS	Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software
CEFR	Common European Framework (for Languages)
CiLT	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
CfW	Curriculum for Wales
CLI	Crosslinguistic influence
CLIL	Content Integrated Language Learning
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
CS	Codeswitching
DMM	Dynamic Model of Multilingualism
EC	European Council
EAL	English as an Additional Language
EPI	Extensive Processing Instruction
ESRC	Economic and Social Research Council
FSM	Free School Meals
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GDPR	General Data Protection Regulation
GERM	Global Education Reform Movement
GPC	Grapheme-Phoneme Correspondence
HEI	Higher Education Institution
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
KS4	Key Stage 4
LA	Language Awareness
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
L3	Third language

<i>Ln</i>	Additional languages
LLC	Languages, Literacy and Communication
LNf	Literacy and Numeracy Framework
LPP	Language planning and policy
MFL	Modern Foreign Language
MLA	Metalinguistic awareness
NHST	Null Hypothesis Significance Testing
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PCK	Pedagogical content knowledge
PLM	Professional Learning Model
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PtS	Pathway to Success
QDA	Qualitative Data Analysis
ROI	Republic of Ireland
RQ	Research Question
SCC	Schools Challenge Cymru
SES	Socio-economic status
SLA	Second language acquisition
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSI	Semi-structured interview
TLA	Third language acquisition
TLR	Teaching and Learning Responsibility
UG	Universal Grammar
WG	Welsh Government

Chapter 1: Introduction

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This chapter outlines the context of curriculum reform in Wales within which this research study took place and introduces the key themes that will be explored in subsequent chapters. Curriculum reforms, such as those emerging since 2022 in Wales, “typically occur only once in every generation” (Taylor & Power, 2020, p. 178). For Dixon (2016) it was a vital step for Wales to move away from accepting “golden mediocrity in education” (p. 178) as the best that can be achieved although curriculum reform in Wales been “a mountain to climb”. Whilst there have been major reforms in England over the past ten years, Scotland’s trailblazing curriculum reform journey has been highly influential to ongoing reform in Wales, highlighting both the challenges and obstacles but also the rewards from developing a “widely supported philosophy of education” (OECD, 2021: para. 1). The substantive curriculum reform process in developing the Curriculum for Wales (CfW) had been initiated under Leighton Andrews’ tenure as Minister for Education and Skills, 2011 – 2013 (described in more detail in 2.1.2) but it was Donaldson’s seminal *Successful Futures: Independent review of curriculum and assessment arrangements in Wales* (2015) which was the catalyst for curriculum transformation. This transformation has been framed as a collective national mission to reform education in Wales, which was articulated in the curriculum action plan *Education in Wales: Our national mission* as wanting “to raise standards, reduce the attainment gap and deliver an education system that is a source of national pride and confidence.” (Welsh Government, 2017a, p. 3).

Curriculum reform in Wales has been a challenge for schools and teachers as curriculum making is a complicated and complex activity which “involves highly dynamic processes of interpretation, mediation, negotiation and translation” (Priestley et al., 2021, p. 1). The very fact that there was a perceived need for curriculum reform shows the gaps in the previous curriculum and highlights potential gaps in teachers’ and schools’ knowledge of how to fill these gaps. The emphasis has had to be on professional learning and development of the knowledge base of all stakeholders,

which has been part of a much wider “development of a thriving learning culture in schools and other parts of the education system” in Wales (OECD, 2018, p. 3).

Even though Donaldson’s definition of curriculum as “including all of the learning experiences and assessment activities planned in pursuit of agreed purposes of education” (Donaldson, 2015, p. 6) does not appear radical, there is little doubt that the new Curriculum for Wales is distinctive. It diverges from previous curricula in Wales by being an aims-based one, “where the aims of education are to enable people to lead fulfilling personal, civic and professional lives” (Gatley, 2020, p. 203). The aims are encapsulated in the Four Purposes which seek to create:

1. ambitious, capable learners who are ready to learn throughout their lives.
2. healthy, confident individuals who are ready to lead fulfilling lives as valued members of society.
3. enterprising, creative contributors who are ready to play a full part in life and work.
4. ethical, informed citizens who are ready to be citizens of Wales and the world.

(Donaldson, 2015, p. 31)

The curriculum structure has three overarching cross-curricular responsibilities of literacy, numeracy, and digital competence, and six Areas of Learning and Experience (AoLEs) which consist of expressive arts; health and wellbeing; humanities; languages, literacy and communication; mathematics and numeracy; and science and technology (Welsh Government, 2021a). The AoLEs were informed by *The Cambridge Primary Review* (2010) which identified characteristics that help to define such areas, namely that they should: “provide a rich context for achieving the purposes of the curriculum, be internally coherent, employ distinctive ways of thinking and have an identifiable core of disciplinary and instrumental knowledge” (Donaldson, 2015, p. 38). Gatley (2020) questions whether the Four Purposes and six AoLEs “constitute the

coherent unified curriculum intended” (p. 204) and highlights a tension between an aims-based curriculum and a subject-based one, stating that “it does not seem like the two strands are well connected to one another” (p. 208) and just like in the Scottish Curriculum for Excellence, the Four Purposes could become tokenistic. Some of the new areas, such as Health and Wellbeing, for example, takes what was traditionally delivered in a pastoral way, as part of “the hidden curriculum” (Myatt, 2018, p. 131), and makes it a central part of the curriculum, “on an equal footing with academic achievement.” (Kidd, 2020, p. 78). Areas like Mathematics and Numeracy offer little difference to previous curricula which fit Donaldson’s assertion that the AoLEs provide an “identifiable core of disciplinary and instrumental knowledge” (2015, p. 38) but for other areas, such as Humanities, it would seem that there is “the curriculum erosion of traditional subject boundaries at secondary school level” (Power, 2016, p. 5) which has implications for pupils who may move to England from Wales and vice versa, for Initial Teacher Education and, to some extent for staff morale and workload.

Hizli Alkan and Priestley (2019) note that Curriculum for Wales diverges from its Scottish counterpart through the way the “AoLEs have been framed around big ideas called What Matters statements” (p. 739). These statements of What Matters are a statutory part of the curriculum and “any curriculum designed or adopted by a school or setting must encompass all the statements of What Matters” (Welsh Government, 2021, p. 3). These statements of What Matters contain “broad statements of indicative knowledge, skills and experience” and “indicate a focus on the importance of knowledge” (Hizli Alkan & Priestley, 2019, p. 739). For the LLC AoLE, there are four What Matters statements:

1. Languages connect us.
2. Understanding languages is key to understanding the world around us.
3. Expressing ourselves through languages is key to communication.
4. Literature fires imagination and inspires creativity.

The first statement is the one which has most relevance to this study, and it explicitly links a *bilingual* Wales with a *multilingual* world, with the capacity to use different languages in a *plurilingual* context. These three terms are explored in more detail in Chapter 2, Part 2. The statement also focusses on how cultural identity is intrinsically

linked to language learning as well as recognising the benefits of building an awareness of diversity, an understanding of language form and etymology and encouraging creativity, flexibility and empathy.

1.1 Description of thesis

Classroom observations of student teachers are an integral part of Initial Teacher Education, and it was during one such observation that I identified a gap in pedagogical practice. The student teacher was struggling to teach French adjectival positions and, as I observed the challenges the student teacher faced in presenting the rules with clarity and the lack of comprehension on pupils' faces, I was struck with the idea that the words 'just like in Welsh' could have supported this process. For Piaget (1952), memories can be stored as *schemas* which he defined as "a cohesive, repeatable action sequence" which are connected through a "core meaning" (p. 7). These schemas can "bring together your existing bits of knowledge and influence how future knowledge will be stored" (Smith & Conti, 2021, p. 66) and the learning process involves integration of new input and our schema (Cummins & Persad, 2014). I started to consider, therefore, the role that Welsh could play in the learning of the third language, in this case French, acting as a schema for pupils to construct their new knowledge.

The publication of *Successful Futures* in 2015 (Donaldson, 2015) brought the relationship of the three languages – English, Welsh and the modern foreign language - to the fore as they were grouped together as an AoLE. For Donaldson (2015), this curriculum area encourages knowledge transfer between the languages with the notion that the new Languages, Literacy and Communication (LLC) curriculum area of learning and experience (AoLE)

provides a means of exploiting the links between English, Welsh and modern foreign language learning, encouraging children and young people to transfer what they have learned, for example, in English about how that language works to Welsh or modern foreign languages. (Donaldson, 2015, p. 48)

There are both challenges and opportunities from the creation of the LLC AoLE which has grouped English, Welsh and modern foreign languages together, for many schools for the first time. This grouping is potentially contentious as there is “ambiguity over the dynamic relationship” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 251) between the three language groups and there are, what could be considered, interdisciplinary challenges between the teaching of a first language (L1) and second (L2) or third languages (L3). It should be noted that the LLC AoLE has renamed modern foreign languages as *international languages*; the term covers not only modern foreign languages but also community languages, classical languages, and British Sign Language (BSL). The new term “signals a positive departure from the discrete silos of the current model of English, Welsh and MFL” (Jenkins, 2020, para. 8), with the potential for more of a multilingual focus to encompass all languages not indigenous to Wales. For Collen et al. (2022) this change in nomenclature reflects the historical role of linguists who “who have socially constructed languages and given them names and labels” (p. 6) although this “has not translated into a recognition of the changing languages landscape of contemporary Wales and its multilingual make-up” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 249).

Cummins (2008) challenges the “two solitudes assumption” (p. 65) in bilingual education where the two languages operate in a mutually exclusive way. An extension of Cummins’ assumption would be a further possibility that in Wales, the modern foreign or international language acts as a third solitude where each language department has traditionally operated in isolation without significant collaboration. In his written statement preceding publication of *Global Futures* (Welsh Government, 2015b), the plan to improve and promote modern foreign languages, the then Minister for Education and Skills, Huw Lewis put forward the Welsh Government’s desire to make “better, more joined up use” (p. 1) of the bilingualism in Wales to strengthen the links between departments. This would mean, for instance, connecting more effectively the learning of Welsh with the other languages to break down the “solitudes” (Cummins, 2008, p. 65) between the languages.

Whilst each AoLE supports the Four Purposes, there is a clear link between the LLC AoLE and the purpose of creating “ethical, informed citizens of Wales and the world” (Welsh Government, 2021d). Gatley (2020), however, questions whether the AoLEs are the best ways of realising the Four Purposes because of the potential tension between an aims-based curriculum and a subject-based one. The LLC AoLE guidance states that this area “addresses fundamental aspects of human communication” (Welsh Government, 2021a, para. 1) and uses this concept as a unifying point between the different languages. Whilst communication does unify English, Welsh and international languages to some extent, the “reconfiguring of teacher identity and practice” (Gorrara, 2020, p. 251) caused by the new AoLE structure is still a notable change for language teachers. Not only that, but “many MFL teachers feel that they are working at the margins of the curriculum” (Tinsley, 2018, p. 9) as they have so little curriculum time compared with English and Welsh teachers and as there has been “an alarming decline of uptake of GCSE modern foreign languages” (Jenkins, 2020, para. 1). It should be noted that all these concerns manifested prior to the start of the new curriculum although the new curriculum may well exacerbate these tensions.

The LLC guidance favours a “multilingual and plurilingual approach” to “ignite learners’ curiosity and enthusiasm and provide them with a firm foundation for a lifelong interest in the languages of Wales and the languages of the world” (Welsh Government, 2021a, para. 3) although it does not focus on the multilingualism in the school communities, thereby doing Welsh young people “a disservice” (Jenkins, 2020, para. 9). As mentioned previously in this chapter, it is in the first What Matters statement – *Languages connect us* - where the pedagogy of making links between languages sits. The description of this statement contains elements which will be addressed in the literature review — namely multilingualism and plurilingualism and bilingualism in Wales — recognising “similarities between languages” and embracing “the differences between them”. This What Matters statement also encourages learners to develop skills of “mediation, adaptability and empathy” and fosters in learners “pride in their sense of identity and belonging to Wales as well as the world” (ibid). Gatley (2020) however, challenges this overarching aim as “teaching a broad and balanced subject-based curriculum does not directly lead to personal flourishing, professional success or civic engagement” (p. 206).

Even though there is a difference in status of the three language groups in the AoLE, as both Welsh and English are mandatory elements of the curriculum, there has been a drive over two decades to encourage these languages to collaborate. The concept of a shared literacy in Wales between Welsh, English and modern foreign languages or *triple literacy* came into prominence between 2005 and 2007 when the National Centre for Languages in Wales (CILT Cymru) ran the Triple Literacy Action Research Project into developing literacy skills in fifteen primary and secondary schools in Wales. The project built on the guidance on building links between Welsh, English and the modern foreign language in *Making the Link: Language learning 5–14* (ACCAC, 2003).

The project raised the profile of *triple literacy* and, yet, in its thematic report *Improving modern foreign languages in secondary schools in Wales*, Estyn (2009) the education and training inspectorate in Wales, stated that there was “still too little collaboration in schools between the English, Welsh and modern foreign language departments” (p. 3). The importance of making links was further addressed in the Welsh Government Action Plan for modern foreign languages, *Making Languages Count: Modern foreign languages in secondary schools and Learning Pathways 14–19* (Welsh Assembly Government, 2010). The guidance document *Supporting Triple Literacy* (Welsh Government, 2011) provided strategies for teachers as well as a series of posters for schools so that they could improve pupils’ literacy “across languages” (p. 7). The timing of this report reflected a national urgency to access these benefits and address *triple literacy*.

Building on these previous initiatives, *Successful Futures* (Donaldson, 2015), acknowledges the importance of exploiting links between languages taught within the LLC AoLE so that pupils can “gain a secure understanding of the structure of languages” along with “an appreciation of words and their origins” with the aim of creating learners who are “excited about and interested in language” (p. 48). One of the main concerns in meeting the recommendations of *Successful Futures* (Donaldson, 2015) is the lack of *triple literacy* pedagogy that goes beyond merely making links between languages. Added to this is the complexity of bilingual education in Wales

where Welsh medium schools in anglicised areas are “cautious” about using English “in order to preserve and safeguard the minority language within the classroom” (Jones and Lewis, 2014, p. 143). There was also the potential issue of schools using any three languages to compare as opposed to rooting the pedagogy in pupils’ knowledge of Welsh and English with the modern foreign language as the third language.

My work with several multilingual literacy projects in Wales, which sought to establish meaningful links between the languages, made me realise that, whilst some interesting ideas were beginning to emerge, the tensions inherent in this AoLE grouping were also becoming apparent where the different language teachers often struggled to find common ground. Conversations with language teachers in Wales made me aware as well that there was genuine concern about how the grouping of languages would work. It was from these conversations that I decided that a focus on LLC teachers’ perceptions would be the most useful and fruitful for making recommendations from this research that could shape future practice. It also required me to step back from the ‘practicum’ of teaching and consider these perceptions through the lens of an emerging researcher.

1.1.1 Purpose of this study

The purpose of this mixed methods study then is to discover how teachers of English, Welsh and international languages are responding to the crosslinguistic and interdisciplinary challenges in the LLC AoLE. One of the assumptions of this research is that the grouping of English, Welsh and international languages in the same AoLE has the potential to be challenging as the three languages have not always worked effectively together, acting instead as “solitudes” (Cummins, 2008, p. 65).

This thesis also seeks to explore the perception that LLC teachers are having significant issues with teaching What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us* which introduces potentially unfamiliar terms to teachers such as *translanguaging* and *mediation* in language learning. Alongside the potential challenges of this statement

are the underpinning assumptions that the transfer between the languages taught in Wales is beneficial to pupils and teachers, and multilingual learning is not, a “zero-sum game” (Jenkins, 2020: para. 9). A further assumption is that, because many of the areas are unfamiliar to teachers, then exploiting the benefit of crosslinguistic influence will require new or different pedagogy. This thesis will use the emerging curriculum reforms in Wales, and in particular the grouping of languages in the LLC AoLE, to critically frame the discussion.

1.1.2 Conceptual framework

This study uses an ecological model as a conceptual framework. A conceptual framework forces the researcher to state what is important, to examine relationships between different concepts and, to identify what data will be collected (Robson & McCartan, 2016). As this research involves teachers’ perceptions focusing on the same issue, namely the challenges inherent in the LLC AoLE in the new Curriculum for Wales, an ecological model was deemed appropriate. Bronfenbrenner’s *The Ecology of Human Development* (1979) and what he termed his *ecological systems theory* (Bronfenbrenner, 2005) was an important starting point as it examines the different spheres of influence, which could have an impact on a child. Bronfenbrenner identified four environmental systems: the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem and the macrosystem, which move from the home environment in which the learner lives to wider and wider settings or spheres of influence. The microsystem is the most proximal setting, with physical characteristics, in which a person is situated, such as the home, childcare, playground, and place of work, and in which the developing person can interact in a face-to-face way with others (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Bronfenbrenner defined the exosystem as being “an ecological setting in which the developing person of interest is not necessarily situated, but is still under its influence; it is formed, or widened, each time an individual enters a new setting, and it is diminished when the opposite happens” (p. 25). Finally, the macrosystem operates at a higher level involving involves institutions and “generalised patterns of ideology” (p. 9).

Bronfenbrenner placed the learner at the centre of all considerations and his theory has been commended for providing “an insight into all the factors that play a role in the growth and development of individuals” (Christensen, 2016, p. 24). However, the early model has been critiqued (Elliott & Davis, 2020) for not considering the active role of the individual in his or her own development. In the 1989 iteration, Bronfenbrenner noted a “major lacuna in his work” (Elder & Shanahan, 2007) and proposed a fifth level, the chronosystem, which has three interacting components which change over time: “(1) the developing child (2) the changing environment, and (3) their proximal processes” (p. 679). For Nazari et al. (2017), even though the concept of a chronosystem is a “compliment to the ecosystem model”, it still does not overcome the “hollow in linking the layers” (p. 175). For this study, Bronfenbrenner’s ecological model was adapted to consider the spheres of influence which affect a teacher’s perceptions (Figure 1.1).

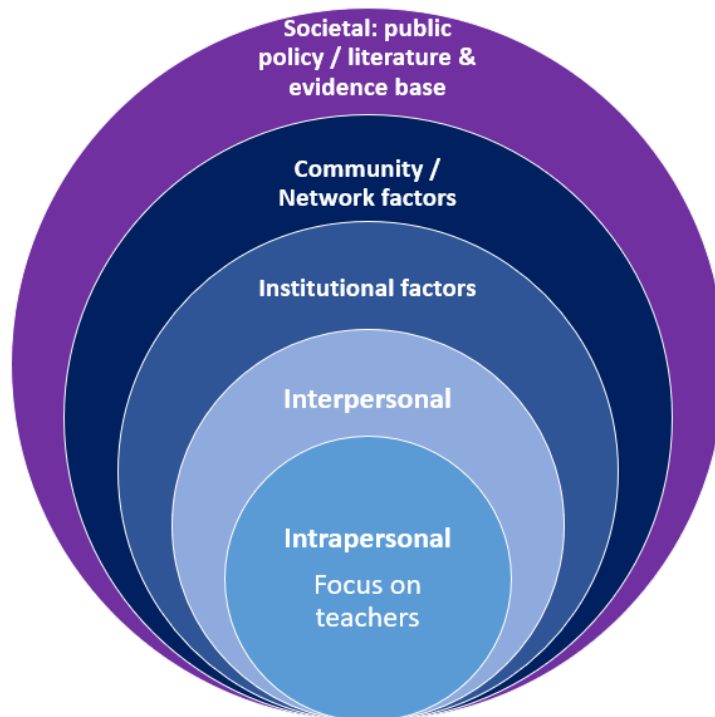


Figure 1-1. Conceptual Framework based on Ecological Model

‘Ecology’ is a suitable term here; first used in 1866 by Haeckel, the term is derived from the Ancient Greek refers to οἶκος (oikos) meaning household (referring both to house, family and family belongings), and refers to “the scientific study of the

interactions between organisms and their environment” (Begon & Townsend, 2021, p. xii). In this context, ecology refers to the distinct factors, which have an impact on teachers’ perceptions: from teachers’ knowledge of pedagogical links and new concepts in the LLC documentation, to their confidence in delivering the new curriculum. Moving outwards in the diagram, the interpersonal relationships show how a teacher can also shape their perceptions and their willingness and ability to adapt as part of their professional learning. Other impactful factors include the ethos of the school itself (institutional), the regional subject support (community) and societal influences, including Welsh Government documents, policies, academic literature and the wider evidence base. Just like the word from which it derives, ‘οἶκος’ (oikos), ecology in this context refers to the physical layout of a school (which could impact on communication between teachers) to the school’s geographical location, from the school’s ethos to the teachers themselves within this school and their background knowledge. This research also considers the fifth level, the chronosystem by considering the chronology of the curricular changes in Wales.

This conceptual and theoretical framework will support and inform this enquiry (Maxwell, 2013) and has become the foundation of its research design (Kumar, 2019). As part of an enquiry, a research design is essential in “enabling you to arrive at valid findings, comparisons and conclusions” (Kumar, 2019, p. 39). For Yin (2018), it is *“the logical plan for getting from here to there”* (p. 28, emphasis in original).

1.1.3 Finding an evidence base and reviewing the literature

If a literature review “provides an important connection between existing knowledge and the problem being investigated” (Kornuta & Germaine, 2019, p. 35), then it was important to examine a wide knowledge basis in the Literature Review to support this largely uncharted domain in terms of the Welsh context. This knowledge base sets out the context of curriculum reform in Wales before looking at bilingualism / multilingualism language policy, cognition in this area and second and third language acquisition and crosslinguistic influence before focussing on the triple legacy initiative which sought to make links between languages taught in Wales.

As this research has a particular focus on making links between languages from the first What Matters statement: *Languages connect us*, the Literature Review also explores making pedagogical links between languages within the wider discussion of trying to define pedagogy. In terms of potential pedagogical practices that could support What Matters statement 1, there follows an examination of the academic literature that is concerned with translanguaging, etymology, Language Awareness (LA), traditional *parsing* as well as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

1.1.4 Research questions

This knowledge base from the review of the literature helped formulate research questions which arose from a “research problem” (Creswell, 2014, p. 72) which provides the rationale for the research before narrowing the focus into asking specific questions. The “research problem” here concerns the grouping of languages in the LLC AoLE. The LLC AoLE structure is predicated on the belief in the benefits of both crosslinguistic influence between the languages and language teachers working collaboratively. As part of this AoLE, teachers of Welsh, English and the international language will have to work together, many of them for the first time, to find links between their languages and are all tasked with delivering content which may be unfamiliar. It is this unfamiliarity and uncertainty in delivering elements of the What Matters statements, which could also be seen as problematic in this context, presenting a potentially rich area for research.

Cresswell (2014) states that the next stage of the research process should concern making a purpose statement about the research which here is to make pedagogical recommendations which will support these teachers in delivering the new curriculum. This then leads to the narrower focus on the research questions. For Faryadi (2018), research questions “create a corridor to your research” (p. 2540) and the design of any research enquiry is governed by these overarching research questions, which should be at the core of all the decisions made in the research process. The three research questions for this study are as follows:

1. For teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages, what are their perceptions of the LLC AoLE?
2. What challenges are teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages facing in delivering the LLC AoLE and how will they overcome these challenges?
3. How confident are teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages in the pedagogical practices needed to teach elements of What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*?

The first research question examines how teachers have perceived the LLC AoLE, in terms of grouping of languages and organisation. The second question looks in more details at challenges teachers are facing in the LLC AoLE, particularly in terms of establishing effective collaboration between LLC colleagues and the third relates to one of the four What Matters statement, the first statement *Languages connect us*. As the remit to look at language connections, from the triple literacy initiatives onwards, has historically fallen to the modern foreign languages department, it was important to gauge the confidence of all language teachers (including teachers of English and Welsh) in how they adapting to the pedagogy needed.

In this context of the conceptual framework used in this research based on Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory (1979, 2005), the intrapersonal sphere concerns teachers' professional development, their knowledge of pedagogical links and new concepts in the LLC documentation, and their confidence in delivering the What Matters statements, especially the first, *Languages connect us*. The next sphere, the interpersonal is where collaboration with LLC colleagues sits. The impact on the school organisation and ethos also can affect teachers' perceptions (institutional factors) as well as the consortia as part of professional development (community and network factors) and the impact of government decisions, social media such as Twitter and literature on teachers from the societal sphere of influence.

1.1.5 Research outline

To answer the three research questions, this research used an integrated mixed-methods research (MMR) approach. MMR refers to the mixing of “mutually illuminating” (Bryman, 2012, p. 628) quantitative and qualitative research methods. In this research, qualitative data was collected from semi-structured interviews with teachers of English, Welsh and international languages from each of the case study schools. A questionnaire was then sent to the wider population of LLC teachers in Wales to see if the perceptions of the case study teachers were replicated. This questionnaire yielded quantitative data in response to survey questions and qualitative data from comments the respondents made. Both data sets allowed this researcher to gain a clearer perception of teachers’ perceptions of the LLC, of the challenges they have been facing and their confidence in teaching What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*.

To gather the qualitative data, case study methodology was used and three school case studies (Case Study A, B and C) were established in a city location in South Wales. Even though each school is in the same city, the context of each school is distinct with a different socio-economic status, quite different approaches to CfW and different levels of CfW readiness. This methodology was chosen because it allows the researcher to examine “real people in real situations” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 376) and, as this research looks to contribute to the emerging body of knowledge surrounding CfW implementation, it could be seen as a theory building rather than theory testing exercise (Yin, 2018) which further validates this choice.

Once the data was collected, each case study school was considered in turn with an overview of the school’s data and CfW stance. The case study report then focused on the case study teachers’ perceptions of the LLC, from the grouping of languages, collaboration and planning. The report also looked at teachers’ confidence in teaching What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us* as with a discussion on how they defined pedagogy and what pedagogy they had used to date.

The interview transcripts were coded as part of a reflexive thematic practice process where data that occurs frequently is given a “summative, salient, essence capturing and /or evocative attribute” (Saldaña, 2021, p. 5) which in this case was a label which came from the transcripts, as it was felt to fully reflect the interviews. Coding encourages the researcher to look for patterns and from the patterns in the interview transcripts, the following four themes emerged: “Because of COVID” – which demonstrated how the interviewed teachers had been affected by the pandemic and how COVID-19 had affected CfW implementation; “Spanish is Spanish, Welsh is English, English is English” – this code expressed both the desire of LLC teachers to maintain subject integrity but also the challenges of collaboration between the language departments and colleagues; “So, there’s more freedom” examined teachers’ perceptions of the freedom in CfW but also the responsibility and challenges that go with the freedom and “How are we going to measure this?” looked at LLC teachers’ concerns about the progression steps and new assessment in the CfW guidance. Following the thematic discussion, a cross-case analysis allowed consideration of other commonalities and tensions between the cases.

Acting as a cross-validation of this data, the questionnaire yielded both quantitative and qualitative data. The qualitative data was made up of responses to *Any Comments* in Section B and C and from Section D, *Your Thoughts* whereas the quantitative data was from a series of survey questions, most of which had Likert style responses.

1.1.6 Significance of this study

The immediate significance of this study is that, owing to the widespread impact COVID-19 pandemic from early 2020 onwards (noting the official publication of the new Curriculum for Wales by the Welsh Government in January 2020), much of the early curriculum planning was delayed and there is the potential for this study and its outcomes guiding and influencing emerging LLC AoLE practice. Whilst there is a significant body of literature for bilingualism and second language acquisition, third language acquisition “is still a nebulous concept with a wide range of definitions” (Liu, 2022, p. 2). Hoffmann (2001) considers third language acquisition to be “a distinct

area of research” (p. 1) but one of the challenges is that the term *trilingual* can have multiple contexts. Hoffman (2001) identifies five types of *trilingual* in her research: children who are brought up with two home languages as well as speaking the official language; children who are educated in a bilingual way and who have a community or different home language; bilinguals who have become trilingual through moving to a different country; nationals of trilingual countries; and the main focus of this research, bilinguals — in this context pupils who are English but have learnt Welsh for many years — and who acquire a third language in school. Added to this, there has been little research conducted “in the field of teachers’ beliefs on multilingual language teaching and learning approaches in the class” (Gartziarena et al., 2023, p. 1) and thus this thesis will also contribute to this area.

1.1.7 Limitations to this study

The limitations to this study are examined in detail in Chapter 5. Another potential limitation is my own field of reference as, having worked as a teacher and PGCE Tutor of modern foreign languages teacher for many years, I inevitably view the literature through the lens of modern foreign languages, even though the remit I set myself is to look at the new AoLE as a whole. Whilst I have not explicitly adopted an autoethnographic approach, both my professional and intellectual passion for modern languages and deep concern at its potential demise in Wales (and indeed, across the UK) have intrinsically framed this study. For Gorrara (2021), language activism is a “situated practice that obliges the researcher to reflect on their own relationship to languages and why they matter” (p. 132); throughout my life languages have mattered to me. They have guided my education, teaching and university career and have encouraged me to be involved in projects aimed at instilling in primary children a love of languages, increasing GCSE uptake of languages other than Welsh and English, and training teachers.

The fact that the context of this research is English-medium education in Wales, where Welsh is frequently taught as a second language might also be considered a limitation. Whilst it means that this thesis does not present a picture of the whole of Wales, as it

does not focus on the culturally (and indeed, politically) important Welsh-medium context, I felt it would be too difficult to answer the research questions as the relationships between the languages are different in Welsh-medium contexts but also are different again where pupils have Welsh as their first language. I would have been limited too in my survey as a Welsh learner and I might have lost some of the subtleties and granularity of what was being said. As identified in Chapter 6, understanding the Welsh-medium context would seem a logical extension of this research.

1.2 Thesis Outline

The structure of the thesis is discussed in this section:

Chapter 2: Literature Review is divided into three parts: the first part of this chapter charts Wales' curriculum journey, the influence of Scotland's Curriculum for Excellence and the key constructs of Curriculum for Wales. Part 2 considers the bilingual / multilingual context of the LLC AoLE. This section examines bilingualism / multilingualism and language policy and, in particular, the European Union "'mother tongue + two' strategy" (European Union, 2017, p. 2), with a discussion of three models of trilingual of education - Basque, Frisian and Corsican – before examining how the three languages have traditionally operated in Wales and how the statutory nature of Welsh and English in Curriculum for Wales has exacerbated the ever-diminishing role of the non-statutory international language. Part 2 also examines bilingualism / multilingualism and cognition and second language acquisition (SLA), third language acquisition (TLA) as well as crosslinguistic influence. The chapter will then consider the legacy of the *triple literacy* initiative which had been developed by CILT Cymru and funded by the Welsh Government from 2002 and whose purpose was to align Welsh, English and the modern foreign language. The third part of *Chapter 2: Literature Review* will focus on making links between languages from the first What Matters statement: *Languages connect us* (Welsh Government, 2021a) and explores the notion of making pedagogical links between languages by first considering what is meant by pedagogy before examining modern foreign language pedagogy, as this is where the teaching of links between languages has traditionally been placed. Potential pedagogical solutions to the crosslinguistic challenge inherent

in the LLC area are translanguaging, etymology, Language Awareness (LA) and traditional *parsing* as well as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and these will be examined in the latter part of the chapter.

Chapter 3: Methodology outlines the theoretical framing of this research as well as the methods used for data collection and analysis to discover how teachers of English, Welsh and International Languages are responding to the crosslinguistic and interdisciplinary challenges in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE. The chapter first examines research paradigms and assumptions before discussing my paradigmatic position and my theoretical and philosophical stance. There is then a presentation of the methodological decisions taken for this research and a rationale for mixed methods research approach and case study methodology is provided. The chapter then describes the research design process from inspiration for the research to being able to make recommendations for policy and practice as well as demonstrating how validity, objectivity and accuracy were maintained throughout the research. Ethical considerations are a vital part of the research design and are discussed in detail. Finally, the chapter focusses on how data was collected, namely through semi-structured interviews and a survey (questionnaire) and how the data was analysed.

Chapter 4: Findings and Analysis examines the data collected in response to the three research questions at the heart of this study. The chapter is divided into two parts, namely qualitative data analysis and quantitative data analysis. Data from nine semi-structured teacher interviews from three case study schools in Wales was thematically analysed and coded, the process of which is discussed in detail in Chapter 4. A questionnaire was then sent to the wider population of LLC teachers all over Wales to see if the views of the case study teachers were shared. The resulting data sets were analysed through SPSS, and cross tabulation allowed chi-square tests to be performed, some of which showed difference in views and supported the alternative hypothesis. All comments from teachers collected as part of the questionnaire were also coded and analysed thematically.

Chapter 5: Summary and Reflections initially discusses my evolving research identity, moving as I did between “academic and semi-academic worlds” (Swennen et al., 2017, p. 145) of university and my secondary teaching career. The chapter then summarises the findings of the research from three case studies and the questionnaire to answer the research questions that have driven this research. Finally, the chapter will consider limitations to this study.

Chapter 6: Concluding Discussion pulls together the key points from previous chapters before examining implications for policy, practice, and academic areas of research. The chapter concludes with a response to the research questions posed, considering the wider implications of this thesis and the contribution that this research makes to curriculum development in Wales but also to the field of multilingualism in the context of the three language groups taught in Wales.

1.3 Chapter Summary

In conclusion, this chapter has set the context of this research, namely the curriculum transformation in Wales and this will be explored in more detail in Chapter 2. The chapter has clearly outlined the purpose of this study which is to discover how teachers of English, Welsh and international languages are responding to the crosslinguistic and interdisciplinary challenges in the LLC AoLE, with a particular focus on making links between languages. As understanding teachers’ perceptions is key to this research, the study has adopted a conceptual framework which considers all the layers of influence that have an impact on teachers. This chapter has discussed the three questions which have governed the research as well as the significance of the study and some initial limitations which will be further developed in Chapter 5.

Young et al., (2014) use the term *curriculum* to define “*the purpose of a school*” with an emphasis on “*ends rather than means*” (p.9, emphasis in original) and it would seem fitting in a curriculum where schools have autonomy in what they deliver, that their purpose is defined by what they decide to teach their pupils. However, it is also

important that there is not “complete teacher autonomy” or “a lack of regulation” (Priestley et al., 2015, p. 151) so that teachers can manage their agency and schools can shape their curriculum but with shared principles. Provided there is some guidance for teachers, there is much to celebrate in “the broad vision offered in the new curriculum” (Kidd, 2020, p. 78) in Wales, which moves away from “a performance-driven education with a narrow focus” (OECD, 2020a). Similarly, the LLC AoLE offers opportunities for collaboration between language teachers and the freedom to develop a curriculum which exploits the potential links between English, Welsh and the international language although there also needs to be an acknowledgement that there are challenges, both in terms of a shared LLC vision and potential pedagogy to effectively exploit the links between languages which this thesis will address.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter 2: Literature Review

One of the key features of the 2022 Curriculum for Wales (CfW) is how it is organised into six new Areas of Learning and Experience (AoLEs). Whilst the grouping of Welsh, English and international languages in the Languages, Literacy and Communication (LLC) AoLE might appear well-considered, there are concerns arising from the “ambiguity over the dynamic relationship between English, Welsh and international languages” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 251). The purpose of this mixed methods research study is to discover how teachers of English, Welsh and international languages are responding to the grouping of languages, the interdisciplinary challenges that arise and potential beneficial *crosslinguistic influence* in the *multilingual* and *plurlingual* LLC AoLE.

From the title of this thesis, there is a focus of *crosslinguistic influence* (CLI) which is a prominent theme in both second language acquisition (Cabrelli Amaro & Iverson, 2018) and third language acquisition and sits as a subfield of multilingualism as an academic discipline. The term CLI was first coined by Sharwood Smith (1996) who describes it as “an important phenomenon in second language acquisition studies having to do with the way language systems interact in the learner’s mind” (p. 71). It is, however, a field that is still emerging as “our understanding of cross-language relationships is developing” (McManus, 2022, p. 12). with research in this area examining ways in which the processing and use of other languages is affected by a speaker’s language repertoire (McManus, 2022). The rationale for focussing on this term comes from the CILT Cymru *triple literacy* projects which wrote of developing language learning “across languages” (Welsh Government, 2011, p. 2). Moreover, the term is apposite in the case of this research when considering the relationship and potential crosslinguistic transfer between English, Welsh and the international language. *Crosslinguistic influence* as a theme in second and third language acquisition is discussed in more detail in this chapter in [2.2.3](#).

It is important also to clarify two terms, namely *multilingual* and *plurilingual*. LLC guidance differentiates between the terms *multilingual* and *plurilingual* with *multilingual* defined as “knowledge and use of a number of languages or the presence of several languages within a given society” and *plurilingual* as “the knowledge, use and connection between a number of languages” (Welsh Government, 2021c, para. 3). The Council of Europe (2007) defines multilingualism as the presence in a geographical area, large or small, of more than one “variety of language” (p. 8) but has more recently favoured plurilingualism as it “offers multi-dimensional aspects of speaking and learning multiple languages, i.e., sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspectives as interrelated” (Jeoffrion et al., 2014, p. 9). Plurilingualism is associated with intercultural competence and is “more ambitiously inclusive” (Kohn, 2019, p. 5). It emphasises how languages (and cultures) interrelate and interact in an individual’s mind and relates “to the repertoire of resources which individual learners acquire in all the languages they know or have learned, and which also relate to the cultures associated with those languages” (Beacco et al, 2016, p. 10). *Plurilingual* is a concept then “that tries to capture the dynamic and developing linguistic repertoire of an individual user/learner” (Piccardo, 2019 p. 184). It should be noted that, whilst the concept of plurilingualism is not new in Europe regarding language learning, it is “explicitly discussed” for the first time in Welsh education in the LLC documentation (Arfon, 2022, p. 5) although it “is still not as widely used in the dominant English-speaking academic culture as one would expect” (Piccardo, 2019. p. 185). Furthermore, the two terms, albeit clearly differentiated in the LLC documentation, are often used interchangeably and “the use of the term “multilingualism” to refer to all forms of linguistic plurality has remained centre stage” (Piccardo, 2019, p. 184) with the *plurilingual* nuance being lost. In this chapter, however, there is a distinction between the two, in line with the LLC documentation, with the *multilingual* space, which is where the body of research sits and the *plurilingual* space, which focusses on how the languages and language teachers in the LLC AoLE work together.

In Part 1, the chapter will focus on the curriculum development journey in Wales as well as the influence on Scotland’s Curriculum for Excellence before examining the key elements of Curriculum for Wales relevant to this study. In Part 2, the chapter will have a *multilingual* focus and will examine bilingualism and multilingualism and, as

a study of these brings together “SLA research, the acquisition of additional languages, and research on bilingualism and multilingualism” (Gorter & Cenoz, 2011a, p. 444). This chapter will focus on these areas as well as cognition, language policy and the subfield of *crosslinguistic influence*. The justification for these areas of focus is explained in [2.2](#). This research has a particular focus on making links between languages from the first What Matters statement: Languages connect us (Welsh Government, 2021a) and thus Part 3 will adopt a *plurilingual* view and will explore the notion of making pedagogical links between languages by first considering what is meant by pedagogy. The chapter will then provide an overview of the pedagogy of making links between languages. There will then be an examination of the academic literature that is concerned with translanguaging, etymology, Language Awareness (LA) and traditional *parsing* as well as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as potential pedagogical solutions to the challenge inherent in the LLC area.

In terms of the conceptual framework which underpins this study and takes an ecological perspective, this chapter will consider the complex relationships between all levels of the ecology of language learning in Wales. The intrapersonal level examines teachers’ knowledge, skills, and confidence in delivering LLC, whereas the interpersonal considers the collaboration opportunities between English, Welsh and international language departments. The chapter also includes institutional factors where the school environment governs curriculum allocation amongst other things, as well as the community / network factors regarding the role of the four regional education consortia in Wales and finally the societal level where public policy and the body of research in different areas could potentially inform how the LLC is delivered in Wales. Whilst these different ecological levels will not be considered in order in this chapter, there is an acknowledgement that all the levels impact on how pupils in Wales, who are at the centre of the ecological system, will learn language and about language in Curriculum for Wales.

This thesis considers language usage in Wales to be complex, emotive, and political and as such, it would do a disservice to all languages that pupils in Wales speak, as well as their different bilingual and multilingual contexts, if they were not given the

depth of coverage they deserve. However, word count imperatives have meant that this research has concentrated on mainstream secondary teachers working in the English-medium sector who teach English as a first language (L1), Welsh as a second language (L2) and the modern foreign language as a third language (L3). It should be noted that there is a caveat here in that not all learners in these classes will have English as their mother tongue and that the labelling of L1, L2 and L3 used above might not apply to their unique language repertoire with regards English, Welsh, and the international language. However, this nomenclature of L1, L2 and L3 will be used in this chapter for consistency. Owing to word count issues addressed above, whilst community languages and the field of teaching of English as an Additional Language (EAL) are considered a rich area of future research in the context of the LLC AoLE, they are also not included in this thesis. Similarly, this thesis does not cover deaf users of British Sign Language (BSL), even though it recognises that these learners are excellent models of translanguaging in the way they navigate “between languages and cultures” (Welsh Government, 2022b, BSL) and that future research in this area would also be fruitful.

For this chapter, the term *international language* will be used in the context of CfW as discussed in Chapter 1 and will refer to the teaching of “the ‘Big 3’ of French, German and Spanish” (Collen et al, 2021, p. 12), as these languages have the highest examination entries in Wales (Collen et al., 2022). For ease-of-use, the term *international language* will be used in the singular but with an awareness that some schools offer more than one additional language. However, *modern foreign language* will be used when discussing the wider context of language teaching in schools outside Wales as, even though the “focus on ‘foreignness’ buys into an agenda of ‘them’ and ‘us’” it is traditionally the preferred term used by schools (Kohl, 2018: para. 2).

2.1 Part 1

2.1.1 Curriculum making: an overview

The North American educationist Bobbitt (1918) posited that “a theory of curriculum-formation” was “much needed by “teachers and supervisors”” (p. v) and through his

subsequent work in the field is credited as being the founder of modern curriculum theory (Liu, 2017). For Bobbitt, curriculum making is a scientific process where it was important to focus on society’s needs rather than educational content which created “highly technical, managerial and prescriptive curriculum work” where experts decided the curriculum and teachers were at the bottom of the hierarchical pyramid (Priestley et al., 2021, p. 4).

Whilst the context of Schiro (2013)’s work concerns education in North America, it could also apply to the turbulence in Welsh education. Schiro considers that curriculum making has been a contentious issue since Bobbitt’s work where “educators have been at war with each other” (p. 1) about what should be in a curriculum and who should make it. Schiro outlines four conflicting ideologies of education, namely the *Social Efficiency* ideology, the *Scholar Academic* ideology, the *Learner Centred* ideology, and the *Social Reconstruction* ideology. Ashbee (2021) suggests that the focus should be on the “Why?” of curriculum with its underlying moral purpose, on “What?” with the emphasis on philosophy and cognitive science, and the “Who?” and the challenges of making a curriculum work “in the complex, dynamic, cultural, and acutely *human* context of the school” (p. 9). It is this “*human* context” which means that curriculum making is a social activity involving social actors working at different levels. Thijs and van den Akker’s model (2009, p. 9.) shows the way the curriculum operates (or is made) in diverse ways at diverse levels (Figure 2.1).

Curriculum Levels and Curriculum Products		
Level	Description	Examples
SUPRA	International	Common European Framework of References for Languages
MACRO	System, National	Core objectives, attainment levels Examination programmes
MESO	School, Institute	School programme educational programme
MICRO	Classroom, Teacher	Teaching plan, instructional materials, Module, course
NANO	Pupil, Individual	Personal plan for learning Individual course of learning

Figure 2-1. Curriculum Levels and Curriculum Products

The model is a useful one to consider the ecology of curriculum making although critics of this model question its linear representation of policy (macro) to practice (micro) and the model does not allow the current trend in curriculum making for teachers as policy makers (Priestley et al., 2021) — which is the approach Wales has taken and is taking. Priestley et al. clarified this in the model of Sites of Curriculum Making (ibid) which breaks down the curriculum making into activities, sites of activities and actors (see Figure 2.2).

Sites of Curriculum Making		
Site of Activity	Examples of Activity	Examples of Actors
Supra	Transnational curricular discourse generation, policy borrowing and lending; policy learning	OECD; World Bank; EU
Macro	Development of curriculum policy frameworks; legislation to establish agencies and infrastructure	National governments, curriculum agencies
Meso	Production of guidance; leadership of and support for curriculum making; production of resources	National governments; curriculum agencies; district authorities; textbook publishers; curriculum brokers; subject-area counsellors
Micro	School-level curriculum making; programme design; lesson-planning	Principals; senior leaders; middle leaders; teachers
Nano	Curriculum making in classrooms and other learning spaces; pedagogic interactions; curriculum events	Teachers; students

Figure 2-2. Sites of Curriculum Making

Priestley et al., (2021) stress that the second model (Figure 2.2) is not hierarchical but shows “different kinds of activity of social practice across different layers” (p. 13) and that there might be a “two-way or even multiple-way relationships between or cutting across layers” (p. 14). It also shows that a teacher might operate at the nano level in the classroom, at the micro level in terms of lesson and programme design and even at the meso level if involved in policy making. In fact, this meso site of activity is a “coordinating and mediating ‘middle ground’ for curriculum making” (Alvunger, et al., 2021, p. 278) and is important for teacher agency and autonomy which are discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

2.1.2 Curriculum development in Wales

Just as the chronosystem was an essential addition to Bronfenbrenner's ecological model, providing "an interacting linkage between the different layers of the nested ecosystem model" (Nazari et al., 2017, p. 175), presenting a timeline or chronology of curriculum development in Wales is contextually important to this research. From the ecological conceptual model which will govern this research, this section will focus on the societal sphere. Against a background of "unprecedented and wholesale educational reform" (Lemke & Zhu, 2018, p. 254) in the late 1970s, the following timeline takes *The Great Debate* from 1976 as the starting point to understanding societal and political changes which led to curriculum reform in England and Wales. It was James Callaghan, Prime Minister of the UK from 1976 to 1979, who had initiated the discussion about, and spearheaded the creation of, a "'core curriculum' of basic knowledge" (Callaghan, 1976, para. 21) in his speech *The Great Debate* in 1976 at Ruskin College, University of Oxford. The debate was a significant event as it was the first major speech on education by a British Prime Minister which took education "much nearer to the centre of the political stage" (Ball, 2021, p. 2). Whilst it is important to acknowledge that Wales had a rich educational history prior to 1976, this debate triggered curricular reforms by preparing "the soil for a breakthrough by the radical right" (Simon, 1991, p. 454), which in turn had an impact of the emerging Welsh distinctiveness in education. For Ball (2021), even though the Great Debate encouraged derision by parts of the media, it was significant because it signalled "the beginning of the end of the state education system in England" (p. 1).

Whilst the debate was significant, it was the Education Reform Act of 1988, under Margaret Thatcher's Conservative government, however, which codified the National Curriculum of England and Wales in the same year, and "turned it into reality" by 1989 (Myatt, 2018, p. 14). Much of the original content of the National Curriculum was deemed "unmanageable", with the Department for Education (DfE) maintaining "a tight control on schools' curriculum imagination through a system of external examination 'targets' and a draconian inspection regime" and this led to various iterations (Myatt, 2018, p. 14). This first iteration of the National Curriculum was "conventionally structured" (Parker & Leat 2021, p. 152), with mathematics, English

and science as the core subjects and seven foundation subjects in England, and with Welsh as a core subject in Welsh medium schools and as foundation subject in the English medium sector in Wales (Mercator, 2014).

It is important to add that, even though a Curriculum Council for Wales was created in 1988, Jones and Roderick (2003) clarify that this was a curriculum developed by a “London-based government” which was “little inclined to countenance Welsh priorities or demands” (p. 202). The establishment of the Welsh Office in 1964, however, had meant that the “distinctive nature of Welsh education had a pedigree which long predated any of these late-twentieth century administrative changes” (Dixon, 2016, p. 1). From its inception, there were always some differences in the Welsh delivery of the National Curriculum, aligned to the Welsh “national identity” (Fitz, 2001, p. 239) and so “some kind of separate treatment for Wales was inevitable” (Jones & Roderick, 2003, p. 209), including Welsh becoming compulsory for every pupil at Key Stages 1, 2 and 3 from 1990. Differences in the delivery of the National Curriculum could be seen at the macro level, as in Wales’s response to the Grant Maintained Schools of the Education Act of 1988, where schools could decide whether to opt out of local authority control and where there was “little fertile ground in Wales” with a preference for “community comprehensive schooling” (Dixon, 2016, pp. 5-6), where “local authorities in Wales were seen as integral to the governance and administration of education” (Power, 2016, p. 4).

The main differences between the English and Welsh curricula in their early iterations were in the teaching of history, geography, literature, and music in Wales. Interestingly, even though there were Welsh representatives in the curriculum working groups, for the English working group there was little success in adding a Welsh dimension as “no Anglo-Welsh literature found its way into the proposed syllabus” (Jones & Roderick, 2003, p. 210). Reynolds (2016) felt the differences that did exist between education in Wales and England were not far ranging enough, as the nation needed to build upon its “distinct ideology” (p. 171) in its education system rather than adopting Welsh Government policies which “were marked by a principle of not doing what England did” (p. 164). The title of Gorard’s chapter in *The Education Systems of*

the United Kingdom – For England, see Wales (Gorard, 2000) would seem to concur with Reynolds (2016) that these differences were not deep rooted at this time. However, it is important to remember Jones and Roderick's caveat that "distinctiveness in an education structure is no virtue in itself; it is worth fighting for only if it enriches the educational experience of pupils" (2003, p. 211).

In a bid to overcome the "centralizing tendencies" (Jones & Roderick, 2003, p. 211) of the UK Government's Department for Education and Science, the Association of History Teachers in Wales campaigned for a distinctly Welsh curriculum – *y Cwricwlwm Cymreig* [the Curriculum of Wales / pertaining to Wales] which reflected the "culture, environment, economy and history of Wales, and the influences which have shaped the country" (Welsh Government, 2013a, p. 2). The Curriculum Council for Wales' working paper, *Developing a Curriculum Cymreig*, which stressed that a Welsh sensibility should permeate all subjects in Wales was published in 1993; the paper was well received by teachers and the curriculum was made statutory in the same year. It was not until the Government of Wales Act in 1998 and the formation of the National Assembly for Wales a year later, though, that the then Welsh Assembly Government was given governance of key policy areas including education (Power, 2016).

In 2001, the publication of *The Learning Country: A Comprehensive Education and Lifelong Learning Programme to 2010 in Wales* was the first document to articulate Wales's distinctive vision for education and "made an impressive contribution both in acknowledging the problem and proposing solutions" (Jones & Roderick, 2003, p. 210). The document described itself as "the first comprehensive strategic statement on education and lifelong learning in Wales" (National Assembly for Wales, 2001, p. 5). Egan (2017) credits this publication with creating "the essential features of the education system we have in Wales today" (p. 3) from how schools are run, supported, and inspected to the values of Welsh education which are based on a bilingual comprehensive system. Following the publication of this document, the focus in Wales was on developing a distinctive curriculum which included the introduction of the Foundation Phase, for pupils aged 3-7 years and the Welsh Baccalaureate for

secondary school pupils (Egan, 2017) and not necessarily on developing “distinctive education policies” (p. 3).

The then Minister for Education and Lifelong Learning in Wales, Jane Davidson’s opening statement in *The Learning Country: A Comprehensive Education and Lifelong Learning Programme to 2010 in Wales* reinforces the nation’s commitment to comprehensive education, celebrating its “vibrancy and validity” (National Assembly for Wales, 2001, p. 1) as well as acknowledging how well Wales works with communities. The tone of the foreword is bold and assertive, with Davison presenting an almost steely response to changes in education policy in England, stating that even though the overarching education strategy is shared with colleagues in England, Wales might have to take a different policy direction. Much of the rhetoric that has pervaded education in Wales is evident here – Chapter 2, for example, states that “We aim to give every child a flying start” (National Assembly for Wales, 2001, p. 15), with the *Flying Start* outreach programme being launched six years later in 2007 and considered as one of the Welsh Government’s flagship schemes (National Assembly for Wales Commission, 2018) for supporting children under the age of four who live in poverty.

The distinctiveness of education in Wales was also marked in the underperformance of Welsh pupils compared with their home nation counterparts, first highlighted in the Times Education Supplement article of 4 December 1981, *Schooled for Failure* (Reynolds & Murgatroyd, 1981). The Loosemore Report commissioned in the same year by the Schools Council for Wales found that 25% of pupils in Wales left without any exam qualifications (OHCMI, 1983). These findings led to a determination in Wales that “levels of attainment should at least match those achieved in England” (Fitz, 2001, p. 240). Even though “the ‘schooled to fail’ myth” was “laid to rest” (p. 240) by Gorard’s research paper in 1988, the “official discourse” about the performance of schools in Wales was deeply flawed, if not “dangerous” (Gorard, 1988, p. 468) as it did not consider social factors and, with a play on the subsequent Prime Minister Tony Blair’s 1997 election mantra of “education, education, education”,

encouraged inevitable “intervention, intervention, intervention” (p. 468) by policy makers in Wales.

This underperformance continued to decline from 2006 onwards as documented within the publication of the triennial Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) results, in which Wales scored below both the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) averages (OECD, 2020a) and the other UK nations. Wales’s disappointing performance in the 2009 PISA tests, published in December 2010, was seen as a catalyst for change (Egan, 2017; Reynolds, 2016) for Welsh education but for the context of this study, the drive to improve pupils’ literacy. The then Minister for Children, Education and Lifelong Learning, Leighton Andrews gave an address on 2 February 2011 (Andrews, 2011) which highlighted that, whilst Wales had not adopted “many of the antagonistic competitive features of the English system” (para. 8) the comprehensive model in Wales had not delivered for all children. By bringing to light the many challenges faced by Welsh education, Andrews (2011) brought about “a shift in the discourse of trust” (Davies et al., 2018, p. 206) and changed the focus to one of greater accountability (Egan, 2017) with the aim of improving levels of literacy and numeracy amongst Welsh pupils and led to the curriculum being “hollowed out” (p. 5) by prioritising the teaching of literacy and numeracy. Since 2018, the PISA results have showed an improvement in the literacy, numeracy, and science levels of 15-year-old pupils in Wales. Although it should be noted that, despite an improvement in levels, “equity remains a concern” in Welsh education policy (OECD, 2020a), where equity “is measured by the strength of the relationship between performance and socio-economic status” (Introduction, para. 5). The lack of equity in Wales informed this research to include one case study from an area with low socio-economic status which, even though is not the focus of this research, has the potential to affect teachers’ perceptions of the LLC AoLE because of the school context.

Part of Andrews’ address was a twenty-point plan for school reform and, even though there were contentious points in this plan – the school grading system being one (Dixon, 2016) – it was felt that Andrew’s driver was a positive one in that he did not

want to “throw his weight around” but his plan was based on the “realisation that the current system was failing the children of Wales” (p. 42). This allowed outspoken commentary and even derision from England and the UK Government. Undoubtedly stoked by political rivalry, the then Secretary of State for Education, Michael Gove described his ‘grief’ regarding the state of Welsh education in the House of Commons: “it grieves me even more that every objective assessment of what has happened under Labour in Wales shows that education has improved more quickly and effectively in England than in Wales” (Hansard, Monday 17 September 2012, Column 669). It should be noted that “the discourse of derision” about Wales goes beyond party politics and could be seen as reflecting “a more fundamental cultural domination of Wales by its larger neighbour” (Power, 2016, p. 11).

One of Andrew’s points in his speech was directed at local authorities, urging them to support and challenge the professional learning communities by “building capacity at a regional level” (Welsh Government, 2012, p. 32). The publication of *The Future Delivery of Education Services in Wales* (Welsh Government, 2013b) outlined school improvement services through regional consortia, operating at the meso level as defined in Priestley et al.’s sites of curriculum making (2021). This was followed by the publication of *National Model for Regional Working* (Welsh Government, 2015e) which outlined the management of four regional consortia as well as the respective roles of each tier within the system (schools, local authorities, and regional consortia) and which were tasked with school improvement. In many ways these consortia took on “a brokering role in intermediating and communicating policy” (Alvunger et al., 2021, p. 283) and they have played, since their inception, a crucial role in training teachers and in shaping teachers’ perceptions of the new curriculum, as part of the community / network sphere of the ecological model in this study’s conceptual framework.

Andrews’ address (2011) encouraged Wales to look outwards to what was happening in other countries at the supra level, thereby cementing its part in the Global Education Reform Movement (GERM), first identified by Sahlberg in 2011 with some caveats on his part about the relevance of this to Finnish education, building on the work of

Hargreaves and colleagues (Manning et al., 2001). For Egan (2017), this drive encouraged Wales to borrow policy ideas from other countries and graft them onto the Welsh system, often without considering the different context and had a “deleterious effect on teachers and schools” (p. 7). Nevertheless, it is true that Wales has been on a school improvement reform journey (OECD, 2020a) since the first PISA results and Andrew’s subsequent address (2011) brought about reforms in Wales at a “gazelle-like speed” (Dixon, 2016, p. 43). The urgency for these reforms was increased following the publication of a “damning report” (Dixon, 2016, p. 21) by the OECD in 2014 which concluded that Wales should develop “a compelling and inclusive vision of the Welsh learner” (OECD, 2014, p. 130) and yet it could be said that a vision had already been articulated ten years previously with the publication of *The Learning Country: a Paving Document* (Welsh Government, 2001). The 2014 OECD report questioned the “sheer number of policy initiatives” (OECD, 2014, p. 130) that had taken place in Wales, exemplified by the task and finish groups set up in Wales to review computer science and information technology, mathematics, the arts amongst other areas. The OECD report (2014) criticised the fact that policy and education reform in Wales had been “largely driven from the top” without involving other stakeholders (p. 132), however, the make-up of the 2013 physical literacy task and finish group, as an example, included a wide range of stakeholders as well as a consultation of learners’ views.

As part of its focus on school improvement, from 2014 to 2017, led by Professor Mel Ainscow, Professor of Education at the University of Glasgow, the Welsh Government initiated *Schools Challenge Cymru* (SCC), “a concerted effort by the Welsh Government to respond to the variability in the performance of different schools across Wales in supporting the development of their pupils, particularly those from disadvantaged backgrounds” (Welsh Government, 2016, p. 3) which contributed to improving the performance of the forty *Pathways to Success* (PtS) schools. It is telling that, despite many positive features raised about SCC in the research commissioned by the Welsh Government (2017d), the benefit of funding from the initiative was the only “consistent factor in improvements seen in schools” (Yr Athrofa, 2018, p. 20). The initiative was terminated, supported by a written statement by the then Cabinet

Secretary for Education Kirsty Williams (Welsh Government, 2017c), who stated that SSC had not been intended to be a long-term investment.

The OECD review of 2020, *Achieving the New Curriculum for Wales*, acknowledged that since 2014, the Welsh Government had invested “in developing and refining its education improvement strategies” evidenced in the publication of *Qualified for Life: An Education Improvement Plan for 3 to 19-Year-Olds in Wales* (Welsh Government, 2014) which outlined the actions which would be taken over the subsequent five years. The Welsh Government then commissioned an independent review of its national curriculum and assessment by Professor Graham Donaldson, former head of the Scottish Inspectorate (HMIE) from 2002-2010 and Chief Professional Advisor on education to the Scottish Government. His report *Successful Futures* (Donaldson, 2015) became the blueprint and overarching vision for the new curriculum and assessment in Wales, with all its recommendations being accepted in full by Welsh Government.

2.1.3 Curriculum for Excellence – the Scottish influence on Welsh curriculum

Through the role of “transnational policy actors” (Hulme et al., 2019, p. 498) there is no doubt that Scotland’s Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) has been hugely influential on the new Curriculum for Wales, particular with Donaldson’s involvement in both. Just as Curriculum for Wales has encouraged involvement from all stakeholders, Scotland’s education reform journey started in 2002 with a National Debate on Schools where it is thought that 20,000 people took part (Munn et al., 2004). The following year, the Curriculum Review Group was formed to identify the key principles to be applied in the curriculum redesign for ages 3-18 (OECD, 2021). In November 2004, *A Curriculum for Excellence* was published. The curriculum was then developed after a series of consultations and involvement of all stakeholders, including parents, enshrined in The Scottish School's (Parental Involvement) Act in 2006 (OECD, 2021). Planning and implementation started in August 2010, eight years since the “national debate” (cf. the current “national mission” in Wales). Just like in Wales, Scottish education has “always been distinctive” and “regarded as a key indicator of national

identity” (Humes, 2013, p. 14). Just like in Wales as well, “proposals on assessment came quite late in the process” (Humes, 2013, p. 18) causing unease and anxiety amongst practitioners. It should be noted, however, Scotland has had a separate education system for considerably longer than Wales, since the Act of Union in 1707.

The Scottish curriculum was built around Four Key Capacities, which provided inspiration for the Four Purposes in Wales, wanting to create “successful learners, confident individuals, responsible citizens, effective contributors” (Scottish Executive, 2004, p. 12). These capacities quickly became “a kind of mantra in Scottish education” (Humes, 2013, p. 19) and heralded a move away from academic knowledge to a more aims-based curriculum. Donaldson (2012) acknowledged that whilst the *Four Capacities* could help drive the direction of travel in education, they had the potential to be reductionist in approach. Priestley et al., (2013) warned of the potential risk of a renewed focus on behaviourist thinking as schools would need to instil new behaviours or capacities in their pupils. It is interesting to note, however, that when there was criticism from stakeholders about Curriculum for Excellence, “it mainly took the form of grass-roots concerns about readiness rather than ideological challenge directed at principles” (Humes, 2013, p. 23). It was also the case that the practitioners who had been actively involved in the curriculum making as co-constructors were more invested and positive about outcomes.

The OECD report on improving schools in Scotland (2015) was positive in tone and found that “learners are enthusiastic and motivated, teachers are engaged and professional, and system leaders are highly committed” (p. 9). It was not able to draw detailed conclusion as it recognised that “trustworthy evidence of student progress and learning” (p. 166) was needed and this would take time to collect. It made recommendations that more rigorous systems and processes needed to be instigated but stressed that CfE was an “ambitious undertaking” (p. 167).

In 2016, an International Council of Educational Advisers (ICEA) was set up to make supra level recommendations to the Scottish Government, inevitably adding

“continuing pressures” (Humes & Priestley, 2021, p. 194) on the curriculum makers. The first formal report by the ICEA was published in 2018 and called CfE “the cornerstone of educational transformation in Scotland” (ICEA, 2018, p. 4) and emphasised that Scotland needed to retain CfE’s “vision and holistic approach” (p. 6). The report did acknowledge that much work was still needed to change cultures, enhance capacity, and fulfil CfE’s aim to empower practitioners as the language of educational improvement “tends to be largely aspirational” (p. 20).

The OECD Report, *Scotland’s Curriculum for Excellence: Into the Future* in 2021 deemed Scotland to be one of “the pioneers of 21st Century Learning” (OECD, 2021, p. 4). The report highlights the key role of stakeholder engagement in the curriculum although one of the recommendations is based around the need for long-term implementation. This need could have arisen from subsidiarity, where actors at different levels are too busy engaging in the day-to-day curriculum making as opposed to having longer curriculum plans. It is this flexibility that schools are afforded which can be a “double-edged sword” (p. 96) as the flexibility can create variation, which was reported by learners throughout Scotland.

Curriculum development in Scotland has been “such an ambitious programme” (Humes & Priestley, 2021, p. 180) with the use of the word ‘excellence’ being a “high-stakes decision” (p. 194) which meant the programme had to succeed, as there were political and professional reputations on trial, as well as the whole Scottish education system. Indeed, the OECD (2015) recognised that Scotland had the “opportunity to lead the world” in its innovative curriculum making whilst nevertheless needing a “more robust evidential platform” (p. 166). For Power (2016) stated that at the start of the Wales’ curriculum journey, that there was much less at stake. She posited that Wales has suffered from the “cultural injustice of misrecognition” (p. 13) or even non-recognition by the rest of the world and “is often rendered largely invisible in media and academic coverage of education policy and practice” (p. 9). This might indeed have been a benefit for Wales in the early stages of curriculum development as, whilst CfW might be misrecognised; or not recognised as much as it should have been, this might have given the nation freedom to develop the curriculum at its own pace.

2.1.4 From Successful Futures onwards

Professor Graham Donaldson presented the recommendations from *Successful Futures* as “radical and wide-ranging” (Donaldson 2015, p. 1), as the case for change was based on “concerns about perceived shortcomings” (p. 9) of the existing curriculum which had become “overloaded, complicated and, in parts, outdated” (p. 11). For a curriculum that celebrates co-construction, it is fitting that Donaldson consulted stakeholders from all levels of the education system. Following the publication of *Successful Futures* (Donaldson, 2015), the Welsh Government produced a new action plan: *Qualified for Life - A curriculum for Wales - a curriculum for life* (Welsh Government, 2015d) for the “first ever ‘made-in-Wales’ curriculum” (p. 2). The then Minister for Education and Skills, Huw Lewis, underlined his commitment “to the profession playing a central part in the design and development” (Welsh Government, 2015d, p. 2) of the new curriculum; indeed, positioning curriculum leadership as a critical contributor to school and system improvement (Harris, Jones & Crick, 2020). His recommendations clearly built on the OECD recommendation of 2014 to move away from a curriculum “largely driven from the top” (OECD, 2014, p. 132), seen as “a radical departure from the top-down, teacher proof policy of the previous National Curriculum” (Sinnema et al., 2020, p. 181).

This involvement of the profession builds on teachers’ agency in curriculum making (Priestley & Biesta, 2013) in particular, viewing them as “active curriculum makers with local flexibility to decide curricular content and pedagogic approaches” (Crick, 2019a, para. 2) who could influence the meso, micro and nano sites of activity (Priestley et al., 2021) where actors work “across these sites and in multiple directions” (Lingard, 2021, p. 35). In Wales, teachers’ agency had previously been hampered by “the affordances that the system offered them as curriculum makers” (Crick & Priestley, 2019, abstract). The assumption is that by being “agents of change” (Hughes & Lewis, 2020, p. 290) in CfW, teachers have much greater autonomy in creating and delivering a curriculum that suits their needs, however, this can produce challenges as it “puts a weight of responsibility on schools and teachers” (Gatley, 2020, p. 205) caused by the lack of space teachers are offered to exercise their professional agency,

from the structures in which they work, to the cultures arising from the context of their school and their capacity as an individual or as a collective (Priestley et al., 2015). Sinnema and Aitken (2013) stress that the flexibility and autonomy can increase workload and this process “presupposes expertise in curriculum that may not be widely of evenly spread” which may encourage teachers to make “idiosyncratic choices about what to teach” (pp. 157-158).

Donaldson (2015) highlights that the new curriculum is based on subsidiarity, “commanding the confidence of all, while encouraging appropriate ownership and decision making by those closest to the teaching and learning process” (p. 14). This would suggest that Thijs’ and van den Akker’s Curriculum Levels (2009) are less hierarchical in this process, with each level of micro, meso and macro having the same input. The term subsidiarity has religious and legislative overtones and refers here to ownership of and investment in the new curriculum at all levels. Here it describes the freedom and flexibility schools are afforded in their curriculum making, which meets the needs for their learners, and which is specific to their school context. However, it could encourage an “anything goes” mentality (Sinnema et al., 2020, p. 184) which raises concerns about accountability and consistency. Newton (2020) has identified parallels with distributive leadership and stakeholder involvement. He sees four key benefits from this approach, namely that teachers have more responsibility, it stimulates effective teaching, makes schools more responsive to what is happening at a macro level and finally makes teachers more confident about the reforms. Whereas for some stakeholders, subsidiarity can also “run the risk of generating tensions that may prove difficulty to resolve” (Newton, 2020, p. 229), with these tensions potentially arising from the context of the school in which the teacher teaches, the strength of links with stakeholders at micro, meso and macro levels, as well as concerns about accountability.

This curriculum spotlight on teacher agency and subsidiarity, seen as the intrapersonal level in the conceptual framework, reflects the Welsh Government focus on a professional learning model (PLM) for educational practitioners in Wales. Teachers, therefore, are expected to take ownership of the professional learning journey and

much of CfW is predicated on teachers' engagement in the PLM. On 16 March 2015 Huw Lewis launched his *New Deal for the Education Workforce* which amounted to several initiatives to give teachers "greater ownership and responsibility for their professional learning" (Welsh Government, 2015a), encouraging teachers to read and become involved in evidence-based practice. Following the publication of *A curriculum for Wales – a curriculum for life* on 22nd October 2015, Huw Lewis announced the first tranche of schools in the Pioneer School Network on 5 November of that year. Building on the work of Pioneer Schools for the Digital Competence Framework, these schools were tasked with designing the new curriculum, supporting other schools not in the network and on developing the professional learning of practitioners. Even though it was not without its challenges, this co-construction of the curriculum, which took place over four years and the three educational phases, "actively engaged practitioners" and encouraged the "building of system capacity for curriculum making" (Crick & Golding 2020, para. 4) thereby not only involving practitioners but also creating sustainability within the curriculum making process.

Whereas the curriculum making was done at the macro, meso and micro levels, much of the philosophy and thinking came from supra level influences and discourses which were "transnational in scope" (Priestley et al., 2021, p. 15). The 2014 OECD report was one such supra-level driver as were PISA tests and the Common European Framework of References for Languages 'can do' statements which guided the Descriptions of Learning and Progression Steps in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE. Sinnema et al. (2020) identified "a number of commonalities" (p. 183) between Welsh curriculum reform and international trends in that schools and teachers have autonomy, the learner is central and there is an emphasis on developing skills, although all of these are also subject to derision and critique, from "scepticism to outright hostility" (p. 182) in a comparable way to international curricula. Lingard (2021) sees national curricula as both a reflection of a nation but also as a response to globalisation and transnational influences. In the section of *Successful Futures* (Donaldson, 2015) entitled *Structuring learning (1): the breadth of the curriculum*, other countries which have organised learning into similar AoLEs are mentioned, including Australia, New Zealand, Netherlands, Northern Ireland, and Scotland. This supra level discourse gives weight to the proposals set out in *Successful Futures*,

providing support “at some arm’s length from political decision-making” (OECD, 2015, p. 167) and is used to give practitioners confidence in the process through the comparisons.

Part 1 of this chapter has provided the context of the curriculum transformation in Wales. It has mapped the historical curriculum developments as well as the influence of Scotland’s Curriculum for Excellence on the Welsh curriculum and outlined the key constructs of subsidiarity and teacher agency. Part 2 focusses on the literature concerned with bilingualism and multilingualism to provide further context to this research, to better understand the “complex interplay between international languages and English and Welsh” (Collen et al., 2021, p. 35) in Wales.

2.2 Part 2

Lin and Lei’s (2020) bibliometric research of the main trends in Applied Linguistics and Education in the last decade revealed that the terms bilingualism and multilingualism are both used to refer to the use of more than one language spoken by a person or a group and are used “interchangeably” (p. 1). Bassetti and Cook (2011) give two definitions of a bilingual, the *maximal* one is that of a person who has native-like ability in both languages, whereas the *minimal* view describes any ability in more than one language. They clarify that both definitions are flawed as they assume that monolingual native speaker competence in both languages is the end goal. They elucidate that it “might be impossible ever to provide a satisfactory definition of bilingualism” and furthermore, it might be “undesirable” (p. 146) to do so as the term covers so many variations, exemplified by the fact that in their volume, the term *bilingual* also includes *multilingual* and *trilingual*. In whichever way these terms are defined, there is no doubt that bilingualism is “highly diverse” (Thomas & Mennen, 2014, p. xvii) with many factors affecting the definition from how different languages are acquired, at what age they are acquired, how proficient the learner is in each language and how the learner self-identifies (Lynch, 2017).

Lin and Lei's study (2020) also showed that the main research in this field combines bilingualism / multilingualism with language policy, cognition and second language acquisition. From Lin and Lei's research, Part 1 of this chapter, therefore, examines these three research areas in the context of Wales with special emphasis on language acquisition as this field has resonance to this research. In Part 1 of this chapter, the terms *bilingual* and *multilingual* are also used interchangeably depending on context.

2.2.1 Bilingualism / Multilingualism and language policy

It was with optimism that language policy as a field of study within sociolinguistics emerged in the aftermath of the Second World War as societies were being rebuilt (Spolsky, 2012). Whilst social scientists were rebuilding economies, linguists were tasked with language planning, especially in the newly-formed states. As part of this language planning, they produced language policies which were a “mandated set of rules for language use and form within a nation-state” (Spolsky, 2012, p. 3) although these plans “seldom worked, for they came up against the counter-pressures of actual demographic situations” (p. 4). For Johnson, (2013), there are tensions in the field about whether language policy is a part of language planning or vice versa but he acknowledges that these two are “closely related but different activities” (p. 3). As these are often referred to as *language planning and policy* (LPP), in this section LPP will be used “out of respect for the tradition of research that gave rise to the field (language planning)” (Johnson, 2013, p. 3).

Civico et al. (2022) distinguish between LPP interventions which entail corpus planning, which changes the structure of a language, status planning which involves social functions and acquisition planning which take place in the education system. In Wales, corpus planning can be seen in the standardisation of Welsh place names by the Welsh Language commission, whereas status planning could refer to the legislation that created the *Welsh Language (Wales) Measure 2011* (Welsh Language Commissioner, 2023) which ensures that the Welsh language is not treated less favourably than the English language in Wales. Acquisition planning considers increasing the number of speakers in a given language which is shown in the *Cymraeg*

2050 campaign to increase the number of speakers in Wales to one million by 2050 (Welsh Government, 2017b).

Spolsky (2007) divided LPP into three areas, namely language practices, language beliefs or ideologies, and language management which he later described as “three interrelated but independently describable components” (p. 3). The first component, language practices is sociolinguistic in its focus on the different contexts where communication occurs, and the language choices speakers make. Language beliefs or ideologies refer to what “people think about language” (Liu, 2018, p. 15) and language management to “what people *try to do* to language” (King & Logan-Terry, 2008, p. 6, emphasis in original). Spolsky (2018) later refers to this division of LPP and adds language advocates to language management, describing them as “individuals or groups who lack the authority of managers but still wish to change its practices” (p. 326) and incorporates into this component the notion of self-management described as “the attempt of speakers to modify their own linguistic proficiency and repertoire” (p. 326).

The limitations of LLP were evident during COVID-19 which illuminated that “research in LPP has not paid enough attention to the study of language policies in emergency situations” (Civico et al., 2022, p. 2). On the one hand, during the COVID-19 pandemic there was an unprecedented global engagement with public communication, it also exacerbated issues that already existed in that, as “global knowledge dissemination was woefully limited to a small number of languages” (Piller et al, 2020, p. 505), this inevitably meant that speakers of minority languages suffered with a lack of information available in their language. Furthermore, following the pandemic it was clear that there was a need to research public health messaging “to understand how this was understood by underserved groups such as those who speak English as an additional language” (Jones, et al., 2023, p. 1-2).

In a similar way, another significant event showed tensions in LPP. For Munyangoyo and Gamir (2019) the EU referendum which was held on 23 June 2016 raised

considerable concerns with regards LPP in the UK. The majority of those who voted in the referendum, chose to leave the European Union and on 29 March 2017, the Prime Minister Theresa May formally triggered Article 50. The two-year countdown then began to formally leave the European Union, known as Brexit. The United Kingdom officially left the EU single market and customs union at 1pm on 31 December 2020 (Walker, 2021). During the Brexit countdown period, there was considerable anxiety in how LPP would fare. For Mac Giolla Chríost and Bonotti (2018) the concern was that Brexit would completely transform the legal framework in relation to linguistic diversity. Their fears were for the future of the UK's autochthonous languages and how they would lose the benefits of being part of Europe. For Hogan-Brun (2018) the worry was about how a 'hard' Brexit, would affect the ability of the UK to trade with the rest of Europe. Conversely for Norton (2018), Brexit offered opportunities for the UK, particularly in relation to the global role of the English language although she does acknowledge the importance of improving language learning in the UK.

For Ondrušová, (2021) Brexit has given rise to "a linguistic situation" which "has no precedent in modern history" (p. 19). This has meant that, as English was "de facto the most widely spoken language in the EU" (Mac Giolla Chríost & Bonotti, 2018, p. 19) the larger EU countries such as France and Germany have now been given an opportunity to grow in stature whereas the UK's minority languages have lost the benefits of being part of Europe (Ondrušová, 2021) as Brexit "de-anchors the linguistic actors engaged with sub-State nationalisms in the UK" (Mac Giolla Chríost & Bonotti, 2018, p. 28). Pratt (2003) published a "hugely influential paper" (Copland & McPake, 2022, p. 117) which tackled misconceptions about multilingualism following 9/11, exhorting America to develop "a new public idea about language" (p. 5). Copland & McPake (2022) use the same rhetoric in their paper on how the UK also needs to tackle misconceptions about multilingualism and develop "a new public idea about language" following Brexit. For Kelly (2018) this strategy is needed as language permeates all areas of our lives, but it must be "fully comprehensive" (Coussins & Harding-Esch, 2018, p. 5) to cover business, the civil service, and all stages of education.

One of the main challenges of Brexit is that it has tested assumptions about “the purposes for language learning” (Copland & McPake, 2022, p. 118) and this can certainly be seen in the most recent *Language Trends Wales* reports (Collen et al., 2021, Collen et al., 2022). For Humphries and Ayres-Bennett (2022) there is an expectation that “much of the legislation which concerns languages to cluster in the education domain” (p. 1). This legislation mainly works in a top-down way. In the next section the focus is on the European Union (EU) *Mother Tongue +2* strategy, which is still valid in primary education in the UK post Brexit. Using Priestley et al.’s (2021) “sites of curriculum making” (p. 13) as a lens, the *Mother Tongue +2* strategy was introduced at the supra level, which has largely filtered to the macro level in the UK through each country’s language policies. It is then important for organisations at the meso level to act as “curriculum brokers” (Priestley et al., 2021, p. 13), mediating between the policy and the micro or school level and individual teachers at the nano level.

Scotland was the first in the UK to adopt a *1+2 approach* with a first additional language (L2) taught from Primary 1 and a second additional language from Primary 5 since 2012 (Collen, 2021). In England, languages (both ancient and modern) have been included on the curriculum at Key Stage 2 since September 2014, although academies and free schools are exempt from this requirement (Long & Danechi, 2022). In Wales, the goal has been to create a “‘Bilingual plus 1’ nation” since 2015 (Welsh Government, 2015c, p. 2) with the Minister for Education and the Welsh Language responding to a written question on 1 July 2022 in the Senedd that “modern foreign languages will be mandatory in primary schools” (Senedd Cymru, 1 July 2022, WQ 85581) from September 2022. However, Collen et al.’s *Language Trend Wales 2022* report showed that of the 95 primary schools who took part in the survey, only 41% said that they had introduced an international language, which suggests that there is still work to do.

Despite its neighbour the Republic of Ireland adopting a vibrant strategy for foreign languages from 2017-2026, *Languages Connect* where it is stipulated that all pupils learn Irish and English with modern foreign languages being strongly encouraged, Northern Ireland “has made the least progress in making language learning a priority in the school system” (Collen, 2018, p. 1). This is exemplified in *Language Trends Northern Ireland* (Collen, 2021) by only 15% of the 123 primary schools surveyed teaching a modern language at primary education, down from 55% in 2019. This low percentage could be attributed to COVID-10 (Collen, 2021) although it might also represent a refusal to engage with the strategy. Hornberger and Johnson’s (2008) call for an ethnographic approach to LPP as a way of understanding “how people create, interpret, and at times resist Language Planning and Policy (LPP)” (Hornberger et al, 2018, p. 152-3) would seem valid in the case for Northern Ireland as it could ascertain why there has been a low engagement. Hornberger et al (2018) consider that an ethnographic approach is an effective multi-layered methodology to make sure all voices in society are heard. This ethnographic approach contrasts with the traditional top-down approach of national LPP mentioned above, which does not consider the socio-political context (Hornberger et al, 2018). This approach is particularly useful when analysing education practice as this is where “language policies perform their social role” (McCarty, 2011, p. 3) and has resonance with this research which considers teachers’ perceptions of curriculum changes, thereby ensuring that their voices are heard.

2.2.1.1 *‘Mother-tongue plus two’ language policy*

For Lapresta-Rey and Huguet (2019) whilst multilingualism has increased exponentially in Europe, they report that the situation regarding language competence and motivation is ambiguous. Furthermore, they recognise the importance of the education system in counteracting this ambiguity and, in particular the European Union’s “mother tongue + two’ strategy” (European Union, 2017, p. 2). Indeed, learning a third language or two languages in addition to the mother tongue is the long-term objective for all European Union citizens known as the *Barcelona Objective*, resulting from a meeting of the European Council [EC] in March 2002 in Barcelona. The teaching of two languages in addition to the mother tongue, therefore, is common

in many European countries, but the concept is “extremely polysemic” (Brohy, 2005, p. 140) with many different models of schooling.

Three models of schooling– Basque, Frisian, and Corsican are presented below as examples of countries which have a minority and majority language with a third language being taught in school. These different models of schooling have been chosen for different reasons but with all having relevance to the Welsh model. The Basque region was chosen as much of the literature on multilingualism has been written by Jasone Cenoz, a Professor in Education at the University of the Basque Country in Donostia-San Sebastian and who has been one of the main proponents of multilingualism. In the Basque region many of the pedagogical practises, discussed further in this chapter, are used in this classroom and this makes it relevant to *What Matters* statement 1: *Languages connect us*. The Frisian model was chosen because of its use of CLIL methodology and its readiness to embrace English, its third language which could inspire practice in Wales. Finally, the Corsican model was chosen because of the challenges Corsica has faced in terms of the problems between the minority and majority languages and this has resonance with perceptions of rivalry between the different languages taught in Wales.

Euskal Herria [country/ people / land of the Basque language] is the name the Basque people give the Basque country, and it covers the three Basque provinces Álava, Guipúzcoa and Vizcaya that today form the Comunidad Autónoma del País Vasco (Basque Autonomous Community) as well as Navarra and part of southwestern France. A third of the population in the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC) is bilingual in Basque and Spanish (Leonet et al., 2017). Leonet et al. (2017) chart the decline in the Basque language from being banned from the public domain during Franco’s dictatorship (1939 – 1975) to more recently, including the role of mass media, social mobility, and the rise in the need for English in the labour market.

In terms of LPP, Madariaga (2019) charts two key areas in revitalisation of the languages – the *ikastolas* Basque school movement *Euskaltzaindia* [the Academy of

the Basque Language]’s unification and standardisation of the Basque language. Of the key legislations, the *Language Normalisation Act* in 1982 was the most important for Basque education as it ensured learners achieve consistency in terms of competence in Basque and Spanish (Madariaga, 2019) and allowed parents to choose the medium of instruction for their children (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019).

Just like with Welsh, Basque L1 speakers are all fluent in the dominant language, in this case Spanish, although there is concern that for Spanish L1 speakers, whilst they may have elevated levels of competence in receptive skills, their productive skills in Basque are not as developed (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019). In the BAC, there are three models of bilingual education ABD, as there is no C in the Basque language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019). For Madariaga (2019) the three models respond to sensitivities regarding Basque and Spanish and staff language competencies. Model A is for native speakers of Spanish who receive lessons in Basque to achieve “minimal proficiency” (Gorter and Cenoz, 2011, p. 658); model B is designed for native speakers of Spanish who want to be bilingual, and Basque is therefore the language of instruction; model D was originally intended for Basque native speakers although includes Spanish native speakers with the aim of creating highly proficient speakers of both languages. It is interesting that all three models enable some level of proficiency in the minority language, albeit at distinct levels, although no definition of “minimal proficiency” (ibid) is given. This model, however, is only valid in the three provinces of the BAC which means that “normalisation of Basque education is impossible” in the wider territory of *Euskal Herria*, as it is ‘subject to five different sets of administrative regulations’ (Bornaetxea, 2015, p. 14).

In terms of teaching, there has been a “paradigm shift” in the Basque Country from a bilingual to a multilingual approach (Gartziarena et al., 2023, p. 1) owing to the increasing importance of English globally (Cenoz and Gorter 2021). In the context of trilingual education, “multilingual approaches such as translanguaging gain relevance,” (Gartziarena et al., 2023, p. 2) as they affect how different languages can work in the classroom. In the Basque Country, teachers protect the minority language,

Basque whilst at the same time embracing multilingualism in an attempt “to soften the boundaries between languages” (Cenoz & Santos, 2020, p. 8). English is seen as a prestigious language to learn (Madariaga, 2019, Cenoz & Gorter, 2019) and to promote it, learners are introduced to the language from kindergarten. and it is also used as the language of instruction in some schools, although this inevitably means that teachers have to be trained to a high standard of English (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019).

Like Welsh, Frisian is an autochthonous minority language; it is spoken in the province of Fryslân in the Netherlands. The term *autochthonous* refers to languages which are native to an area but “also carries the suggestion of a language that’s been displaced in importance by a more popular newcomer” (Jack, 2010, para. 2). It should be noted, however, that unlike Welsh and English, Frisian as the minority language and Dutch as the majority language are closely related. Fryslân has 651,435 inhabitants over half of whom speak West Frisian or Frisian as mother tongue (L1) (AdminStat, 2022: online). The status of the Frisian language was strengthened by law in 2014 which stipulated that Frisian could be used in government communication and encouraged the use of Frisian in media and education (van Hooft et al., 2019).

Despite the fact that Frisian became compulsory in primary education in 1980 and from 1993 in secondary education (van Hooft et al., 2019), “Dutch is the language that dominates” in education as well as in the wider society (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019, p. 63). Not only that but time allocation to Frisian is limited as the language “has attained a minor presence at all levels of education” (p. 64). Makarova et al. (2021) identify that the Fryslân province has a mostly negative attitude towards the minority language, also seen in the reaction of L2 Frisian learners, with the whole Frisian education system in a period of flux. Not only that but the increasing number of immigrant languages provide challenges for schools on how to cope with the linguistic diversity.

In Fryslân, as well as Frisian and Dutch, English plays a significant role and is considered “more of a ‘second’ or a ‘third’ language rather than a ‘foreign’ language”

(Cenoz and Gorter, 2019, p. 64). The *Trijetalige Skoalle* [trilingual school] was established in Fryslân in 1997 to improve the quality of education and allow Frisian children to be competent in Frisian, Dutch and English with seven schools initially established. This number had increased to 70 primary schools (out of 445) by 2018. Cenoz & Gorter (2019) regard the trilingual schools as encapsulating provincial language policy. Since 1980, Frisian is statutory for primary pupils with English language compulsory in the Netherlands from 1986 (Duarte & Günther-van Der Meij, 2018). The philosophy of the trilingual schools is based on Cummins' principles (2000) of additive bilingualism, transfer of language skills and interactive pedagogy. In the province, teachers "hold positive beliefs towards multilingualism" but are also "apprehensive towards promoting the use of multiple languages in the classroom" (Makarova et al., 2021, p. 4) either because they are worried about crosslinguistic transfer or because of timetabling issues.

As part of France's territorial collectivity, the island of Corsica is fraught with language problems. The minority Corsican language "disrupts dominant language ideologies, such as metropolitan franco-hegemonies" (Mendes, 2020, p. 175) and the promotion of the Corsican language has been problematic. Corsican is a polynomic language (Jiménez-Salcedo, 2019) where all varieties of the language are considered legitimate and enshrined in law (Jaffe, 2021). The *Deixonne* Law was passed in 1951 and authorised the learning of some certain languages, but Corsican was not included as it was considered a dialect of Italian although the law was modified to include it in 1974 (Jiménez-Salcedo, 2019). It has been important therefore to train teachers in how to teach Corsican with the *Lingua 2020* plan needed to increase the percentage of Corsican taught across all ages (Chambra d'Oc, 2015). It was only in April in 2021 that the *Molac* Law was passed allowing the promotion and protection of regional languages. Whilst the teaching of the Corsican language from the original bill remains part of the law, the teaching through immersion pedagogy was overturned by the constitutional council on 21 May 2021 (Le Monde, 2021).

Despite the challenges the language has faced and still faces as the *Molac* Law exemplifies, the concept of a “plurilingual repertoire” (Jaffe, 2015, p. 89) has been adopted on the island. A plurilingual repertoire describes the varying degrees of linguistic competence a person has in the different languages he or she speaks. The term to best describe the goals of the Corsican education system has been “bi-plurilingualism” which avoids focussing on just French and Corsican. Jaffe (2015) puts forward the idea that this encourages the view of the “plurilingual trajectory” (p. 89) of an individual where it considers bilingualism to be a stage along the journey. This shift avoids the dominance of the majority language French over the minority language, Corsican. Indeed, Corsican-French bilingualism is seen to be a “privileged point of departure – a springboard – for the development of additional linguistic competencies” (p. 90). It may be, however, that this “plurilingual trajectory” (Jaffe, 2015, p. 89) is more aspirational than a reality however, as the island’s education system is the centralised French model with Article 2 of the French Constitution stating that “*La langue de la République est le français*” [the language of the Republic is French] and so the role of French on the curriculum in Corsica is enshrined in law. Young (2014) traces the “undoubtedly monolingual ideology” in France from the “bygone days of 19th century nation-state building” (p. 99). For Jiménez-Salcedo (2019) the French education system views the French language as essential in promoting both national unity and social cohesion.

In terms of teaching three languages, it has been difficult for Corsican schools to devote sufficient hours to the third language on the curriculum. As Corsica follows the centralised French education system, it will be interesting to see how it will embrace the December 2022 foreign language provision (Ministère de l'Education Nationale et de la Jeunesse, n.d. *Faire progresser tous les élèves en langues étrangères*). This provision encourages the teaching of one modern foreign language compulsory at primary school, with the teaching of two languages compulsory at secondary level, with a third modern foreign language encouraged. Whilst the Corsican language suffers in comparison to Welsh, CfW fares less well against the French insistence on pupils learning modern foreign languages.

In Wales, rather than multilingualism in education, the focus has been on Welsh – English bilingualism. Jeremy Miles, Minister for Education and Welsh Language, for example expresses his pride “that in Wales we support a truly bilingual system that reflects the bilingual demographic of Wales” (Welsh Government, 2021b, p. 2). To realise this bilingual ambition, it is important to have practitioners in primary schools who are “strong language role models” whose teaching of Welsh is based on evidence and research (Estyn, 2021, p. 13). The ambition for an additional modern foreign language to be taught at primary schools in Wales arose from *Global Futures* plan (Welsh Government, 2015b) and was termed “Bilingual plus 1” (Welsh Government, 2015c, p.2) and was set out by the former Education Minister, Huw Lewis, in the *Global Futures* document reflecting the European Union’s stance which regards multilingualism as “an important element in Europe’s competitiveness” (European Parliament, 2023, p. 1). Estyn (2021) reinforces Wales’s “ambition to enable all learners to gain knowledge and skills in Welsh, English and international languages” (p. 9) although Tinsley (2019) confirms that there is a perception amongst LLC teachers that international languages are in competition with Welsh, even though bilingualism in Wales could help the learning of additional languages “by building on the metalinguistic understanding of bilingual learners.” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 250). Whilst the “Bilingual plus 1’ nation” (Welsh Government, 2015c, p. 2) initiative heralded a new direction in building on the bilingualism in Wales and the fact that the teaching of an international language is now mandatory in Wales will help this strategy develop further.

Wales shares many of the obstacles in delivering the LLC languages with other regions mentioned above. Issues such as a lack of time to prepare resources, curriculum allocation, lack of management support, and reduced possibilities for collaboration have all had an impact on teachers and on their pupils (Makarova et al., 2021). The risk to the integrity of the minority language can be seen in Friesland and Corsica as can teachers’ lack of training in third language, English in Friesland (Duarte & Günther-van Der Meij, 2018). Karabassavo (2020) describes the “multiple challenges” (p. 16) of implementing a trilingual educational policy in Kazakhstan, stating that the trilingual education policy “existed as a discourse” in Kazakhstan rather than as a policy document with action plans. It could be said that the idea of the LLC

similarly exists more as a discourse, and this is one of the greatest challenges for language teachers in Wales. To overcome this challenge, teachers need to be trained in how to adapt to the linguistic diversity of their pupils so that they can eschew traditional monolingual approaches to language learning (Duarte & Günther-van Der Meij, 2018).

As in Corsica and Fryslân and to a lesser extent the BAC, the teaching of the LLC languages has been influenced by “monolingual ideologies”(Makarova et al., 2021, p. 1) and each language is taught separately with the added issue that there are “implicit language hierarchies” which mean that languages with a higher status are perceived as being more important to teach and this can certainly be seen in curriculum allocation in Wales. For Leonet et al., (2020) the “compartmentalization” or “hard boundaries” (p. 43) between languages happens at both the “curricular and organizational level”. For Gorrara (2021) it is these “subject hierarchies and assessment regimes that dictate investment and support in schools” (p. 139) and affect the status of languages other than Welsh and English in the curriculum.

2.2.1.1 LLC AoLE language teaching

English as a curriculum subject, in English medium schools in Wales, has always enjoyed a significant role. Previously a core subject, it is now one of the few mandatory subjects in CfW for learners from the age of 7. School leaders “have discretion over whether and to what extent they introduce English to learners between the ages of 3 and 7,” however, but the understanding is that this mandate will “facilitate Welsh language immersion in the early years.” (Welsh Government, 2022f, summary of legislation). The most significant recent change in the teaching of English language was the new WJEC GCSE in 2015 which has placed “significantly more emphasis [...] on core writing skills such as spelling, punctuation and grammar” than previous specifications as well as “building explicitly on the levels of literacy that are expected to be developed by the end of Key Stage 3” (WJEC, 2019, p. 6).

It could be said that the status of English as a curriculum subject has been further consolidated by its role in raising standards in literacy. As outlined in Chapter 1, Wales' disappointing performance in the 2009 PISA tests was seen as a catalyst for change (Reynolds, 2016; Egan, 2017) for Welsh education. The 2012 PISA tests showed that the performance of Welsh learners was amongst the lowest of all the participating countries, with 20% of all in Wales learners not achieving a Level 2 for Reading, "which is considered the baseline of proficiency at which students begin to demonstrate competencies to actively participate in life" (OECD, 2014, p. 3). Consequently, the key focus of the curriculum was in raising standards in literacy and numeracy and the Literacy and Numeracy Framework (LNF) became a statutory curriculum requirement in September 2013.

Literacy is seen as a cross-curricular responsibility with a focus on disciplinary literacy and therefore not just the domain of English teachers. Furthermore, CfW has established literacy, as well as numeracy and digital competence, as a mandatory cross-curricular skill. Despite its cross-curricular remit and the insistence on discipline specificity, the debate about whether English as a curriculum subject and literacy are inexorably linked has "been common in countries where English is an official language, such as Australia, England, Singapore and Canada, for the last two decades." (Limbrick and Aikman, 2005, p. 4). Furthermore, the technical nature of the literacy framework, with its emphasis on "phonological and phonemic awareness" and "word roots and families" (Welsh Government, 2022a: literacy framework) aligns more with English as a curriculum subject.

Welsh as a curriculum subject is also one of the mandatory elements of CfW and this reflects the nation's ambitions for the language. Whilst it could be said that Wales has always been ambitious for its language, there has been a much greater drive to realise this ambition since 1st August 2016 when the then First Minister, Carwyn Jones announced the goal of achieving of one million Welsh speakers by 2050. Welsh medium and bilingual education are at the heart of this ambitious plan as they both have the potential to produce new Welsh speakers and encourage positive attitudes amongst learners so that they will feel able to use their language skills and pass on

their language skills to their own children (Redknap et al., 2006). As a curriculum subject, therefore, the Welsh language has experienced a “reversal of fortune” (Collen et al., 2021, p. 8). Despite this promotion of the Welsh language, the Census results however on 21 March 2021 showed that there was a decrease of 1.2 percentage points in the number of Welsh speakers recorded, dropping to 538, 300 people or 17.8% of the population, with a 6-percentage point decrease in Welsh speakers amongst children aged 5 to 15 years (Welsh Government, 2022e, ability to speak Welsh). Jeremy Miles, Minister for Education and the Welsh Language, made a statement in the Senedd that these results “were disappointing and not what we'd hoped to see” (Senedd Cymru, 24 January 2023 col 338) but he added that “there is more to language policy than just the census” (col 338). Miles countered that there was a more optimistic picture in the annual population survey and that the census question is “quite stark and binary” (col 341) with many speakers not confident enough in their Welsh to tick the box.

In Wales, schools have been divided into five distinct categories of language provision in primary schools and four categories in secondary with many different subsections (Welsh Government, 2021). However, this categorisation was considered too complicated with the Minister for Education and Welsh Language, Jeremy Miles announcing that Wales will instead follow the Basque model with the following categories: Category 1 including English medium schools with some Welsh; Category 2 for schools in bilingual communities and Category 3 for schools which have a high percentage of Welsh speakers and all subjects, apart from English, are taught in Welsh (Nation Cymru, 2022).

A notable change in Welsh as a curriculum subject for pupils in an English-medium setting is that Welsh Second Language GCSE will soon be replaced as *Welsh for Learners* (Qualifications Wales, 2022) although it was claimed by the Welsh language society, *Cymdeithas yr Iaith*, that this change is just “rebranding” and fails “another generation of children” (Nation Cymru, 2022, para 5). The emphasis on developing Welsh, aligned with the Welsh language strategy, the *Cymraeg 2050: work programme 2021 to 2026* (Welsh Government, 2021c) is ambitious and, in theory,

should strengthen the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE but the reality is that the link between language learning in the context of Wales is “less robust than might be assumed from the national priorities of the Welsh Government” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 248). Whilst it is true that there is more synergy between the international languages and Welsh than with English, CfW has changed the status of Welsh, and this has put even more pressure on international languages at secondary level as schools are more likely to concentrate on a mandatory language.

The international language inevitably suffers from not being a mandatory part of the curriculum in secondary education but the decline in modern foreign languages has been happening over many years. The most significant report about this decline was published on June 2, 2015, by the British Council Wales and CfBT (Centre for British Teachers). This report was the first national survey of modern foreign language teaching in Wales, *Modern Foreign Languages in secondary schools in Wales: findings from the Language Trends survey 2014/5* and the outcomes of the report showed that not only modern foreign languages are being marginalised in Wales, but also, in spite of the triple literacy initiatives, “the considerable benefits of bilingualism which Wales has at its disposal are not being fully exploited in schools to facilitate the learning of a third or fourth language” (Board and Tinsley, 2015, p. 4). As mentioned in Chapter 1, the *Global Futures* (Welsh Government, 2015c) plan invested in modern foreign languages and “aimed to take a long-term approach to address entrenched challenges in the take-up of language learning” (Welsh Government, 2022c, p. 12). The original plan ran from 2015-2020 with a second phase between 2020-2022 with Coussins and Harding-Esch (2018) recognising it as an “innovative” plan (p. 6). Arad’s small-scale research project (Welsh Government, 2022c) acknowledged that the plan had encouraged more regional working and raised awareness in international languages and multiculturalism in schools. Many of the challenges that interviewees raised, however, were from systemic issues about curriculum allocation and international language take-up.

Learning a third language, two languages in addition to the mother tongue is the long-term objective for many countries. It is of great concern, therefore that “despite a stable

population of 16-year-olds in Wales between 2015 and 2021” (Collen et al., 2021, p. 6) there was an almost 50% drop in GCSE entries for French and German, with Spanish entries increasing slightly between 2020 and 2021, after an “erratic” performance between 2015 and 2021 against “a clear trend of increasing entries for Welsh (first language and second language)” (p. 14) with an acknowledgement of the context of the report during the pandemic. Between 2021 and 2022 Collen et al (2022) report an “alarming decline” (p. 5) in entries for GCSE and A level for the “Big 3” - French, German and Spanish, significantly below those in England and Northern Ireland (Collen et al, 2022) against the rise in Welsh with legislation surrounding the Welsh language recognised as “the predominant influence to increasing uptake” (p. 8).

Whereas most Europeans are monolingual, speaking “one of the “big” languages’ (Gorter and Cenoz, 2011) speakers of minority languages “need to be multilingual” (p. 655) to survive in the society in which they live. Roberts et al. (2018) highlight that “on today’s world stage, multilingual skills and cultural competence have taken lead roles in building a future global workforce” (p. 116) in their article *Monolingualism is the Illiteracy of the Twenty-First Century*. Furthermore, if knowledge of the mother tongue aids the second language acquisition process as “no child starts a second language with a clean slate. It’s already been written on” (Butzkamm and Caldwell 2009, p. 67), then the existing and future Welsh (and by extension bilingual) speakers should be in a strong position to acquire additional languages as part of “additive trilingualism” (Cenoz & Valencia, 1994, p. 195). These additional languages are not acquired in a vacuum but, instead this prior knowledge can accelerate learning (De Groot, 2011) even though research into “learning a foreign language in the multilingual space” is “underdeveloped” (Tsvietaieva & Pryscheva, 2019, p. 433). For Jaffe (2015) the third language offers an excellent opportunity to move away from the fight about identity and authority as learners can enjoy experimenting with a language that does not have negative associations. However, it seems that these benefits are not being fully exploited in Wales (Tinsley and Board, 2017) even though the creation of the LLC AoLE would suggest otherwise. There is no doubt that Wales is diverse in terms of languages but “this characteristic diversity, however, needs to be protected and promoted at all levels” (de Graaf and van der Meer, 2013, p. 31) and in the context

of Wales, this protection should include all languages taught. Moreover, Arfon (2020) suggests “applying a plurilingual lens” to CfW to consider all the languages together “rather than as discrete school subjects that share no resemblance” (para. 4).

2.2.1.2 LLC AoLE interdisciplinary tensions

Curriculum for Wales is “consciously focussed on promoting a more interdisciplinary and experiential education” (Wiserd, 2019: para 3) across all AoLEs where there is freedom for schools to create a curriculum which addresses their own context. In some AoLEs such as Humanities, for example, the individual subjects or disciplines are all under an umbrella discipline which is well established and there are few obvious tensions. However, in LLC, English, Welsh, and the international language are grouped together in a cogent grouping although there is potential conflict on many distinct levels with LLC teachers “concerned about the complex interplay between international languages and English and Welsh” (Collen et al., 2021, p. 35).

Another tension is a much broader one but involves the Four Purposes and the AoLEs. Gately (2020) argues that the civic focus of CfW does not justify a “broad and balanced subject-based curriculum strand” (p. 209) although it could be argued that the *plurilingual* focus of the LLC AoLE, for example, has a significant citizenship element which will be explored further in this chapter. It should be said that the tension Gately (2020) identifies is more obvious in other AoLEs as the subject element might be diminished in addressing the Four Purposes. However, for the LLC AoLE each language has its unique identity and, the placing of the languages in the AoLE might even contribute to making these differences even more pronounced. It could be argued as well that in English medium schools, the three languages could be considered as coming from different disciplines and the “guiding disciplinary epistemology” (Nikitina, 2006, p. 252) of each of these three subjects would need to be recognised before collaboration could happen. Furthermore, the international language is the poor relation as a non-mandatory subject at secondary level and, whilst there is obvious synergy with Welsh as a curriculum subject in an English medium secondary school, the significant difference in status in the curriculum between English and the

international language adds further tension. In a comparable way, the *Cymraeg 2050* (Welsh Government, 2017b) drive to increase the number of Welsh speakers by 2050 has highlighted the fact that there is not “the same momentum and support for modern foreign languages” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 247) because modern foreign languages “may not have caught people’s hearts and minds” (Kelly, 2018, p. 239) in the same way both Welsh and English have in Wales.

One of the challenges observed in English-medium language departments in Wales is that there are more natural pedagogical links between the L2 and L3 (Welsh and international languages), whereas the links with the English as a curriculum subject could be seen as tokenistic or even non-existent. It is more complicated in the Welsh-medium context as pupils’ knowledge of the more dominant English is not necessarily at the same level as pupils’ knowledge of Welsh in an English-medium setting as “dominant languages will always take care of themselves” (Kohn, 2019, p. 54). Moreover, Kohn (2019) is convinced that bilingual children in Wales “will end up knowing the dominant language just as well as their monolingual peers do” (p. 54).

Another challenge is the need for LLC teachers to collaborate across the languages. Collen et al. (2021) present two case studies in their *Language Trends Wales 2021 – Finland and Republic of Ireland (ROI)* - which have developed an approach to collaboration in language teaching that could inform the LLC AoLE. Interestingly, both Finland and Northern Ireland have a special word to denote a collaborative mindset. In Finnish, *talkoo(t)* and in Irish *meitheal* both express the idea of a communal way of working for the common good. In Finland, languages have “an important place in the Finnish curricula” (Moate et al., 2021, p. 11) and the collaboration between language practitioners is seen as being essential. Similarly, collaboration is a key part of professional learning in CfW although teachers in Wales are not necessarily used to working this way at secondary levels. To support this collaboration, leadership teams in schools must become more knowledgeable about creating a “shared working culture” (Hansell & Björklund, 2021, p. 17). There are undoubted benefits as collaboration can lead to “collective efficacy” (Hargreaves and O’ Connor, 2018, p.

111) and create a “common meaning and purpose” (p. 116) amongst staff, both of which are of the utmost importance in creating a successful LLC AoLE. In Finland, it is recognised that successful language programmes need “regular joint planning and cooperation across boundaries of the different educational levels and across all learning environments and working cultures’ (Hansell & Björklund, 2021, p. 17). Leonet et al., (2020) share the belief in language research that both language connections and collaboration between language teachers should be encouraged. Collaboration is acknowledged as helping language teachers understand “the bigger picture of educational development and the role of different stakeholders increases the potential success of innovative activities” (Moate et al., 2021, p. 11) as well as encouraging language teachers to “share and try out different ideas and innovation.” In the ROI, collaboration is at a much bigger level with Communities of Practice (COP) established to share language expertise, but not all collaboration is formalised with smaller acts of collaboration between departments supporting the overall ethos. In both countries, there are examples of excellent collaborative practice which could support LLC teachers as they build their curriculum. Where there have been networking opportunities as part of the regional consortia *Global Futures* initiatives, teachers of international languages have recognised the value in exchanging “good practice with pedagogical approaches and to promote languages more widely” (Welsh Government, 2022c, p. 33) which could be extended to all LLC teachers.

2.2.2 Bilingualism / Multilingualism and Cognition

That bilingualism / multilingualism could have cognitive benefit for a learner “is a fairly recent phenomenon” (Antoniou, 2019, p. 396) with much of the 20th century centred on the confusion of learning two languages known as “the problem of the bilingual child” (Smith, 1923, p. 271). Peal and Lambert (1962) were the first to challenge this notion with their research into the cognitive ability of 10-year-old children in Montreal. They found that the bilingual French / English sample performed better in non-verbal and verbal intelligence tests “involving concept-formation or symbolic flexibility” (p. 141). Peal and Lambert differentiated between *balanced*

bilinguals who are equally proficient in both L1 and L2 and *pseudo bilinguals* who are weaker than expected in the second language (Hakuta & Diaz, 1985).

Subsequent studies built on Peal and Lambert's "seminal research" (Antoniou, 2019, p. 396) and, whilst they found that "the verbal skills of bilinguals in each language are generally weaker" (Bialystok et al. 2012, p.241) there is a clear "bilingual advantage" (Antoniou, 2019, p. 396) in terms of better executive control which supports memory and multi-tasking (Bialystok et al. 2012). Bak et al.'s research study (2014) on auditory attention in bilinguals was tentative in confirming that there was a "bilingual advantage" as they clarified that "bilingual groups were not uniformly better on all attentional tests" (p. 4) and that the bilingual advantage might stem from "a superior baseline cognitive ability" (p. 5) which makes certain bilinguals more likely to acquire more than one language. MacLeod's (2014) commentary on this study highlighted that "the clinical significance of the results remains to be documented" (p. 2) and posited that further research in this area will need to "carefully describe" (p. 2) the bilingual participants with regards their age when they acquire the second language, their context and use of language.

From their research in the field, Bialystok and Craik (2022) acknowledge that whilst bilingualism can enhance cognitive control abilities, it is one factor as "other factors undoubtedly play a role" (p. 1262). In terms of the specific context of the bilingual, Tsimpli et al. (2020) sought to determine whether socio-economic status (SES) affected the cognitive gains of 694 multilingual primary school children in two urban sites, Delhi and Hyderabad in India. The first challenge they faced was in taking multilingualism to be "an extension of bilingualism" as they clarified that "linguistic diversity at the societal level may or may not translate as multilingualism at the individual level" (p. 2) as multilingual might mean having awareness of different languages and not necessarily proficiency. Their study was based on two assumptions – one that SES can negatively impact learning outcomes and that bilingualism can have a positive influence. They concluded that "that bilingualism/multilingualism in this population enhanced cognitive performance on two different cognitive tasks"

despite some variation in “children’s multilingualism and sociolinguistic diversity” (p.16). Therefore, SES did not affect the bilingual advantage in this case.

In the context of the plasticity of the human brain and multilingualism, Hayakawa and Marian (2019) assert that a bilingual / multilingual’s “lifetime of managing multiple linguistic systems” has “dramatic effects on both the function and structure of the bilingual neural architecture” (p. 19) and has “implications for future brain function” (Antoniou, 2019, p. 405). Antoniou (2019) states that whilst some researchers question whether there is a bilingual advantage, they “generally accept” (p. 405) that bilingualism modifies the brain’s structure and function. For Hayakawa and Marian (2019) what is most surprising is that even relatively short bursts of exposure to another language can bring about changes in the brain, highlighting the brain’s plasticity.

For Bialystok et al. (2012) even though it would seem logical that the bilingual mind has two separate language systems, “this is not how the bilingual mind is organized” (p. 242) with both languages being always activated, even when not in use. For Hayakawa and Marian (2019) this “parallel activation of multiple languages” (p. 2) is a key part of bilingual cognition. On the other hand, whilst Antoniou (2019) considers it an “intuitive idea” (p. 396) that this activation of the languages leads to better executive control, he qualifies that there is “no consensus as yet on the relationship between bilingualism and cognitive benefits” (p. 397) and charts the dichotomy in the field with current thinking on this matter now at “an impasse” as “the two extreme conclusions may both be untenable” (Baker and Wright, 2021, p. 215). Bialystok and Craik (2022) approach the conflicting viewpoints with more positivity viewing them more as “a lively debate in the literature” (p. 1246) although they acknowledge that future research in the field will need to consider both the details of the tasks set in cognition research as well as “the bilingual context in a more meaningful way than has typically been done” (p. 1262). Not only that but Tsimpli et al.’s (2020) comment on the scarcity of research on multilingualism and cognitive effects, “possibly due to the assumption that multilingualism is cumulative

bilingualism” (p. 1) highlights that the complexities of different languages should also be considered in future research in this field.

2.2.3 Bilingualism / Multilingualism and SLA / TLA

The following two sections provide an overview of research into second language acquisition (SLA) and third language acquisition (TLA). It is important to clarify that, as SLA in particular “has a substantial body of research” (Gass et al., 2013, p. 159) and is “a scientific discipline that tries to describe how people learn and use another language” (Cook, 2008, p. 9), this overview concentrates on the general trends which have had impact on pedagogical practice. Nevertheless, Cook’s (2008) caveat will be borne in mind in that as “there is no easy link between SLA research and language teaching methods” (p. 11) as will Krashen’s (1982) warning that “it is dangerous to rely only on theory” (p. 1) in the context of language acquisition. The section on SLA, has been guided by my choice of trends by Lightbrown and Spada (2002), Cook (2008) and Gass et al. (2013) and focus on the work of Chomsky and Krashen. As for TLA the work of both Pinto & Alexandre (2021 Eds) and Bardel & Sánchez (2020) have influenced section [2.2.3.2 TLA: an overview](#).

2.2.3.1 SLA: an overview

Spada and Lightbrown (2010) define SLA research as “knowledge and use of a language by children and adults who already know at least one other language” (p. 111). SLA concerns empirical and theoretical research and dates from the 1970s (VanPatten et al., 2022). Whilst the processes in first and second language acquisition “share common sequences,” (Wrobel, 2013, p. 3), there are differences in outcomes because speakers achieve proficiency in their L1 but not necessarily in their L2. Meisel (2011) contrasts the child between the ages of 1 to 5 who can acquire their L1 with relative ease with a teenager or adult who has significantly more challenges in acquiring an L2. It is not surprising, therefore, that the pedagogy to teach L1 and L2 is different. Sato and Loewen (2019) regard the research into instructed second language acquisition (ISLA) as “researchers’ effort to impact pedagogical practices” (p. 1) which implies that this is a developing field.

As a backdrop to SLA research is the changing nature of how language was perceived in the 20th century. From the linguistic relativism of the Sapir-Whorf theory which describes the interplay of language and culture, an “extremely controversial theory” (Liang, 2011, p. 569), put forward by American linguist and anthropologist Edward Sapir and his student Benjamin Lee Whorf to Chomsky’s (1986: 29) “Universal Grammar”. Chomsky’s original theory “took the linguistics community by storm” (Ibbotson and Tomasello, 2016, p. 1) with his assumption that every child has an innate understanding of grammar, without which the child would not be able to learn a second language. Chomsky challenged the behaviourist theory of language which posits that language learning “is the result of imitation, practice, feedback on success and habit formation” (Lightbrown & Spada, 2003, p. 9). Spada and Lightbrown (2010) contextualise Chomsky’s work, stating that Chomsky was trying to rationalise how children acquire complex language at a time in their cognitive development when they are unable to grasp other types of knowledge. Chomsky inferred from this that children had an innate language faculty or what he termed a *language acquisition device* (LAD) (Spada and Lightbrown, 2010). Chomsky named this faculty “Universal Grammar” as part of “a general theory of linguistic structure that aims to discover the framework of principles and elements common to attainable human languages” (Chomsky, 1986, p. 3). Chomsky’s work shared an understanding with Lenneberg’s *Critical Period Hypothesis* (1967) which stated that, owing to biological functions, there is specific period for language acquisition, namely between the ages of two ending around puberty. Chomsky (1995) revised his UG model in his *Minimalist Program* which takes at its focus the learning of vocabulary as “language acquisition is in essence a matter of determining lexical idiosyncrasies” (p. 131). For Cook (2008), the main conclusion drawn for this work is not about grammar per se but that “words should be taught, not as tokens with isolated meanings, but as items that play a part in the sentence” (p. 217) as these words determine the sentence structure.

Whilst “Chomsky’s approach has earned much popularity” (Hoque, 2021, p. 60), recent developments in cognitive science have presented a significant challenge to his views, disputing them with the assertion that “language is acquired as children discern

patterns in the language they hear around them” (Ibbotson and Tomasello, 2016, p. 1). For Dąbrowska (2015), despite generative linguists mitigating challenges to UG by claiming that UG is not a hypothesis but an approach to linguistics, “there is actually very little evidence for its existence” (p. 12) although she cannot deny its hold in SLA research.

Krashen’s theories have been similarly influential in SLA and on teaching practice. His five hypotheses about second language acquisition (1981) deal with adult language acquisition although the hypotheses have been useful in general second language teaching practice (Lightbrown & Spada, 2002):

1. The acquisition-learning hypothesis
2. The monitor hypothesis
3. The natural order hypothesis
4. The input hypothesis
5. The affective hypothesis

In the acquisition-learning hypothesis (1), for Krashen there is a distinction between language “acquisition” and language “learning” with the former being subconscious or “picking-up” a language” (Krashen, 1981, p. 10). and the latter being “what we did in school” (Krashen, 2003, p. 1) and associated with rules and grammar. Krashen challenges UG with the notion that “that the ability to “pick-up” languages does not disappear at puberty” (1982, p. 10). He clarifies this point in that this does not mean that adults will be able to necessarily have native levels of fluency, but it does mean that adults can acquire a new language like a child acquires language. Cook (2008) makes the distinction between “L2 user” and “L2 learner” (p. 12) and argues that grammar is interpreted differently by SLA researchers who see it as what is in a person’s mind and teachers who view it as a set of rules. It should be noted that many of the common terms used by teachers and SLA researchers can differ in meaning because of the different contexts of the two domains (Cook, 2008). Macaro (2014) describes what is in a learner’s head as “a series of patterns,” or “interlanguage” (p. 109) which may differ from those in a native speaker’s head but “they are patterns

nonetheless “and even though the learner might make mistakes which arise from transfer from L1, it shows the brain is working (ibid). There is a clear link here to What Matters statement 1, Progression Step 5: “I can apply my knowledge of connections, commonalities and differences between languages to improve my communication” (Welsh Government, 2021a, statements of What Matters).

The monitor hypothesis (2) implies that “formal rules, or conscious learning, play only a limited role in second language performance” (Krashen, 1981, p. 16) and concentrates on three subsections, time, focus on form (which will be dealt with in more detail in 2.1.3.3) and know the rule. The natural order hypothesis (3) states that the “acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order” (p. 12). although this will differ from the learning of the first language. The input hypothesis (4) “runs counter to our usual pedagogical approach in second and foreign language teaching” (Krashen, 1981, p. 21) as it says that we acquire language “by "going for meaning" first, and as a result, we acquire structure. The affective hypothesis (5) deals with how affective factors influence language teaching and is split into three subsections – motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety.

Whilst all these hypotheses have relevance in language acquisition and learning, two are significant to this research namely the monitor hypothesis and the input hypothesis. Whereas language forms, according to MacCarthy (2008, p. 9) are the “raw material of language teaching,” Krashen favoured comprehensible input (1981, 2003) where if learners are exposed to a significant input of language tailored to their needs, they will understand it. Krashen (1981) states that input hypothesis claims that “a necessary (but not sufficient) condition to move from stage i to stage $i + 1$ is that the acquirer understand input that contains $i + 1$, where "understand" means that the acquirer is focussed on the meaning and not the form of the message” (p. 21). Krashen (1981) clarifies that this means that we can only learn when “we understand language that contains structure that is "a little beyond" where we are now” (p. 21). Spada and Lightbrown (2010) add that contextual information is also needed to support the comprehensible input. Gong (2023) describes this hypothesis as “far-reaching and

controversial” (p. 1208). For VanPatten et al. (2020), whilst his theory was well received by many, they acknowledge that it was “quickly criticized by researchers for not explaining any facts, making testable predictions, and for including vague constructs” (p. 217). Macaro (2014) acknowledges that it is a controversial theory but feels that Krashen has been “unjustly pilloried” (p. 111). Macaro does, however, challenge Krashen’s comprehensible input hypothesis which stated that if a learner could understand a teacher’s input, he or she would subconsciously acquire the patterns of the L2 (Krashen, 2003). Furthermore, there is a move towards the understanding that “acquisition also requires that learners attend to form” (Ellis, 2005, p. 4).

Smith and Conti (2016) favour the PPP approach (presentation, practice, and production) to the teaching of language forms where pupils’ attention is drawn to a structure, they can then practise it then producing output in a more controlled manner before using the structure creatively. This initial structure needs to be fully perceived and understood by the learner (Ur, 1996) if this method is to work. Cook (2008) questions whether we should call the grammatical activities which take place in L2 learning a focus on form but a “focus on meaning” (p. 43) as this is the function of grammar. Norris and Ortega’s (2000) meta-analysis of 45 L2 studies concluded that a focus on form had more of a benefit for learners than a focus on meaning, although Cook (2008) questioned some of the validity of the data analysed. Smith and Conti (2016) acknowledge that even though the debate is ongoing, teaching pupils about form and most significantly, grammatical form “is a good thing” (p. 78). Pountain (2021) considers this attention to linguistic structure as “an essential aspect of the teaching of Modern Languages” (p. 62). MacCarthy (2008) places the value on training the learner to “observe features of language above sentence level” (p. 5) especially if there is no transfer between L1 and L2. MacCarthy (2008) highlights how discourse analysis, the “study of the relationship between language and contexts” can allow the learner to analyse “real data” (p. 50) to be able to produce natural output.

It is this output which has been a more recent focus for linguists (Benati 2017, Nassaji & Tian 2010) and teachers (Smith and Conti, 2016) as L2 learners also need “opportunities to produce output” (Nassaji & Tian, 2013, p. 165). For Swain (2011), the focus is also on output although she dislikes the term, favouring instead *linguaging* which she sees as “an action – a dynamic, never-ending process of using language to make meaning” (p. 96). According to Swain (2011), output or *linguaging* can encourage learners to mediate their language learning by drawing their attention to language problems and allowing them to find a solution. For Singleton & Flynn (2022), Swain’s notion of *linguaging* helps learners “make meaning and understand extralinguistic concepts, leading to creative problem-solving, among other potential outcomes” (p. 142).

Collaborating on output is viewed as a useful part of the process as it can give learners the opportunity to discuss and reflect on language. (Nassaji & Tian, 2013). For some linguists, output has a causal role in language acquisition (Gass and Mackey, 2007) but for others, output is the poor relation of input, as analysis of the latter “is not equivalent to control of linguistic distinctions in speech production” (Carroll, 2007, p. 158). VanPatten (2020) is more cautious but acknowledges that “output is useful if it leads learners to register and then correct their misinterpretations of others’ meanings” (p. 122) and even though output may push learners to process input more effectively, he confines its role to being beneficial but not causal.

2.2.3.2 TLA: an overview

There are two conflicting ideologies of multilingualism which reflect the views of bilingualism from the traditional monolingual approach to a more holistic one. The monolingual or “atomistic” (Cenoz, 2013a, p. 10) stance treats languages as separate entities. For Baker & Wright (2021) the monolingual ideology is associated with “**language-as-a-problem-orientation**” (p. 27, emphasis in original) which leads to restricting languages from the classroom and creating language hierarchies. In the holistic or “heteroglossic perspective” (Baker & Wright, 2021, p. 20) there is

complimentarity between the languages, with all the languages spoken considered as part of a person's linguistic repertoire (Grosjean, 2008). For Kucukali (2021), rather than being a “sum of multiple separate monolinguals” multilingual speakers “have a unique language system of multi-competencies” (pp. 70-71). For Hofer (2021) the multilingual learner from a holistic perspective is “nested in a greater whole and continuously interacting with its surroundings” (p. 141).

Third Language Acquisition (TLA) is often used as a synonym for multilingualism although Cenoz (2013b) clarifies that the latter is a much broader term which does not necessarily entail language acquisition. Hammaberg (2018) defines TLA, also known as L3 acquisition or tertiary language acquisition as the learning situation for learners “with prior experience of acquiring one or more non-native languages” (p. 128). TLA has been influenced both by research in bilingualism from a sociolinguistic point of view and from SLA research from a pedagogical position (Jessner, 2006). Just as in SLA, there is a focus on underlying language proficiency in the acquisition process but, as “acquiring a second and third language are different processes” (Cabrelli Amaro & Iverson, 2018,) which are “complex processes per se” (p. 737) this has given rise to TLA research, “the birth of a new subfield” (Jessner, 2006, p. 16).

In contrast to bilingualism and SLA, Jessner et al. (2015) identify four orders of L3 acquisition:

1. Consecutive learning of 3 languages
2. Simultaneous learning of 3 languages
3. Simultaneous learning of L1 and L2 before L3
4. Simultaneous learning of L1 and L2 after acquisition of L3

These four orders show the inherent complexity in L3 acquisition. Bardel and Sánchez (2020) in their introduction to their work on TLA, identify three factors to contextualise TLA: the age of the learner (both the age of the learner when acquiring L3 but also their age when acquiring previous languages), the language proficiency of the learner (in particular, proficiency in L2) and multilingualism itself which gives

cognitive benefits of language awareness. They cite Cummins' *interdependence hypothesis* (Cummins, 1991), which states certain L1 knowledge can be positively transferred as an L2 is acquired, as also having relevance in the acquisition of L3. Jessner (2006) concurs with the significant impact of Cummins' work in bilingualism research although asserts that his work "ideally should be tested in multilingual contexts" (p. 20). It would seem that "much L3 research is about reviewing old knowledge about second language acquisition in light of the factors that are of importance for the complex multilingual mind" (Bardel & Sánchez, 2020, p. 11) as well as deriving from research on bilingualism. So that even though there are "different processes" in TLA (Cabrelli Amaro & Iverson, 2018, p. 737) the underlying literature might suggest otherwise.

2.2.3.3 Crosslinguistic influence

Crosslinguistic influence seeks to describe how "a speaker's cumulative experience with one or more languages can influence their processing and use of other languages" (McManus, 2022, p. 1). Thus, whilst it might be thought of as affecting only the use of one language on the learning of another language, it can also refer to an individual's whole language learning experience. In the second or third language classroom, this process is termed "L1–L2 form-meaning mapping" (McManus, 2022, p. 5). This could manifest as a learner who has learnt Welsh anticipating that 'chair' in Welsh has a feminine gender like in Spanish e.g., '*cadair*' after '*la silla*.' CLI could also be seen in an English-speaking learner of French transferring a structure such as 'I am eating' to French, so that the result is the incorrect '*je suis mange*' instead of '*je mange*.' This transfer is a key component of crosslinguistic influence. The mapping could also be shown by a learner who, understanding that the Welsh alphabet (29 letters) has more letters than English (26 letters), is not surprised by the Spanish language (27 letters) also having more letters. In all these cases, it is a learner's prior language acquisition knowledge that is having a direct impact on future language learning.

Within the literature of contrastive linguistics and second language acquisition (SLA), historically the focus has been on a unidirectional crosslinguistic influence of the first

language (L1) on the second language (L2) (Murphy et al., 2015). Lado (1957) espoused the view that language teachers should be linguists who get involved in the “painful business of comparing languages” (p. 2) so that by comparing L1 to L2 they would be able to predict learners’ errors and potential challenges in second language acquisition and thereby be more effective in developing appropriate teaching strategies. As mentioned in TLA research, Cummins’ (1991) *interdependence hypothesis* states that there is a “degree of interdependence between L1 and L2 verbal academic proficiency in the L2 acquisition process” (p. 74) so that levels of literacy and proficiency in L1 will positively impact on acquiring L2. For Cook (1991) bilinguals have “multicompetence” (p. 112) referring to knowledge of both L1 and L2 and he questions why “this normal state of the human mind has been put to one side” (p.116) in research about language acquisition. For Lightbrown and Spada (2002), the transfer in second language acquisition can cause errors for L1 including the “overgeneralization of target-language rules” (p. 165) where pupils with different L1s all make the same errors. This could be seen in L2/L3 learners of French, for example, transferring the French spelling of ‘*appartement*’ to the English ‘apartment’. Lightbrown and Spada (ibid) suggest that rather than transfer from one language to another, that the errors arise instead from pupils trying to work out the structure of the L2 and many of the errors reflect the ones made by L1 speakers.

Selinker (1972) felt that there is some transfer from the second language as well as interference from other languages learnt. He gave the name “interlanguage” (p. 2019) to learners’ developing knowledge of L2. This *interlanguage* is a dynamic process, which constantly changes in relation to language input and the development of the learners understanding of the L2. Furthermore, there could be problems with this approach of using one language to support the acquisition of another, as the influence of the first language might even be negative with specific occurring errors identified (Mitchell and Myles, 2004) or unhelpful as “the influence L2 has on L3 when the learner has achieved a very low level of L2 proficiency appears to be very marginal” (Tremblay, 2006, p. 117). It is important to add that there is the added complexity of minority language schools wanting to protect their language. This can be seen in Welsh medium schools in anglicised areas which are “cautious” about using English “in

order to preserve and safeguard the minority language within the classroom” (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 143) as the portrayal of the two languages, Welsh and English throughout history has been about “conflict, oppression and suppression, of English language dominance and Welsh language endangerment” (Lewis et al, 2012, p. 2) or what Pountain calls (2021) “linguistic imperialism” (p. 71).

Based on Fries’ (1945) contention that there needs to be scientific description of the language to be learnt, Lado (1957) developed a few years later what has since become known as the *contrastive analysis hypothesis* which focusses on the transfer from L1 to L2. Lado’s (1957) seminal work, *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers* asserted that “individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture” (p. 2). To create pedagogical materials for teachers, Lado thus felt it was essential to carry out contrastive analysis on both L1 and L2 to identify similarities and differences. Gass et al. (2013) outline the ultimate purpose of contrastive analysis in L2 acquisition of “isolating what needs to be learned and what does not need to be learned” (p. 85) They also clarify that in the field of contrastive analysis, whilst transfer from the L1 could be positive or negative which can cause confusion, transfer should be seen as a process rather than a product. It should be noted that this hypothesis has been subsequently challenged by König (1996) who wrote of the “limiting case of typological comparison” (p. 51). Furthermore, Lado (1968)’s unidirectional focus shifted, and he later wrote of the transfer from L1 to L2 and “vice versa” (p. 124).

Cook’s volume *Effects of the Second Language on the First* (2003) was the one of the first to analyse the bi-directional influence of L1 and L2 (Murphy et al., 2015). However, Pavlenko’s chapter (2003) on L2 influence on L1 highlights many of the negative factors including “borrowing transfer” where L2 elements become part of L1, “convergence” where one system of rules emerges, “shift” where L2 values and structures dominate, “restructuring transfer” where elements of L2 encourage loss or simplification in L1 and “L1 attrition” (pp. 33-34) where influence of L2 causes loss

of elements of L1. Murphy and Pine's chapter (2003) in this volume, *L2 Influence on L1 Linguistic Representations*, was the only one to discuss the positive potential influences of L2 knowledge on L1 competence and to focus on children. They built on Bialystock's (2001) work, which examined the language and cognitive development of preschool bilingual children and recognised the metalinguistic awareness that bilinguals have in second and subsequent language acquisition. This awareness is twofold and involves both phonological and morphological understanding, both of which are key to literacy in general and reading, in particular (Chiappe & Siegel, 1999; Deacon & Bryant, 2006 and Murphy et al., 2015).

Whilst the research is well-developed in the advantages of being bilingual, there has been much less research to date on the benefits of taught foreign languages on L1, particularly with a focus on metalinguistic awareness which is "an important variable" in literacy (Murphy et al., 2015, p. 1134). Murphy et al. (2015) sought to answer the research question: does learning a FL have a beneficial impact on developing L1 literacy? For the research, three groups: an L2 Italian group, and L2 French group and a control group were set up. There was a second research question: is there a difference between the L2 Italian and L2 French groups? This question arose from the notion of distinct types of orthographies where languages such as Italian have an almost one-to-one correspondence between letters and sounds and would be considered transparent or shallow, contrasting with French where the grapheme-phoneme correspondences (GPC) are less close and would be considered opaque or deep and ultimately less accessible (Davies & Cuetos, 2005). The *orthography hypothesis* was supported by the results of the research where L2 Italian learners outperformed their L2 French counterparts in single word reading and phonological processing. Overall, the effects were "small," but the researchers did identify a "clear effect of L2 learning on L1 literacy, at least on single-word reading and some aspects of phonological processing" (Murphy et al., 2015, p. 1149). This research also suggests that learning a FL can increase pupils' overall metalinguistic awareness -or "conscious knowledge of form/meaning relationships in a language" Alipour (2014, p. 2641) - and can have an impact on L1 literacy (Murphy et al., 2015).

In terms of a theoretical crosslinguistic focus, Long (1991) differentiates between drawing students' attention to structures or "focus on form" (FonF) and the more traditional discrete teaching of grammar or "focus on formS" (FonFs) (p. 45). Sheen (2002) feels that *focus on form* comes from an assumed similarity between the acquisition of L1 and L2 whereas *focus on formS* is much more a cognitive process or skills-based approach to language teaching. Schmidt advanced the *noticing hypothesis* where "more noticing leads to more learning" (Schmidt, 1994, p. 18). For Wenham (2021), "noticing" implies "an explicit rather than implicit approach to language learning" (p. 79) which would typically take place in a classroom as it is "widely considered to be more efficient for teaching purposes" (p. 80) than the implicit approach. Otwinowska-Kasztelanica (2011) extends the notion of noticing to posit that "without noticing certain available affordances, the learner may not be able to use them" (p. 3).

The main area of difference between second and third language acquisition—known as the "difference assumption" (Sánchez, 2020, p. 17) is the prior knowledge of the learner. For Marx & Hufeisen (2004), the difference is a qualitative one, echoed by Jessner (2006) who highlights the "quality change in language learning and processing" (p. 14). The impact of this prior knowledge can be affected by how similar the languages are as defined by Rothman's *Typological Primacy Model* (Rothman, 2010) which states that perceived similarity of languages by the learner is what triggers transfer from L1 to L2 or L3 (Cabrelli Amaro & Iverson, 2018). Cenoz (2013) acknowledges that TLA and SLA share many of the same characteristics, but the main difference is that third language learners "can use this broader linguistic repertoire when learning a third language" (p. 72). Sánchez (2020) recognises that crosslinguistic influence is more complex in TLA than in SLA as it involves more languages which are often non-native. Whilst it is difficult to ascertain whether L1 or L2 have greater crosslinguistic influence (Sánchez, 2020), the linguistic repertoire of a multilingual learner is not static but "accelerates with time in all students" (Mayr, 2021, p. 181). However, even though there has been "unprecedented rise of crosslinguistic pedagogy around the globe," Paquet and Woll (2021) posit that teachers are still constrained by a "monolingual bias" (p. 95). Whilst they acknowledge the importance of target language teaching (discussed in more detail in Section 2.3.2) where the language being

taught is used as the language of instruction, they caution against banning other languages from the classroom. They assert that these languages provide opportunities for crosslinguistic links. Moreover, this crosslinguistic influence can help learners most effectively “when language systems interact with each other” (Mayr, 2021, p. 167), ideally in a classroom environment. Learners’ perception of the distance between languages – a measure of how similar they are - is a “decisive factor in cross-linguistic influence” (Leonet et al., 2020, p. 56) and could have an impact on how easily learners could achieve Progression Step 5 of What Matters statement 1, *Languages connect us*: “I can communicate, interact and *mediate* in multiple languages and identify myself as *multilingual*” (Welsh Government, 2021a, progression steps).

The notion of the dynamic interplay between the languages in a multilingual’s linguistic repertoire inspired Herdina & Jessner (2002) to create the *Dynamic Model of Multilingualism* (DMM) which rejects the idea of individual languages but sees all the languages as part of a “psycholinguistic system” (Rothman et al., 2019, p. 59). Herdina & Jessner (2002) clarify key concepts in DMM namely transfer, interference, crosslinguistic influence and crosslinguistic interaction. In terms of transfer, this can be either positive or negative so that it can cause deviation or development in “the learner system” (p. 61). Whereas interference is considered negative in SLA, it is part of “language processing in DMM” (ibid).

In terms of teaching implication of TLA, as multilinguals have “more linguistic resources than monolinguals” (Leonet et al., 2020, p. 4), it is important for language teachers to emphasise explicit knowledge and metalinguistic awareness, particularly when teaching a closely related language (Carvalho, 2021). Although Carvalho does clarify that a more inclusive and accessible approach for learners would be to focus on the potential for meaning making as opposed to explicit knowledge. Cenoz (2013) also recognises the importance of teachers helping learners develop their metalinguistic awareness by encouraging them to see connections between the languages they speak and are learning. It is this metalinguistic awareness (MLA) which was the focus of D’Angelo and Sorace’s research (2022) on third language acquisition by bilinguals. They found that there was a positive relation between MLA in L2 on the acquisition

of L3. Another key factor in their research was the number of languages known by the participant so that “MLA develops in proportion with the number of languages mastered by the speakers” (D’Angelo & Sorace, 2022, p. 3563). Interestingly, they also found that MLA did not come from a specific language but from the whole linguistic system, suggesting that it is not important which third language is taught, which could be useful in discussion regarding the choice international languages in Curriculum for Wales. In TLA and by extension multilingual and plurilingual pedagogies, scaffolding, discussed in more detail in 2.3.2.1, is a core activity. García and Flores (2015) identify five components of scaffolding in this context: teaching routines, contextualisation, modelling, bridging and schema building and multiple entry points which encourages a more inclusive approach. For this scaffolding to be meaningful, it must “build on the dynamic plurilingualism of the children in interaction with the teacher” (p. 244).

Much of the research in TLA to date has centred on the key role of L2 on the acquisition of L3 (Bono, 2011; Cabrelli & Iverson, 2018) with a basic assumption in L3 research that “multilingualism per se (bilingualism included) enhances both further language learning and the potentially achieved proficiency in additional languages” (Bardel & Sánchez, 2020, p. 2). This assumption derives from second language acquisition where there is recognition that crosslinguistic influence is bidirectional and as a “logical extension of this is that an L3 can affect previously acquired systems” (Amaro & Iverson, 2018, p. 745). Herdina & Jessner’s DMM (2002) distinguishes between crosslinguistic interaction and influence because the former implies “multidirectional interplay” (Jessner et al., 2015, p. 197) between the languages although the more languages involved, the greater the complexity in establishing the influence. Nevertheless, research on the potential effects of the L3 on the L1 and L2 is still in its infancy. Furthermore, Puig-Mayenco et al.’s (2020) research on transfer studies in third language acquisition recommended in the conclusion of their paper that “L3 studies should employ, where possible, a mirror image design” (p. 52) so that the bidirectionality of transfer is a focus in future research.

2.2.3.4 Triple Literacy

Many of the perceptions of how the three languages could work together as an AoLE will have been influenced by previous attempts to make links between the languages, or what was traditionally called *triple literacy*. Llewellyn-Williams and Laugharne (2014) state that the purpose of *triple literacy* was that “Welsh and foreign languages could function in a mutually supportive and beneficial way” (p. 286) and this might provide an explanation of how the term and concept have evolved over the years. However, Llewellyn-Williams and Laugharne (2014) do clarify that there was an understanding within the modern foreign languages education community in Wales that the policy aimed not only to foster links between the languages but also “to improve outcomes in modern foreign languages” (p. 286) but which is not made explicit in the triple literacy documentation. Much of the original focus of Centre for Languages CILT Cymru’s work on *triple literacy* was to support language learning and underpinning the project was the belief that “knowledge of a second language will improve prospects of learning further languages.” (Llewellyn-Williams & Laugharne, 2014, p. 286).

It is important to understand the historical context of *triple literacy* to define it. There clearly was optimism both about the triple literacy project, which had been developed by CILT Cymru and funded by the Welsh Government from 2002. The subsequent triple literacy policy was “predicated upon the idea of teaching collaboratively, planning across departments and classes and using similar terminology” (Laugharne, 2015, p. 246). CILT Cymru had been involved in triple literacy initiatives soon after the publication of ACCAC’s *Making the Link – Language learning 5 – 14* (2003). The publication aimed to establish common principles common to the three languages – English, Welsh, and the international language – and encourage more collaboration and cooperation between teachers from these departments. The focus of the document was to promote good practice in language skills across languages. Following its publication, CILT Cymru partnered with the former Basic Skills Agency and the ESRC Centre for Research on Bilingualism in Theory and Practice at Bangor University to carry out a series of Action Research Projects between 2005 and 2007 involving schools throughout Wales.

In the 2011 publication, *Supporting triple literacy: Language learning in Key Stage 2 and Key Stage 3* (Welsh Government, 2011) there was a clear change in focus from good practice in language skills to developing precise literacy-based skills across languages. This could be seen as a reactive response by CILT Cymru to Wales' urgent focus on literacy at that time or even politically motivated, both in terms of the rhetoric surrounding the need to improve literacy in Wales along with the need to promote modern foreign languages by linking it with this drive to improve literacy. Whilst for Laugharne (2015), the Welsh Government *triple literacy* policy had a "strong pedagogic focus" (p. 246), it could be argued that the policy is also based on the pedagogy of "principled eclecticism" favoured by Smith and Conti (2016, p. 9) with the choices for activities mostly being "principled" but nonetheless arbitrary in nature. It is interesting to note that the 2011 documentation, *Supporting triple literacy: Language learning in Key Stage 2 and Key Stage 3*, does not allude to Hawkins' work on Language Awareness (LA). As part of the UK school curriculum, the LA movement in the 1970s was considered to be "a new "bridging" element" (Hawkins, 1999, p. 124) in the attempt to bridge the divide between poor literacy levels in English, problems in foreign language learning and the negative perceptions of learning a foreign language. The Association of Language Awareness (ALA) defines Language Awareness as, "explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" (Association for Language Awareness, 2018, para. 1) and it "is well placed to draw together a broad range of strategies aiming to improve language learning in teaching" (Kelly, 2019, p. 38). Despite a clear link between the underlying principles and practical applications between LA and triple literacy in the chapter "Literacy in all languages" in *Supporting triple literacy: Language learning in Key Stage 2 and Key Stage 3*, no explicit link was made with Hawkins' work which could have raised the profile of triple literacy in Wales. Not only that but in the LNF guidance (2013), there is no explicit mention of modern foreign languages or of any crosslinguistic benefit from learning a foreign language.

Ceri James' redundancy as Director of CILT Cymru in 2014 and his subsequent outspoken article in the Guardian (James, 2014) mentioned the *triple literacy* project as a key initiative during his tenure. In the article, James suggested that it was "time for the Welsh government to put up or shut up" (ibid) and asked, with an allusion to the Welsh Government publication of 2010, *Making Languages Count*, "Do languages really count?". CILT Cymru was closed a year later and Huw Lewis, the then Education Minister in his Written Statement (2015b) for *Global Futures* – the plan to improve and promote MFL in Wales- thanked CILT Cymru but also retorted by saying "we cannot carry on with business as usual and need a new approach to Modern language learning in Wales" (para. 6). Much of the momentum that had been built up was inevitably lost.

It has not helped that the term *triple literacy* has not been static, and this has reflected a recent interest in or even renaissance of the concept of encouraging pupils to find connections between languages and opening their minds to understand how different languages work as part of the curriculum developments in Wales (Donaldson, 2015). The four regional educational consortia in Wales were tasked with delivering *Global Futures* (2015c) and rebranded *triple literacy* as *multilingual literacy* at this time to widen the scope and acknowledge the many languages spoken in Wales. However, caution is needed here as Martin-Jones and Jones (2001) put forward the term "multilingual literacies" as a "signal that the configuration of languages and literacies considered here are not viewed in a deterministic light" (p. 8) and use the term to refer to "the multiplicity of individual and group repertoires, and the varied communicative purposes for which groups use different spoken, signed and written languages" (García & Flores, 2015, p. 242). This differs from the understanding of *triple literacy*, which supports Welsh, English and the modern foreign language.

The desire to change and adapt the terminology could be seen as reflecting the desire to repurpose the term in the light of these curriculum changes. By changing the term at a morphological level, there might also be change at the semantic level too or what Tournier (1985) calls "*métasémie*" [metasemy]. For Tournier, "*métasémie*" is "very

prominent in the lexicogenesis of the English language” (Temmerman. 2000, p. 170). That language is constantly evolving is self-evident but for Tournier the changes in a word or “*métasémie*” mean that it is a ‘*signifié en attente*’ (1985, p. 227) [signified / concept waiting to be named]. Even though Temmerman challenges Tournier’s research referring to its “restrictiveness” (2000, p. 170) in relation to his primary narrow focus on the language system itself as opposed to the interaction between human experience and language, there is a direct link with the changes in triple literacy – both in concept (*signifié/signifier*) and in how it is called (*signifiant/signifier*).

Within the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE draft curriculum, the term *plurilingual* was favoured as it embodies “the value of linguistic tolerance” as well as “intercultural competence and democratic citizenship” (Welsh Government, 2019, p. 82). It is also apparent that there is a plurilingual focus in What Matters statement 1, Progression Step 5: “I can show an open attitude towards learning about different languages and the different cultures of Wales and the world” and also “Through learning about languages, I can articulate how the association between languages and culture is preparing me for Welsh and global citizenship” (Welsh Government, 2023a, descriptions of learning) which links to one of the Four Purposes which supports learners to become “ethical, informed citizens of Wales and the world” (ibid).

2.2.4 Part 2 Summary

In summary, Part 2 of this chapter has provided context for the pedagogical decisions in Part 3. Part 2 of this review of literature has looked at the study of the three languages taught in the LLC AoLE from different perspectives with an overview of language education in Wales against the backdrop of Basque, Frisian and Corsican examples of trilingual education. It has examined how Welsh, English and the international language interact in Wales. Part 2 then detailed the development of *triple literacy* in Wales and outlines some of the interdisciplinary challenges of the LLC AoLE. The concluding section of Part 1 examined SLA and TLA as well as considering crosslinguistic influence for both research sub-fields.

The organisation of the LLC builds on the well-established bilingualism in Wales. García and Flores (2015) argue that bilingual education is not only important in “equalizing power differentials between minoritized and majority languages”, it also can extend “the plurilingual potential of students” (p. 235). However, of the modern foreign language teachers interviewed as part of the 2016/7 British Council report, *Language Trends Wales* (, 2017), over 60% felt that learning Welsh and English offered little or no preparation for the acquiring of a third language, possibly because links between the languages had not been highlighted. The report concluded that of the 6% of teachers who thought the learning of Welsh and English provided excellent preparation, the overwhelming majority were from Welsh Medium or bilingual schools and that these schools might have a “high level of sensitisation to the value of bilingualism for the learning of third languages” (p. 54). This could suggest that the AoLE might work more effectively in Welsh medium contexts because of this “sensitisation”.

What is beginning to emerge from this review of language acquisition literature is that there is a dichotomy of views regarding whether languages should be separated to support the acquisition process. Moreover, it is not clear from the research whether there is a significant benefit of learning a third language on L2 and L1. Not only is there a gap between the research and what happens in the classroom, the Welsh context of language learning shares similarities but also key differences with other countries which teach three languages. There is a clear need for research in this field in the Welsh specific context to aid LLC teachers in Wales.

2.3 Part 3

CfW highlights the importance of pedagogy in terms of the 12 pedagogical principles and the *Professional standards for teaching and learning* in Wales, both of which will be addressed later in this part of chapter. This section considers what defines pedagogy before examining modern foreign language pedagogy and potential pedagogical practices which could be used to teach What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*.

2.3.1 Towards a definition of pedagogy

Whereas its etymology is undisputed – likely from the Greek “ἄγω (I lead) and “παῖς” (child) – the term *pedagogy* has been assumed to be “self evident” (Murphy, 2003 p. 9) but has been much debated and its status has been questioned. At a societal level, it is important to consider what pedagogy means to exploit it effectively in the classroom. For Boyd, et al., (2015) pedagogy is “knowledge of how to teach” (p. 78) which a skilful teacher combines with curriculum subject content. For the Schools Teaching Council (2016), pedagogy has a wider role as it “links knowledge and its transmission” (p. 8) and it involves the way in which the content is “broken down, sequenced, taught and practised and assessed” and includes anticipating errors, correcting and being tolerant of learners. He recommends that Initial Teacher Education (ITE) should involve explicitly teaching student teachers the differences between curriculum and pedagogy. Recommendations from Baukham’s work on the Modern Foreign Languages Review (School Teaching Council, 2016) led to a National Centre for Excellence for Language Pedagogy (NCELP) being set up in England in December 2018, funded by the Department of Education (DfE) and the University of York. The centre favours a “research-led and practice-informed” approach to pedagogy which reinforces knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and phonics “via planned practice in meaningful activities” (Association of Language Learning, 2019, para. 1). Despite one of the recommendations of Furlong’s *Teaching Tomorrow’s Teachers* (2015) being that centres of “pedagogical excellence across Wales should be set up,” (p. 39). this has not yet has not been realised but could potentially support the LLC AoLE.

It is this distinction between knowledge and pedagogy that Shulman (1986) considers to be a much more recent construct with knowledge traditionally being seen as “pedagogical accomplishment” (p. 7) in itself. For Schulman (1986), there has been too much emphasis on classroom management or “general pedagogical knowledge,” and a focus instead on how learners learn rather than examining how an “expert student” becomes a “novice teacher” (p. 8). The knowledge of content – what is to be taught – serves no value if it is not blended with an understanding of how to transmit

this knowledge to learners, which Shulman defines as “pedagogical content knowledge” or PCK (p. 9). This knowledge then also involves understanding the misconceptions, problems, and challenges within the knowledge of the content that is taught. It is the category of knowledge which distinguishes “the understanding of the content specialist from that of the pedagogue” (Shulman, 1986, p. 8) and which moves the teacher from comprehension of what needs to be taught through a process of reflection and transformation.

This process of transformation is at the heart of pedagogical content knowledge, and it could be argued, of effective teaching. As part of the transformation process, Shulman (1986) identifies four stages from preparation, representation, selection, and adaptation where the content is tailored to the needs of the learners, at an ‘interpersonal’ level in terms of this research. Meredith (1995) challenges Shulman’s assertions because PCK “does not seem to encompass alternative views of teaching” (p. 176) favouring instead a teacher-led approach. For Widdowson (2002), without specialist subject knowledge, teachers “have no authority” (p. 67) although he clarifies that knowledge about a language are “pedagogic constructs” which are “versions of reality which have been designed for learning” (p. 68). For Murphy (2003), whilst pedagogy is the “*interactions between teachers, students and the learning environment and learning tasks,*” it “cannot be dis-embedded from the wider educational system” (p. 17, emphasis in original). She posits a feminist pedagogy where pupils are given “access to alternative discourses” (p. 18) where teachers “have to help make explicit to students theirs’ and others’ ways of making sense” (p. 18). García and Flores (2015) widen the scope even further by suggesting that “pedagogies do not develop on their own” but instead emerge through “socio-educational contexts” (2015), viewing them as a reaction to the content of what is taught, curriculum demands and societal changes so that pedagogy is influenced by a wide range of factors beyond the role of the teacher.

For Freire (1970) in his seminal work, *Pedagogy of the oppressed* understanding societal changes is key to delivering an education which liberates the learner from oppression. In this case, the society is Brazil in the 1960s. Irwin (2012) states that the work shows implicitly at times and explicitly at others, the complex interplay between

politics and education, which has resonance in relation to the Welsh curriculum. Freire promotes an “authentic education” (p. 66) which is mediated by real world scenarios and poses problems so that learners develop a critical appreciation of the world. He questioned traditional styles of teaching with inherent “one-sidedness in terms of power, knowledge and freedom” (Grigg, 2016, p. 151), espousing instead a pedagogy that is based on “acts of cognition” (Freire, 1970, p. 45) and not the transferring of information in a type of teaching he calls the banking model where learners receive, file and store information. Freire wanted to build on the learner’s skills to co-construct knowledge rather than a teacher imposing his or her own culture (Bates, 2016). Garavan (2010), however, challenges this point, stating that just because an educator takes a didactic or narrative approach in the case of mathematics or science, this does not necessarily mean that this pedagogy is oppressive. Freire’s work has been critiqued for being “entirely conjecture” (Mayne, 2019, para. 2) and lacking in criticality and for only being relevant in the context of “the history of exploitation and extermination, hunger and malnutrition” (Bhattacharya, 2011, p. 173) in Brazil. For Gomes (2022) Freire’s work has been applied to many areas of social justice and similarly, Garavan (2010) asserts that adopting a Freirean framework can help us understand how to raise consciousness in oppressed communities, citing examples of the Irish traveller community. Freire’s work might, therefore, have resonance with the socio-economic problems in South Wales and the communities affected. Furthermore, for Grigg (2016) Freire’s key contribution is to highlight the concept of praxis “where theory (thought) and practice (action) unite to shape and change the world” (p. 151) through the transformative potential of teaching.

Freire (2021) analyses his original work in *Pedagogy of Hope: Reliving Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. Whilst he returned to his original theories with hope, his travels to El Salvador lead him to assert that its “basic theses were even more current and vital now than they had been” (p. 197) with reference to adult literacy campaigns. For Freire (2021), it is only through “dialectical understanding” that we can understand the “introjection of the oppressor by the oppressed” (p. 110). Regarding adult literacy, Freire insists on the importance of context so that we simultaneously read the word as well as the world. Freire stresses that it is important to understand the power dynamics in an education system that liberates so that, whilst the context and prior knowledge

of the learner are crucial, the role of the teacher must not be overlooked as “the bridge here must always be dialogue” (Irwin, 2012, p. 132).

In contrast with Freire’s work, much of the more recent work on pedagogy is research-informed and evidence-based as exemplified by Rosenshine’s *Principles of Instructions* (2012) who draws from research in cognitive science, research on master teachers, those “teachers whose classrooms made the highest gains on achievement tests,” and research on cognitive supports or “effective instructional procedures.” (p. 12). For Rosenshine (2012), these different data sources work together well to increase the validity of the instructional methods, giving the teacher “faith that we are developing a valid and research-based understanding of the art of teaching” (p.39). In developing the broad pedagogical principles for practitioners to follow in CfW, Donaldson (2015) acknowledges a few key names in teaching and learning, who all favour a research-led approach including John Hattie, Mick Waters and Dylan Wiliam as well as citing the OECD (2013) *Innovative Learning Environments*, a study with the aim of positively influencing “the contemporary education reform agenda with forward-looking insights about learning and innovation” (p. 3).

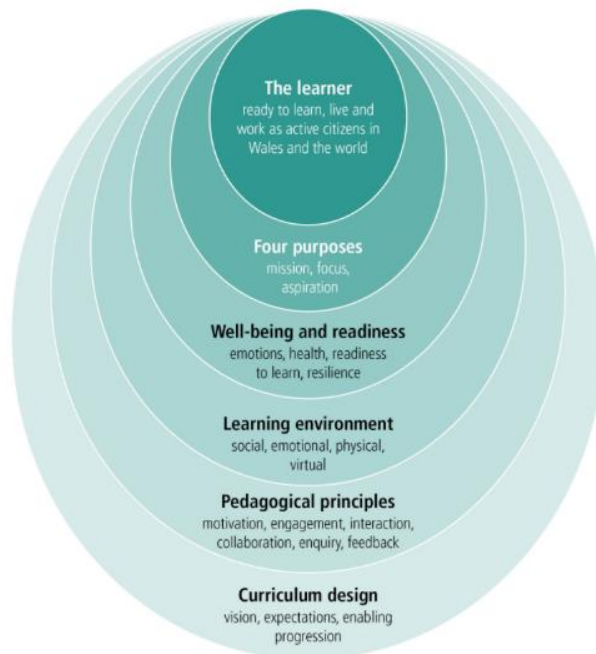


Figure 2-3. Pedagogy and spheres of influence

In CfW, pedagogy is one of the spheres of influence that has an impact on the learner, and it involves motivation, engagement, interaction, collaboration, enquiry, and feedback (Figure 2.1). Whilst the Four Purposes are “the starting point and aspiration for schools’ curriculum design” in CfW pedagogy and pedagogical approaches are “at the heart of curriculum.” (Welsh Government, 2021a, para. 1). Pedagogy “is at the heart of curriculum” (Welsh Government, 2023b, para. 1) and there are twelve pedagogical principles which focus on “good learning and teaching” (para. 4, Figure 2.2) and are a starting point for practitioners.

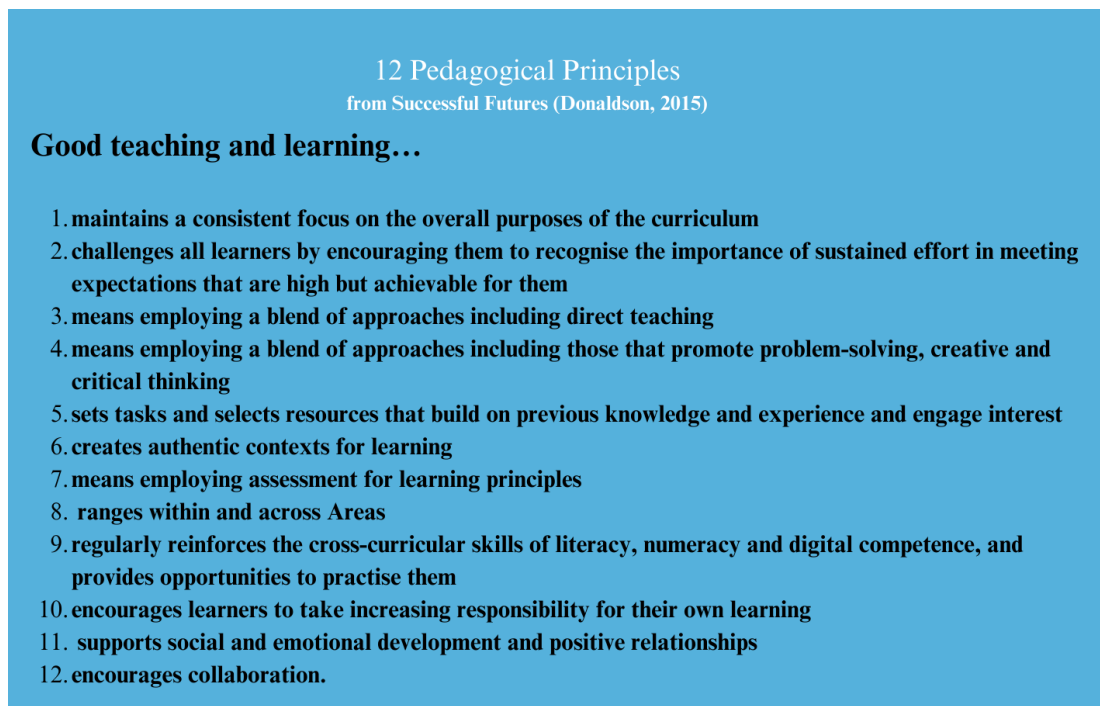


Figure 2-4. 12 Pedagogical Principles

As these pedagogical principles are broad and not prescriptive, teachers and schools have considerable freedom and flexibility to decide on what substantive knowledge (which set texts to use, for example) and on what disciplinary knowledge will be taught and which pedagogy to use to transfer this knowledge. Some guidance about knowledge is provided in the AoLE What Matters statements but overall, the lack of prescription in the What Matters statements is meant to be engaging and liberating for schools with teachers given the “scope to make lessons relevant to pupils’ interests” (Newton, 2020, p. 225); although “this flexibility is both a gift (for some) and a burden (for others)” (Sinnema et al., 2020, p. 184). Each What Matters statement has Principles for Progression with the learning divided into Progression Steps. For Kidd, the AoLEs “offer an opportunity to find exactly the coherent links across the

curriculum (2020, p. 79) although this would seem more possible in a primary school context. With reference to Curriculum for Excellence, Reeves (2013) commented that the ‘I can’ statements in the Descriptions of Learning “enable learners to say ‘I can show what I can’” (p. 66) and represent a “substantial redefinition of what it is to be a (pupil) learner in terms of work and activity” (p. 67) as the ownership of the learning is on the pupil.

As a potential source of confusion to teachers in Wales, pedagogy is also one of the five *Professional standards for teaching and leadership* (Welsh Government, 2019b). The standards have been in place since 2017 and are aimed at all teachers from student teachers, newly qualified teachers (NQTs) and practising teachers. The standards arose from teacher reform as set out by Furlong (2015) in *Teaching Tomorrow’s Teachers* and Donaldson’s *Successful Future* (2015) where pedagogy is seen a lying “at the heart of what it means to be an excellent teacher” (p. 63). The professional standard for effective pedagogy for teaching and learning is described as “paramount” (p. 16) in the guidance. For the teacher, there is a need to progressively refine teaching, influencing learners and advancing learning whereas for school leaders there is a need to demonstrate “accountability for the pedagogy of others.” (Welsh Government, 2019b, p. 64)

With the onus on schools and teachers to decide how to deliver the subject discipline elements of the AoLEs, this will inevitably mean a variation both in how knowledge is taught and in an understanding that this knowledge can open the codes of each subject to pupils, those from a disadvantaged background (Ashbee, 2021). It should be noted that the subject disciplines differ from the wider remit of the “discipline in the field” (p. 38) as “universities and schools have quite a different function when it comes to knowledge” (Lambert, 2014, p. 163). For Harland and Wald (2018) even though university students have epistemic access to the disciplines, it does not necessarily mean that they will “attain powerful knowledge or use that knowledge wisely for society” (p. 618). In schools, this knowledge needs to be “recontextualised” (Ashbee, 2021, p. 38) as schools’ role is to “transfer and communicate” knowledge, rather than produce it. Ashbee (2021) distinguishes between substantive knowledge

which represents “the claims and works put forward and developed by the great contributors in the discipline over time” and disciplinary knowledge which is defined as “knowledge of how participation in a discipline or subject allows us to create meaning” (40). However, Grigg’s caution (2016) should be noted that knowledge-centred teaching approaches could hamper pupils’ creativity.

Young (2014) divides the debate on knowledge into Futures 1, 2 and 3. In Future 1, where the focus is on public and other elite schools, the curriculum is a knowledge-driven one but one where knowledge is “fixed in history” (Young, 2014, p. 62). In Future 2, knowledge is not a given but is “constructed” (p. 59) in response to the school context and is more inclusive in its remit. Both these Futures are aligned to politics, with Future 1 reflecting a more right-wing educational stance and Future 2, one more akin to left-wing ideology. For Future 3, knowledge is in the “specialist communities of researchers in different fields” (p. 66) and establishing meaning through “the interrelatedness of subject-based concepts” (p. 67). Young (2020), however, later questions these ideas himself, stating that much of his thoughts on curriculum were “inadequate,” (p. 25) arising from the fact that right-wing policy makers had repurposed his concept of *powerful knowledge* which made him question his original stance. However, for Christoloudou (2014) even though selecting knowledge in a curriculum is inevitably politically motivated and even biased, it is a myth to consider the teaching of knowledge as indoctrination. In fact, she ends her book *Seven Myths About Education* with the assertion that teaching knowledge “doesn’t indoctrinate; knowledge liberates” (p. 123). What Young (2020) does emphasise is the “interrelatedness of curriculum and pedagogy” (p. 26) and that teachers as curriculum makers, have the challenging task of creating a curriculum based on “pedagogised knowledge” (p. 26). Both these: the concept of *interrelatedness* and the importance placed on pedagogy, have significant resonance in CfW.

2.3.2 Languages connect us: the pedagogy of making links between languages.

If the term ‘pedagogy’ is difficult to define and categorise in the educational sector, then it follows that it is even more challenging to define it in the context of making pedagogical links between languages, or what was traditionally called *triple literacy*. Much of the original *triple literacy* work was done in modern languages classrooms. It is interesting to note that very few of the seminal works on modern languages education and second language acquisition focus on pedagogy. In the Index of *Debates in Modern Languages Education* (Driscoll et al., 2014), under ‘pedagogy’ readers are advised to look for ‘Classroom Practice,’ whereas in *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching* (Cook, 2008), readers need to refer to ‘Teaching’ instead, although both terms have different associations. This might suggest that there is no clear notion of pedagogy within modern languages teaching although it should be noted that *methodology* and *pedagogy* are often used interchangeably (Zheng & Davison, 2008). However, Zheng and Davison (2008) do not consider that both these terms are synonymous, and they deem pedagogy to be aligned to classroom practice and define it more as “the teacher’s personal construct of teaching beliefs, attitudes and practices that encompasses all aspects of a teacher’s identity” (p. 9).

Whilst there may be blurring of boundaries between *methodology* and *pedagogy* in usage, both terms are still ambiguous in that there is no agreed pedagogy or methodology for modern foreign language teaching. For Smith and Conti (2016) this leads to teachers choosing a “relativist” position or a method of “principled eclecticism” (p. 9) so that they can be responsive to the needs of learners and choose areas they like. However, there are the immediate problems here of whose principles govern the choice and if there is an evidence base for the chosen methods. It could be argued, however, that the “provisional, broad principles” (Smith & Conti, 2016. p. 10) emerging from recent research and classroom data, which could provide a useful framework to teachers.

Even though there is a lack of clarity in terms of pedagogy and methodology, there is one overriding approach in modern foreign languages teaching – target language

teaching, where the language being taught becomes the language of instruction - which is based on “monoglossic ideology that assumes that legitimate linguistic practices are only those enacted by monolinguals” (García & Flores, 2015, p. 233). This principle and ideology dominate modern foreign language (L2 or L3) education literature of teaching (Wei, 2017). Within this model, the native language (L1) is not used at all or is reduced, so that pupils are fully immersed in the target language, a method dismissed by Butzkamm and Caldwell as “the sunburn model of language learning,” (2009, p. 51); the two languages (L1 and L2) therefore exist in “two solitudes” (Cummins, 2008, p. 65). It could be said that this is the legacy of the direct method of language learning where the learning process mimics the way a child acquires L1.

Her Majesty’s Inspectorate (HMI) Estyn endorses the use of the target language or *assessed language*, as it is also known in Wales as a pedagogy in the modern foreign language classroom. Estyn’s 2016 thematic report on modern languages asserts that teachers who use the assessed language as medium of tuition “most effectively ensure that they actively teach the functional language that learners need from the beginning of learners’ language learning.” (Estyn, 2016, p. 15) and yet it could be argued that this pedagogy does not allow learners to make links between the languages they speak and are learning. It may encourage them instead to compartmentalise the languages they speak in “separated sections with solid firewalls between them” (De Groot, 2011, p. 339) whereas bilinguals and multilinguals have the benefit of being able to allow their languages to interact, which in turn enhances the language learning process (Llewellyn Williams and Laugharne, 2014).

There is no doubt that there is much complexity and lack of clarity surrounding the concept of *triple literacy* pedagogy. This can be seen in the fact there is no clear understanding of what *pedagogy* means; in the semantic changes in the term or *métasémie* [metasemy] (Tournier, 1985, p. 221) from a general language focus from 2003 onwards to a more literacy-based one from 2011; and in the morphological changes from ‘triple’ to ‘multilingual’ and the more accurately “plurilingual.” The Teaching School Council’s *Pedagogy Review of Modern foreign languages* (2016, p. 1) led by Ian Bauckham in England was “informed by sources including the research

sector as well as insights from practitioners” and was endorsed by the Association of Language Learning in its 2016 press release, describing it as a “comprehensive review” (ALL, 2016, para. 2). As such, the Teaching School Council’s definition of pedagogy as linking “knowledge and its transmission” (2016, p. 8) is how pedagogy will be defined in this research.

The pedagogic approach in *Making the Link – Language learning 5 – 14* (ACCAC, 2003) is described as a dual language approach where both languages are used interchangeably in the bilingual classroom. This immediately conflicts with the common approach based on “monoglossic ideology” (García & Flores, 2015, p. 242) where arbitrary percentages are allocated to how much of the target language is to be used in lessons. Considerable research has been carried out on bilingual education and on second language acquisition, whereas it has only been in the last two decades that there has been a “rapidly growing interest, internationally, in multilingualism and multilingual literacy” (Martin-Jones Eds et al., 2015, p. 1). For Conteh and Meier (2014, p. 1) this reflects the fact that in the globalised world societies are “increasingly multilingual” which they call the “multilingual turn”. This “multilingual turn” can also be seen in Wales where the early initiatives to encourage triple literacy did not take root but more recently, there has been a renewed interest encouraged by the *Global Futures* (Welsh Government, 2015) plan.

Based on the remit of the original *triple literacy* document, *Making the Link – Language learning 5 – 14* (ACCAC, 2003), this section will consider literature from four pedagogical approaches included in involving “transferring from one language to another (p. 7), features of language including translanguaging, etymology, traditional *parsing*, and language awareness. As the literature for each of these four pedagogical approaches is reviewed, there will be an emphasis initially on the knowledge base behind the approach and then an analysis of the transmission of this knowledge within the classroom. This section will also widen the scope and examine the literature of CLIL - an approach where language is the medium of instruction - to examine whether it could be a potential pedagogy for LLC teaching.

2.3.2.1 Translanguaging

Lewis, Jones and Baker (2012, p. 11) examined potential areas of research in the field of translanguaging and they questioned if the concept “is appropriate in multilingual classrooms where three languages are being utilised?” The term translanguaging was born in Wales from *trawsieithu*, first coined by Cen Williams (Lewis, Jones and Baker, 2012), and refers to a different pedagogic approach in bilingual education of transferring from one language to another, which goes beyond codeswitching (CS). Bullock and Toribio (2009, p. xii) describe CS as “the alternating use of two languages in the same stretch of discourse by a bilingual speaker.” For Lin and Li (2015, p. 470), “CS is analogous to style shifting, which takes place within one and the same language.” As a result, translanguaging uses languages as “resources which can be combined, adapted, juxtaposed or subverted” (English and Marr, 2015, p. 191) to aid the communicative process.

Lewis, Jones and Baker (2012, p. 9) suggest that a “tripartite distinction” is helpful with the areas of distinctiveness covering the classroom, the broadening of the term to include all bilingual communication outside the confines of the classroom and translanguaging at a neural level. The term has not received universal acceptance however, with Edwards (2012) attacking the term for being “a singularly inelegant word” with wider criticisms viewing it as “unnecessary and obfusatory” (English and Marr, 2015, p. 191). The term has evolved since its inception from its root in bilingual education. In the Welsh Government reference guide, *Translanguaging in the classroom* Dr Cen Williams states that he finds it ironic that the term “has developed immensely internationally” (Thomas et al, 2022, p. 6) through the work of Ofelia García and colleagues to now refer to “a method of developing the second language almost from the beginning”. Singleton and Flynn (2022, p. 136) question whether “its polysemy” has “taken it beyond intelligibility?” Cenoz & Gorter (2021) acknowledge both the considerable impact of García and colleagues’ work in the field as well as the controversy that has ensued as their did not take into consideration “learning contexts involving majority-language students in immersion programmes or two-way

programmes” (p. 12). However, it has evolved Cenoz and Gorter (2021) do recognise that translanguaging has considerable influence in bilingual and multilingual education as a pedagogical practice.

Not only can translanguaging be seen as a pedagogy or methodology within bilingual education as “it is possible to alternate and blend language practices for effective learning to take place” (García & Flores, 2015, p. 232). It also has the potential to be a pedagogic approach in “additive trilingualism” (Cenoz & Valencia, 1994, p. 195) which describes “the influence of bilingualism on third language learning in a bilingual setting” (ibid) and by extension a modern foreign languages classroom in Wales. It is interesting to note that the Welsh Government guidance publication *Translanguaging in the classroom* (Thomas et al., 2022) provides no mention of international languages, situating it as a pedagogy for the bilingual, Welsh and English classroom. Singleton and Flynn (2022) would concur with this viewpoint as “target language proficiency needs to be assessed in some meaningful way and is not likely to include translanguaging strategies” (p. 141). However, the international languages classroom could adopt a translanguaging approach and turn this abstract concept into practical tasks, for example, where pupils could work on translating three languages simultaneously, using their knowledge of one language to inform the others. For Nagy (2018), whilst translanguaging might be a “relatively new approach to language teaching” (p. 42) in the modern foreign language classroom, it is a practice “that allows language learners to use all their linguistic skills, experience, and competences acquired in L1 as well as other languages for meaning-making purposes”. Furthermore, in the LLC curriculum guidance, by not specifying that translanguaging only refers to Welsh and English, it opens the possibility of it being used across the three languages.

The academic literature in the field of translanguaging has reflected the development of the term from Cen Williams’ *trawsieithu* (translanguaging), which described practices in bilingual education to one which has a distinctly multilingual remit. MacSwan (2017) asserts that translanguaging research has made “important

contributions to our conception of bilingual language policy and practice” but acknowledges that “as a pedagogical approach, translanguaging emphasizes the dynamic use of multiple languages” (p. 191), pointing to its potential in multilingual classrooms. In Friesland, for example, translanguaging is a popular pedagogical practice because it includes “all of the pupils’ language repertoires since these are seen as resources that can contribute to the learning process” (Makarova et al., 2021, p. 2). This has been further cemented in Wales where translanguaging appears in the Description of Learning, Progression Step 5 for the first *What Matters* statement, *Languages connect us*: “I can independently identify translanguaging opportunities to enhance my learning and communication in my languages” (Welsh Government, 2021). However, teachers in Friesland also are aware that the “alternation between languages in regional minority contexts may be damaging to the minority language” (Makarova et al., 2021, p. 16).

Even though the term *translanguaging* is included in the LLC AoLE guidance, it will be a difficult concept to understand and subsequently deliver for all LLC teachers to a different extent, depending on language capability. To be successful, translanguaging would require a teacher to be cognisant of the different languages being used. This would suggest that a different approach might be needed in Initial Teacher Education to train language teachers in translanguaging techniques, working across as opposed to within languages. However, it offers the possibility of promoting all languages used in a classroom. Leonet et al. (2017), for example, highlight that in the BAC, translanguaging as a pedagogical intervention “also aimed at contributing to the maintenance and revitalization of Basque” (p. 223)

In the example used to explain inspiration for this research – a French lesson where a student teacher was struggling to teach French adjectival rules, pedagogical translanguaging might have helped pupils understand the grammatical concept. Translanguaging has a potential “scaffolding function offering temporary bridges between languages which allow pupils to build links” (Duarte, 2020, p. 243) and in the example mentioned, it could have allowed pupils to build on their prior knowledge (Cenoz and Gorter, 2022) of Welsh. *Scaffolding* is a metaphor used in education to

describe “temporary adaptive support” in learning which is often erroneously attributed to Vygotsky (Shvarts & Bakker, 2019, p. 5). Bruner’s use of the word *scaffolding* (1978) builds on Vygotsky’s concept of the *Zone of Proximal Development*, the zone where learners can move beyond their present level of comprehension through social interaction. *Scaffolding* for Bruner “reduces the degrees of freedom with which the child has to cope” (Bruner, 1978, p. 254) and in this case, pupils could have been guided to use their knowledge of Welsh thereby reducing the “degrees of freedom” emerging from the teaching of new material and allowing learners “to use their resources as multilingual speakers” (Cenoz and Gorter, 2021, p. 22). For Cenoz and Gorter (2021) it is important to activate this prior knowledge, in this case through making the links between French and Welsh grammar explicit so that learners can develop initially their wider metalinguistic awareness as well as a narrower focus on their crosslinguistic awareness, which Angelovska et al. (2014) identify as the practice of “establishing similarities and differences among the languages in one’s multilingual mind” (p. 187).

2.3.2.2 Etymology

For Gorrara (2018) the LLC AoLE provides “a real opportunity language teaching and pedagogy, developing “triple literacy” as Welsh, English and international languages come together” (p. 147) Etymology is one such potential pedagogy for developing triple literacy. For Durkin (2011) etymology is part of the field of linguistic research as it helps us understand how languages have changed over time. It helps us gain insights on individual words and its study is inexorably linked with both phonology and morphology. In the AoLE guidance, *etymology* is defined as “the origin and history of a word or words” (Welsh Government, 2021a, descriptions of learning) and it appears in Progression Step 4: “I can use my knowledge of language evolution and *etymology* to deepen my understanding of language construction” and Progression Step 5: “Through exploring the process of language evolution and *etymology*, I can improve my knowledge of language construction”.

For Myatt (2018) etymology is the key which “unlocks the territory of the domain” so that pupils “have access and master deep subject knowledge” (p. 96). Myatt clarifies that etymological work is important because key subject words are conceptual in nature and the use of conceptual vocabulary can support learners in committing this knowledge to long term memory. Durkin (2011) breaks etymology down into “the linear history of words” (p. 3) which helps us contextualise historically a single word; changes in word form and meaning; borrowing of words from language to language; the relationship of languages from a language family viewpoint and cognates.

Smith and Conti (2021) define cognates as words “which mean, sound and look similar across two languages” (p. 46) and these can be more easily remembered when spoken aloud as part of a person’s phonological working memory or phonological loop (ibid). Muñoz (2020) breaks cognates down into three categories: words that are “phonologically similar and orthographically identical”, those that are “phonologically similar and orthographically different” and “false cognates” (p. 146) which share similarity “but are not related in meaning”. Muñoz (2020) points to the emphasis on target language teaching in modern language teaching for “the relative neglect of cognates” p. 146) in the classroom. Cognates are extremely useful for multilingual learners as the “cognate facilitation effect” (p. 147) is well documented in bilingual studies although this is still an emerging field in TLA.

Laugharne (2006) states that a *triple literacy* approach “focuses on single words or grammatical forms in three languages and particularly the written form” (p. 64) and, in many ways, this is an accurate description of how triple literacy has been taught in schools to date. As part of the 2011 *triple literacy* policy, for example, schools in Wales were provided with *triple literacy* posters, which categorised single words or grammatical forms in three columns, one in each language. Whilst for Laugharne (2005) the fact that “single words” or “grammatical forms” (p. 64) were the focus was seen as negative, there is scope for using this information in the context of textual analysis. It should be noted that for the Teaching School Council (2016) “we cannot understand language, or express ourselves in it, without words” (p. 9) and “weak

vocabulary teaching is a major part of the low standards achieved by many British pupils” (ibid). For Leonet et al. (2020) learners should be encouraged to identify similarities between languages “so as to benefit from their linguistic repertoire by becoming increasingly aware of the relationships between new words in the target language and the words they already know” (p. 56). For Boers (2021) it is important to recognise that grammar and vocabulary cannot “be divorced from another” (p. 4) as knowledge of a word is more than knowing just its phonology or orthography. He clarifies that words are grammatically “meaningful in their own right” (p. 5) and considers them part of “a large inventory of form-related relations” (p. 7) as they give us considerable information on their own or as part of a sentence. It is also important to recognise that there is “a significant word gap” (Myatt, 2018, p. 31) between pupils from advantaged and disadvantaged backgrounds and whilst this is an on-going challenge, “the minute they come into our classrooms” something can be done to attempt to address this imbalance. Using etymology which operates at a word level could be a way of building up more confident language learners and supporting disadvantaged learners. However, it should be noted that etymology cannot be divorced from morphology or phonology, even though neither of these is mentioned in the AoLE guidance. Furthermore, learning languages necessitates “the acquisition of morphological units that enable the fluent use of words in different grammatical contexts” (Kimppe et al., 2019, p. 74) and an understanding of the language’s sound system (phonology)” (Smith & Conti, 2021, p. 4).

Not only could etymology help learners increase their lexical knowledge in their L1, but it could also potentially encourage learners to “recognise similarities between languages and to embrace the differences between them” (Welsh Government, 2022b, statements of What Matters). The AoLE guidance suggests that this can help creativity in language use, increase learners’ empathy to different languages and cultures and support *mediation* which it defines as the activity of communicating meaning from one source to another, for example in translating or interpreting (ibid). The term *mediation* was first introduced by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the Learning, Teaching and Assessment view mediation as “a social and cultural process” (CEFR, 2020, p. 91) requiring empathy and emotional intelligence from the person who is communicating. In oral communication, mediation

requires “diplomacy, negotiation, pedagogy and dispute resolution” whereas in written mediation, translators must overcome “linguistic, cultural, semantic or technical barriers” to convey meaning (p. 91).

2.3.2.3 Traditional *parsing*

One way to maximise the benefit of focussing on “single words or grammatical form” (Laugharne, 2006, p. 64) would be to return to traditional *parsing* in language teaching, which differs from *discourse parsing* which is part of natural language processing (NLP), an interdisciplinary field of linguistics, computer science and artificial intelligence. However, Feng and Hirst’s (2012) acknowledgement that “in a well-written text, no unit of the text is completely isolated” (p. 60) in reference to *discourse parsing* could be a useful way of developing an understand of how language works in traditional *parsing*. *Parsing* comes from the Latin *pars/partis* [a part] and describes the breaking down of a sentence into its constituent parts. It was a feature of language teaching until the 1960s where it grew out of favour for promoting “old-fashioned descriptions of language based on Latin grammatical categories” and was seen as being “a source of frustration and boredom for both students and teachers” (McArthur, 1992, p. 751). However, this might be symptomatic of a lack of pedagogy behind this approach, so that there was a knowledge of the constituent parts of a sentence on the part of the teacher but not enough understanding of how best to transmit this information to learners.

Parsing or top-down processing is facilitated by using our schema or knowledge from our long-term memory (Smith & Conti, 2016, Cook, 2008). *Parsing* is defined as applying a rule to a group of words although it should be noted that “it is not quite so straightforward” as once parsing happens the groups of words gain meaning (Field, 2014, p. 23). Rather than the more traditional method of bottom-up *parsing*, where we build up a sentence bit by bit, top-down *parsing* allows us to break down the sentence into smaller parts and with our schema we can build on the patterns pupils already know and can make explicit language knowledge and strategies which can help pupils with their future study of other languages (Cook, 2008, Ellis, 2005). It could also be

used as a scaffold for different vocabulary and different contexts. In the LLC documentation, there is a clear emphasis on the main elements of *parsing* – word functions and syntax (Welsh Government, 2022c, descriptions of learning).

D'Angelo & Sorace (2022) assert that to gain metalinguistic awareness (MLA), “it is required for learners to focus on grammatical form, i.e., to break down languages into its constituent parts” (p. 3563). Once learners have this MLA, they can then transfer it to other languages. In terms of practical applications, *parsing* could support pupils’ translation work, a key component of the new modern foreign language WJEC GCSE specification (2016), respond to the literacy focus of the English and Welsh Programmes of Study Key Stages 2-4 (2016) and could also develop pupils’ understanding “across languages” (Welsh Government, 2011, p. 7). This links to *What Matters* Statement 1, Progression Step 5 and is aligned with etymology: “I can use my knowledge of language evolution and *etymology* to deepen my understanding of language construction” (Welsh Government, 2022c, descriptions of learning).

An area of contention about using a *parsing* approach might be learners’ aptitude for language learning although this contradicts the inclusive nature of the Welsh education system. Peter Green’s York Aptitude Test (Green, 1975) was used in grammar schools to select pupils to form truly mixed ability groupings. It used Swedish as part of the test to encourage pupils to identify grammatical patterns but identified those with an aptitude for language learning. In a comparable way, Hawkins (1999) specified that for more able learners, learning a foreign language “can open conceptual doors” (p. 134). For less able pupils, Hawkins (1987) acknowledged that learning a foreign language can still provide an understanding of the mother tongue and provide a “neutral medium in which to rehearse basic concepts” (p. 46) such as time, days of the week and numeracy.

Learner motivation and attitude towards language learning might also have an impact on how relevant *triple literacy* pedagogies are to pupils. Therefore, the shaping of a

pedagogy, which allows links to be made between languages should acknowledge that techniques might need to be adapted or differentiated to be inclusive of all learners. It is also important to note that many factors influence how we interpret grammatical forms of language including the context, intonation and even embodied cultural knowledge from our “schema”, or the understanding we already bring to our analysis or from “scripts”, what we expect from different situations (Shaules, 2015, p. 12).

This return to traditional *parsing* reflects the body of literature within second language acquisition (SLA) regarding form-focused instruction (FFI) which is “sometimes confused with decontextualized grammar teaching” (Ranta & Lyster, 2022, p. 40) but “involves some attempt to focus learners’ attention on specific properties of the L2 so that they will learn them” (Ellis, 2008, p. 963). Ranta and Lyster (2022) view it as more akin to communicative and context-based teaching. They view listening, for example, as a grammar practice technique with the decoding involved in listening acting as grammatical decoding where a listener makes sense of syntax. If this approach of listening as a grammar practice technique were to be adopted in *triple literacy* pedagogy, it would widen Laugharne’s assertion (2006) that *triple literacy* only concerns the written word and would give it more relevance to language learners.

What is important in terms of the transmission of knowledge about features of language is that we teach pupil *metatalk* (cooperative discussion about how they communicate) enabling them to use this language to talk objectively about language. Bouffard and Sarkat, (2008, p. 22) concluded, in their research in teaching explicit metalinguistic analysis in an immersion school context in French-speaking Canada, that pupils “as young as eight are mature enough to attend to form if they are taught how to”. There is also a need for a common grammar terminology across languages to “provide consistency across languages, the opportunities to build on prior knowledge in another language and to reinforce key concepts” (ACAAC, 2003, p. 29).

Building on these features of languages, applied linguist Dr Gianfranco Conti has emerged as a leading voice in modern foreign language teaching (Collen et al., 2021).

He first came into prominence through technology-enhanced learning (TEL) by writing a blog, *The Language Gym*; being active on Twitter and through his involvement in the grass-roots teacher-led research movement, ResearchED. He has co-written some key language teaching books (Smith & Conti, 2016; Conti & Smith, 2019; Smith and Conti, 2021) as well as a series of lexicogrammar textbooks called *Sentence Builders* which were initially published in French, German and Spanish but have now been published in Italian, Chinese, Irish, Malay and, most importantly in the context of this research, Welsh. *Lexicogrammar* “suggests that the traditional split between grammar and vocabulary is not as clear cut as commonly thought.” (Conti & Smith, 2019, p. 100).

Conti has developed an approach called EPI (Extensive Processing Instruction) which recycles extensively target language chunks of language through sentence builders and narrow reading and listening activities which focus learners’ attention on a small chunk of authentic language (Smith & Conti, 2021) rather than single words “as it is more economic in terms of cognitive load, particularly for beginner to intermediate learners’ (Collen et al., 2021: 18). For Wallman, (2021) given this method’s “emphasis on reducing cognitive overload” (para. 4), it “is likely to succeed in allowing students to feel like competent learners.” Similarly, in *Language Trends Wales 2021* Collen et al. (2021) states that many teachers have been using EPI with one commenting: “Pupils are responding well, and we can see that their learning is improving. We are hoping that this will have an impact on their option choices next year” (p. 18) and another: “We are increasingly following the Conti approach to language learning at Key Stage 3” (p. 24).

Conti has also created a framework (Conti & Smith, 2019) which supports the planning of a lexicogrammar curriculum and is “neither topic nor grammar-driven” (p. 175) with topic areas being chosen for their suitability in teaching the function of language under focus. Thus, grammar and lexis are selected to “serve communication” and language learning requires learning “to perform real world communicative tasks through a range of high frequency L2 chunks and constructions” (Conti, 2018, introduction). Whilst Conti’s “mantra of ‘less is more’” has attracted some criticism

“for demotivating pupils by limiting both their vocabulary and cultural knowledge” (Wallman, 2021, para. 4), it seems to have had resonance for language teachers in Wales as they build their new LLC curriculum.

2.3.2.4 Language Awareness

Under the then Minister of Education, Margaret Thatcher, the Bullock Report (Department of Education and Science, 1975) was commissioned in response to extremely poor literacy levels of English in UK Schools. The report considered to be a landmark in understanding the role of literacy across the curriculum and yet, it made no mention of the valuable role that learning a foreign language could have on a pupil’s literacy levels in English. Priority was given, in response to this report, to the creation of a standard language variety, which in turn created “linguistic prejudices and snobberies” (Hawkins 1999, p. 128). Hawkins (1999) was one of the proponents of the language awareness (LA) movement and he put forward the view that learning a foreign language also helps children to be aware of their own language and of cultural stereotypes.

Cultural awareness came into prominence when it became part of the National Curriculum for England and Wales in 1991. Since 2008, the National Curriculum for Wales has focussed on *intercultural understanding* as part of the Programme of Study in modern foreign languages. This encourages learners to compare cultures but also have an appreciation and celebration of cultural differences. There is also an emphasis on developing pupils’ “sensitivity towards different peoples, their customs, values and perspectives” (Welsh Government, 2008, p. 14). For Byram (2008), this cultural awareness or intercultural understanding is inexorably linked with language awareness. For this reason, he advocated the use of L1 in the language classroom as well as the target language so that pupils could develop an awareness of both language and culture. Language awareness has almost disappeared from the UK curriculum, as there has been a belief that it interferes with the language learning process (Morgan & Cain, 2000) and cultural awareness is rarely given prominence. Not only this but

according to Morgan and Cain (2000) there is also a lack of appreciation of “plurality within cultures” (p. 26) in language teaching in the UK.

Whereas LA has disappeared in language teaching in the UK, other countries have built on the approach. French and French-speaking Canadian educators consider language awareness to be an *éveil aux langues* [an awakening to languages]. This movement grew in France and Canada based on Hawkins’ approach, showing how the development of metalinguistic skills supported both mother tongue development and foreign language acquisition. Dagenais et al., (2007) acknowledge the importance of “*engager les élèves dans des discussions poussées sur la diversité linguistique*” [engaging pupils in discussions focussed on linguistic diversity] (p. 200). They also focus on importance of creating a community of learners who have recourse to a wider repertoire of languages than those studied in school.

In Switzerland in the 1990s, there was a growing interest in developing pupils’ attitudes to language learning with the or EOLE (*l’Eveil au Langage et l’Ouverture aux Langues*) [Awakening to Languages/Opening to Languages] movement. By adopting EOLE approaches, it was felt that schools were contributing to the paradigm shift from the traditional monolingual approach, where languages are compartmentalised to a more plurilingual approach. However, Makoni and Pennycook (2015) argue that we need “more sophisticated models” (p. 439) and not ones which replace monolingualism with multilingualism, suggesting that in many cases *multilingual* or *plurilingual* refers to “plural monolingualism” (p. 444).

Between the period, 1997 – 2001, the *Evlang* (L’éveil aux langues à l’école primaire) project was set up by Michel Candelier (2016) and backed by the European Union as part of the Socrates/Lingua programme. This project aimed to awaken cultural and linguistic diversity and increase the motivation to learn a foreign language. As part of the project the thirty *Evlang* tasks (Masats, 2001) designed by the researchers were given to pupils aged between the ages of 10 and 12 in 150 participating classrooms.

The research was mixed methods in its design and aimed to validate a series of hypotheses, which were based on language aptitude, attitudes towards language learning and language teaching methodology. The quantitative evaluation of the project revealed that there was a positive impact on pupils' aptitude and attitudes to language learning; particularly in their attitudes towards diversity and "their receptiveness to the unfamiliar" (Candelier et al., 2004, p. 29). Teachers supported the results believing that this awakening to languages could support the metalinguistic aptitudes of pupils as well encouraging as their interest in learning a foreign language and their openness to difference (ibid).

In 2002 a project in Quebec developed the work of *Evlang* and created *ELODiL -Éveil aux langues et à la diversité linguistique* [Awakening to languages and linguistic diversity] which linked language learning to citizenship and social cohesion. *ELODiL* describes itself as teaching in a *pluriethnic* and *plurilingual* environment closely aligning language learning to culture and citizenship. This suggests that language learning has more impact than just learning the language in question: the act of learning a modern foreign language can also teach pupils about operating in a new cultural context and their role as citizens and members of a diverse society. This project was innovative because within Europe at this time, language policies concentrated more on developing language competences. However, by September 2015 in the European Commission, there was a move towards developing pupils' language learning skills. According to Gutierrez and Saville (2017) the European Union and the Council of Europe do not see languages as in an educational context but as "transversal skill with relevance to many objectives, such as social integration, employment, mobility or minority rights" (p. 6).

This emphasis on citizenship is obvious in all these initiatives. For Byram (2010) language teaching can be enhanced by "attention to the linguistic competence needed in social action and intercultural citizenship" (p. 320). Byram further states that we should learn from the practice of bilingualism in Wales and focus not just on form but also on content in language learning, and, moreover, this content should embrace

citizenship as an ideal. As part of the *Council of Europe's European Centre for Modern Languages* (ECML) programme, between 2004–2007, projects were grouped around the theme of *Languages for social cohesion – language education in a multilingual and multicultural Europe*. All projects have a common *plurilingual* aim of “creating synergies between different linguistic and educational cultures and communities” (Slivensky et al., 2008, p. 436).

It should be noted, however, that LA has “a supportive but subordinate role” (Kelly, 2019, p. 45) to language learning and inherent in any LA approach is “the danger of tokenism” (Hélot, 2015, p. 223) where activities might be superficial. Rather than the separate subject idea of Hawkins, many educators have perceived LA as a cross-curricular approach. Cummins et al. (2006) argue that we should focus on developing pedagogies in multiliteracy, which support pupils’ home languages by creating “interpersonal spaces” within the classroom which allow pupils to create “identity texts” (p. 53) negotiating their own identity in society. For Makarova et al. (2021), LA approaches can encourage pupils to develop a positive attitude towards language learning as well as giving them a better grammatical understanding of languages and an appreciation of minority languages. For Hélot et al., (2018) LA is not about imparting knowledge but about engaging “students in a process of reflective enquiry on their own language practices in and out of school” (p. 1).

Finland has adopted what they call a *language-aware approach* which concentrates on bridging between pupils’ language and subject-specific language (Forsman, 2021) with one of the techniques encouraging teachers to “think aloud with students” (p. 19) so that they draw learners’ attention to language. By directing pupils to notice “similarities between languages and language structures” it can “serve as an interlinked strategy sparking curiosity towards learning new languages” (p. 19). Forsman (2021) stresses that this type of teaching does not necessarily accelerate language learning as the teacher might need to develop his or her own language awareness first.

In 1974, Hawkins proposed that a new subject, *language* (1974) be taught, linking the foreign language and English. Within the context of Wales, this *language* would inevitably have to link to Welsh and would have to include different levels of English and Welsh depending on the individual's mother tongue. On the other hand, rather than this concept of *language*, it might be more effective to adopt the approach adopted in the *ELODiL* and include more languages than the ones studied in school which ties in with *What Matters* statement 1, Progression Step 5: "I can show an open attitude towards learning about different languages and the different cultures of Wales and the world" (Welsh Government, 2022c, descriptions of learning). This approach is considered *plurilingual* based on the distinction discussed previously. Plurilingualism can allow for "the interaction and mutual influence of the languages in a more dynamic way" (Canagarajah and Liyanage, 2015, p. 50). LA, in the context of plurilingualism is "conceptualized as a way to question language(s) at both the individual and societal levels" (Hélot, 2018, p. 6). Within plurilingualism is the understanding that not all languages need to be studied to the same degree and these languages form part of an individual's repertoire (Jaffe, 2015, p. 88) which is not static and can develop through a person's lifespan and can offer "the wider cognitive and cultural benefits that enhanced language awareness can bring." (Kelly, 2019, p. 52). In CfW, LA has the potential to support the "affective and social development of learners engaged in language education at school" (Sierens et al., 2018, p. 77). To improve "cognitive skills and metalinguistic sensitivity in pupils" (p. 78), however, a much longer-term programme of LA would be needed.

2.3.2.5 CLIL: a potential pedagogy for making links between languages

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is an integrated pedagogy where a subject is taught through the medium of another language, with pupils learning both the content and the language. It should be noted that, whilst it is considered a separate pedagogic practice, translanguaging can also take place during CLIL programmes (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021) although the two differ in that in translanguaging "the focus is less on presenting the exact content" (Thomas et al., 2022, p. 12). As it covers many different approaches, CLIL is considered an "umbrella term" (Mehisto et al., 2009, p.

12). For Coyle (2008) CLIL pedagogy differs from immersion or bilingual teaching in that it uses language as a medium to teach content. With this pedagogy it is important to recognise that “language teachers in CLIL programmes play a unique role” (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 11) as they must support those teachers who deliver content by ensuring their students have the required language competence. It also relies on subject teachers “fostering language development through scaffolding” as this is one of the “maxims of CLIL pedagogies” (Gabillon, 2020, p. 98). Mehisto et al. (2008) consider that CLIL is a flexible pedagogy, as it allows various levels of exposure to the second or third language. What is less obvious is whether the content being taught has an impact on linguistic gains on the learner. Whilst Goris et al. (2019) question whether subjects that necessitate more cognitively complex explanations like mathematics would have more of an impact on learners than history, their study found “no indications that the target language of some subjects’ content affects EFL skills more than or differently from others” (p. 694).

What is interesting in terms of *triple literacy* pedagogy is that CLIL can be used for short bursts of exposure, which would fit well with translanguaging within the classroom environment where two languages (L1 and L2) are used interchangeably. In CLIL it is important to note that “the primary focus is on substance (content) as opposed to form” (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 30). In terms of transmission of content, the authors see the main strategies for “making CLIL come alive” as “connectivity, making meanings matter and learner self-management” (p. 172).

For García and Flores (2015), CLIL’s popularity as pedagogy in Europe “responds to the increased multilingualism of the world, and especially of the European Union” (p. 236). García and Flores assert that it takes up less time on the curriculum and liken it to a mixture of immersion and second language pedagogies. For Juan-Garau and Lyster (2018), not only does CLIL offer the benefits of “additive bilingualism” it also complements language learning owing to the “increased exposure to and engagement with the target language” (p. 213). It should be noted that in the literature of CLIL, there is a variation in terminology used so much so that Snow (1991) defined content-

based instruction, the North American counterpart of CLIL, as a “method with many faces (p. 461). Smith and Conti (2016) suggest that the CLIL approach is exactly what modern foreign language teachers use when they teach topics at advanced level. However, for Gardner (2015) CLIL is “much more of a bilingual enterprise and much less a bi-cultural initiative” (p. 255).

The literature of CLIL reflects the wide variety of programmes available and this variety derives from the different contexts (whether the learners are monolingual, bilingual, or multilingual) and what status the CLIL language has for the learner (whether it is their L2 or L3). There has been considerable research on the benefits of CLIL and for Dalton-Puffer (2007), her research suggests that there is clear evidence that CLIL classes stretch learners’ vocabulary development and not just their content knowledge. Furthermore, Whittaker & McCabe et al. (2020) carried out a longitudinal study of CLIL history students in Spain and discovered that not only did students develop their knowledge of history, but they also improved their historical writing skills in English. As a pedagogy, CLIL could be seen as having a holistic approach to language learning in that pupils gain content knowledge but also language knowledge and skills which can support them in future life (Mehisto et al., 2008). For these authors, CLIL is “a value-added, as opposed to a subtractive approach” (p. 27) that will enrich the learning process and Collen et al. (2021) cite CLIL teaching Finland as being successful “working across subjects” (p. 29) with an immersion technique pioneered in early years settings in Jyväskylä called *Kielisuihkussa* [language showering] where pupils are exposed to localised showering of target language that is built up little by little and is supported by context.

To summarise this section on the literature of existing and potential triple literacy pedagogies, there are opportunities being missed in the teaching of languages in Wales to improve pupils’ literacy across all languages through some of the transmission strategies outlined. The Schools Teaching Council (2016) identifies the key role of Initial Teacher Education in establishing pedagogy. This researcher would concur with this viewpoint. It is important that student teachers have a research and literature-

based understanding of pedagogy and are taught how to transmit this knowledge through ways, which will engage and motivate young learners. In the context of this research, it is encouraging to note that Collen et al. (2021) report that many language teachers “have been focussing on their pedagogy” and “are thinking more deeply about how children learn languages” (p. 24).

2.3.2.6 Exploring the lack of pedagogical links between languages.

Even though the links between Welsh, English and the International Language are not necessarily obvious, it could be argued that identifying the lack of links is just as beneficial to pupils as making them aware of plausible links. Providing the lack of a link is made explicit this could be seen as an opportunity for the pupil where “the potential strangeness in one’s own language when seen from another’s perspective” (English and Marr, 2015, p. 80) can be recognised and appreciated. Pountain (2021) maintains that “a contrastive account of the target language and the native language is often illuminating” (p. 68) and suggest that teachers should insist upon learners looking “outwards, to other languages”. It is from this appreciation of “strangeness” that pupils can become aware of difference, encouraging them to understand the “intercultural benefit” (Pountain, 2021, p. 68) of languages which could, in turn, support the acquisition of a third language.

Even understanding how language skills vary between the three languages could be a potential opportunity. In terms of reading English, according to Halliday and Hasan, (1976) a speaker of English will be able to discern the difference between a text and a set of unrelated sentences through the surface cohesive ties or grammatical features which help to connect a text together. Not only that, but a competent reader will also only be able to see a text as a “coherent discourse” (Blum-Kulka, 2004, p. 304) if he or she is able to apply relevant schemas to be able to infer meaning (ibid). It is unlikely that a pupil learning Welsh as a second language or a modern foreign language as a third language would have the same schema or discernment to recognise the cohesion and coherence in a text in Welsh or in French, German, or Spanish. However,

encouraging pupils to understand the importance in cohesion and coherence in textual analysis in English as their L1 could support them in the challenge of understanding texts in Welsh or the modern foreign language.

Traditionally, in English teaching, the decontextualized teaching of grammar, where word classes and syntactical structures are identified and labelled is not considered helpful, added to the lack of evidence-base to support the “assertion that learning progresses chronologically from learning a grammatical concept to being able to apply it” (Myhill & Watson, 2014, p. 44). However, as addressed earlier a focus on form through deductive or inductive methods of teaching grammar is a key component of second and third language teaching. In whichever way grammar is addressed in the different language classes, it has an important function in language learning. It would appear then that, providing that the teachers are confident in explaining grammar, by drawing their pupils’ attention through an “exploratory and rhetorical approach” they can help improve pupils’ metalinguistic understanding and improve their own writing (Myhill & Watson, 2014, pp. 50-1).

2.4 Chapter Summary

In conclusion, this chapter set out the process of curriculum development in Wales before adopting a *multilingual* lens to examine the research base in multilingualism including language policy and planning, evaluating the context of a trilingual approach in a country like Wales, the cognitive benefits of bilingualism before a more detailed analysis of the literature from the field of SLA and TLA, as well as the sub-field of crosslinguistic influence. This chapter also explored the pedagogy of making links between languages and even the possibility of exploiting the lack of links.

This chapter has examined the ecological levels of this research’s conceptual framework from the societal influence of literature examined and Welsh Government legislation to the influence of the regional consortia, from school’s influence on curriculum design to the interpersonal opportunities for collaboration and the

intrapersonal level where LLC teachers are developing their knowledge and skills of new pedagogy. Within the context of the considerable diversity in language methodology, there is little wonder that there is no clear-cut pedagogy for dealing with the pedagogy of making links between languages and the shared literacies between Welsh, English and the modern foreign language in Wales in what could be seen as an “opaque, though potentially highly fruitful, area for learning and teaching” (Laugharne, 2015, p. 246). Furthermore, there are mixed messages on input, output and concentration on form. For Canagarajah (2007) it is not a case of ignoring the “dominant constructs” of form but instead conceiving of a multilingual education that is “multimodal, multisensory, multilateral, and, therefore, multidimensional” (p. 923) which redefines the previous constructs as “hybrid, fluid, and situated in a more socially embedded, ecologically sensitive, and interactionally open model” (ibid). Thus, language learning becomes “a dynamic continuum or repertoire through which learners navigate their multiple languages selves in the classroom” (Gorrara, 2020, p. 251). The chapter has examined what could be seen as the ecology of language learning and pedagogy and the different spheres of influence and levels which will inform and impact on the delivery of the LLC.

Even though the official LLC AoLE guidance states that “different languages should be explored in relation to one another” (Welsh Government, 2021c, para. 2) the main challenge is that “how to approach multilingual literacy remains ill-defined” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 251). The LLC AoLE offers opportunities to “rethink how modern foreign languages are taught and valued” but also to “embed a holistic approach to language learning” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 245) that would benefit all languages taught. This focus on diversity of languages links to *What Matters* statement 1, Progression step 5: “I have a positive disposition towards different accents and dialects and embrace language diversity” (Welsh Government, 2023a, descriptions of learning). Not only this but Bak and Mehmedbegovic (2017) posit that language diversity as part of a “healthy linguistic diet” can promote a “healthy natural environment” which “resonates equally well with the current medical and neuroscientific debates about healthy lifestyle and particularly healthy ageing” (p. 5). It could be said therefore that a multilingual approach can “reinvigorate a younger

learner's connection to languages by making them more dynamic and relevant to our globalised world" (Jenkins, 2020, para. 5). Furthermore, the Welsh Government guidance (Welsh Government, 2022a) states that "Languages connect us with people, places and communities" as well as equipping "learners, as citizens of a bilingual Wales in a multilingual world, with the ability to use Welsh, English and other languages in a plurilingual context" (para. 1) which highlights that there is 'social capital' as well as "linguistic capital" in learning languages (Norton, 2018, p. 40).

If we root the pedagogy of making links between languages in pupils' knowledge of Welsh and English, it could potentially aid pupils in their language learning and would support the Welsh Government's ambition of creating a "Bilingual plus 1' nation" (Welsh Government, 2015c, p. 2). If we were to make "better, more joined up use" (Welsh Government, 2015b, para. 16) of the bilingualism in Wales, there would be a strengthening of the links between departments, and which might help to break down these "solitudes." The multilingual focus of CfW could be considered as a "burden, posing challenges particularly to the education system" (Bak & Mehmedbegovic, 2017, p. 1) but it can move Wales from a national "deeply ingrained monolingual mindset" (Gorrara, 2018, p. 149) with "siloed monolingual teaching" (Gorrara, 2020, p. 254) and has the potential to "activate a "dynamic" approach to language learning" (ibid). What forms an interesting backdrop is that there has been a shift in bilingual pedagogy away from the immersion approach towards a more dynamic model "that builds bridges instead of walls" (Ballinger 2015, p. 37) between languages. It is this drive to find a pedagogy that is principled, without being eclectic, which serves both bilingual and SLA pedagogy and which "builds bridges" between Welsh, English and the modern foreign language encouraging multi-directional crosslinguistic influence, which will be at the heart of this research. It should also be acknowledged that each of the three languages can "illuminate each other" (Kohn, 2019, p. 215) providing that we do not encourage individual languages in Wales to "outshine each other" (ibid).

This review of the literature concerned with the pedagogy of making links between languages has helped formulate research questions. The design of any research enquiry is governed by these research questions, which should be at the core of all the decisions made in the process. Creswell (2014) posits that the focus should initially be on identifying a “research problem” (p. 72) which provides the rationale for the research before narrowing the focus into asking specific questions. The “research problem” here concerns the LLC AoLE. As part of this AoLE, international language, Welsh and English teachers will have to work together, many of them for the first time, to find links between their languages and are all tasked with delivering content which may be unfamiliar. It is this unfamiliarity and uncertainty in delivering elements of the What Matters statements, which could be seen as problematic.

The research questions focus on teachers’ perceptions of the interdisciplinary challenges of the LLC which have been shaped by the different status of each language as well as previous triple literacy initiatives. The challenges that LLC teachers face in Wales are seen in other countries which have a trilingual repertoire. However, considering the benefits of learning multiple languages might overcome these challenges as well as different and more focussed teacher education. Of the four What Matters statements, the first – *Languages connect us* is potentially the most challenging and it is important to ascertain teachers’ confidence in delivering the pedagogical practices to address this statement. The research questions are as follows:

1. For teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages, what are their perceptions of the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE?
2. What challenges are teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages facing in delivering the LLC AoLE and how will they overcome these challenges?
3. How confident are teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages in the pedagogical practices needed to teach elements of What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*?

The next chapter will focus on the research design of this study, initially examining the philosophy of educational research design before outlining the research stance taken and the methodology used in this enquiry.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Chapter 3 -Methodology

For Coe et al. (2017) methodology raises the question of “what procedure or logic should be followed?” (p. 16) and this chapter outlines the procedures followed in my research to discover how teachers of English, Welsh and international languages are responding to the interdisciplinary challenges in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE. The chapter is divided into three sections: Part A examines the paradigm which guided me and framed my research, namely pragmatism before presenting research assumptions where I articulate my ontological and epistemological stances which inevitably shaped this work. Part B examines my methodological choice with a rationale for mixed methods research and case study methodology. Part C describes the research design, focussing initially on ethical considerations which underpinned all stages of my research before examining the procedures I followed in my research and how I ensured validity, objectivity and accuracy. Finally, Part D outlines my choice of research methods and tools and explains how data was collected, namely through semi-structured interviews and a survey (questionnaire) and how the subsequent data was analysed.

Supporting this research is the conceptual framework which examines the spheres of influence on teachers’ perceptions of the LLC AoLE and the 3 research questions:

1. For teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages, what are their perceptions of the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE?
2. What challenges are teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages facing in delivering the LLC AoLE and how will they overcome these challenges?
3. How confident are teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages in the pedagogical practices needed to teach elements of What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*?

3.1 Part A: Theoretical Framing

This section outlines the theoretical framing of this research. Firstly, research paradigms are discussed before I present my paradigmatic stance which is pragmatism. Secondly, research assumptions are addressed before I explain my ontological and epistemological stances which supported my research.

3.1.1 Research paradigms

For Cohen et al. (2018), it is through research that we discover truth. Within social science, however, our goal is not ‘to discover what is true’ but ‘to describe, as accurately as possible, how different people in different contexts have constructed reality and what these people take to be true’ (Given, 2008, p. 592). Education as a social science has many such constructs and could be considered as a contested domain because it assimilates competing truths or views, namely the scientific view as well as the interpretive view (Cohen et al., 2018). These different views or truths have been known as paradigms since Kuhn’s seminal work in 1962. Kuhn (1962) termed the shared viewpoints and understandings in science or “the concrete puzzle solutions which could be seen as exemplars of good science” (Firinci Orman, 2016, p. 47) as paradigms or phases in the research. For Kuhn (1962) “shared paradigms” amongst the community of researchers, in his context the community of theoretical physicists, provide “the source of coherence for normal research traditions” (p. 42) and show that individuals “are committed to the same rules and standards” (p. 11).

A paradigm then not only “embodies the values and beliefs of a group” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 34), but also underpins any research with a philosophy that helps us shape assumptions (Mertens, 2012) which provide a “world view” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 34). For Kumar (2019), the choice of paradigm is not as important as the imperative to adhere to values concerning bias and objectivity. Furthermore, it is important to state that a paradigm is not the driver of the research, but it is the over-arching purpose of the research, which should control what happens (Cohen et al., 2018). The notion

of incommensurability, which is used to describe paradigms, would suggest that there is no overlap between these differing worldviews. Cohen et al. (ibid), however, posit that the notion of there not being an overlap helps to perpetuate the “paradigm wars” portrayed in Gage’s historical sketch (1989) and that, in fact, social science as a whole and education are “marked by paradigmatic pluralism” (Cohen et al., 2018). For Pring (2015), the “warring philosophical traditions” (p. 59) pose a danger as researchers could have polarised views regarding qualitative and quantitative research which present a “false dualism” (p. 61). These polarising views see quantitative research at one extreme as only relevant to the physical world and not applicable to personal and social situations and, at the other extreme, qualitative research as only being able to be applied to the personal and social and not being quantifiable. Robson and McCartan (2016) state that whilst the polarising views are “undeniably incompatible” (p. 26) this does not mean that the polarising assumptions must be accepted by researchers. The quantitative tradition typically involves quantification and measurement of data and is aligned with a neutral and scientific approach and the positivist paradigm, where it is through direct experience or observation that we gain objective knowledge (Robson and McCartan, 2016). On the other hand, the qualitative tradition is aligned with an interpretivist paradigm which allows “developing insights into people’s beliefs and their lived experiences” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 8).

3.1.2 My paradigmatic position

One of the challenges I faced in researching this theoretical framing is that different writers have differing opinions on classifying what is a paradigm or a research assumption. Whilst I read widely in the field, I have based my decisions for my paradigmatic position on Cohen et al’s (2018) *Research Methods in Education*. By adopting a pragmatic paradigm, outlined below, I assumed a “freedom of choice” (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2018, p. 48) which gave me confidence in these research decisions as part of my research design.

Of the six paradigms Lukenchuk (2013) identifies in her overview of research design: empirical-analytic, pragmatic, interpretive, critical, post-structuralist and

transcendental, the pragmatic one is particularly useful in the context of this research as “its point of influence in educational research, highlights its focus is not simply to know more, but to apply, problem solve and enhance awareness of one’s interaction with the world” (King, 2022, p. 3159). For Morgan (2014), considering pragmatism as a paradigm for research “is not entirely new” (p. 1045) but its reframing as a philosophy to underpin research could be considered as such although it should be noted that the pragmatist philosophy “can be considered as wholly contentious; like a house divided upon itself” (King, 2022, p. 3154). Based on the American philosophical pragmatist tradition of the late 19th century, pragmatism in research owes much to the work of Charles Peirce, William James and John Dewey. Morgan (2014) posits that Dewey’s work, in particular, is “one of the best places to get a sense of both the broad outlines of pragmatism as a philosophy and its orientation to problem solving” (p. 1046). Whilst James first introduced the term *pragmatism* in a lecture in the University of California in Berkley in 1878, it was Peirce’s 1878 essay *How to Make Our Ideas Clear* which outlined his idea of examining “the tangible and practical” (Peirce, 1992, p. 131) in human thought and ideas. For Bacon (2012), it is this belief in “the tangible and practical” which “unites pragmatists” (p. 2). For Dewey (1922) the pragmatic philosophy focused on the individual and shared human experience moving away from a psychological view. He asserted that “because we live in a world in process, the future, although continuous with the past is not its bare repetition” (Dewey, 1929, p. 40) then interpretation of this human experience was key to “uncover social realities in clearer fashion than philosophical approaches” (Kelly & Cordeiro, 2020, p. 2).

One of the main features of pragmatism is its eclectic research design. This aligned with the teaching approach I had adopted during my career of *principled eclecticism*, a term devised by Larsen-Freeman (2000) to “demonstrate a coherent and pluralistic approach to language learning” (Alharbi, 2017, p. 34) with regard the teaching of English as a second language or foreign language (ESL/EFL). Just like pragmatism, it has the potential to be an “ ‘anything goes’ ” approach (Denscombe, 2017, p. 173) but it recognises how diverse learners are and allows teachers to adopt a principled approach towards choosing appropriate pedagogy. For Robson and McCartan (2016) a pragmatic approach to research “seeks a middle ground” (p. 290) where “research

approaches should be mixed in ways that offer the best opportunities for answering important research questions” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 20014, p. 16). The researcher can therefore base decisions on “whatever research method "works" to answer the research questions” as it “opens all methodological choices in front of a researcher” (Maarouf, 2019, p. 5) .

I was heavily influenced by Biesta (2020) in my decision to adopt a pragmatic approach to avoid being “lost in other people’s theories” and to “regain control” (p. 22) of what I wanted theory to do in my research. Biesta (2020) cautions against adopting a particular theoretical framework or prioritising pragmatism as a theory or philosophical position but that a pragmatic approach should be adopted to answer the question “ ‘What is the problem?’ ” or more precisely “ ‘What is the question to which theory is supposed to provide an answer?’ ” (p. 8). This helped me craft the research questions as well as considering literature for Chapter 2. For Biesta (2020), rather than being concerned with paradigms, he focusses instead on the “particular purpose (or purposes) of research” (pp. 14-15, emphasis in original) which he posits is part of a pragmatic approach. In this way, the researcher can select “particular data, a particular design, a particular methodology” (p.15) depending on their research. In my research, the particular purpose was to understand LLC teachers’ perceptions and so, with this in mind, the pragmatic approach I adopted encouraged me to select “particular data, a particular design, a particular methodology” (Biesta, 2020, p. 15) which will be explained in more detail in this chapter. Ultimately, it was the freedom inherent in pragmatism which inspired me to use this approach as I found it opened “the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis” (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2018, p. 48).

3.1.3 Research assumptions

Underpinning any research design are assumptions or theoretical positions, which explain the different stances a researcher takes. These assumptions can be impacted upon by the different “world view” or paradigm adopted by a researcher as the paradigm can “clarify and organize the thinking” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 9); moreover,

these assumptions could be key elements of the paradigm itself (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) so that they are a constant. The challenge arises in what these key assumptions are. Burrell and Morgan (1979) identify four sets of theoretical positions or assumptions: ontological, epistemological, human nature and methodological assumptions. For Lincoln and Guba (1985) each paradigm comprises epistemology, ontology, methodology and axiology. For Coe et al., (2017), you cannot undertake research unless you can clearly articulate epistemology, ontology, and axiology as these will govern the kinds of research you will carry out, the questions you will ask and the methods you use. The methodological choice, then, could be seen as emerging from the debate between epistemology and ontology. Whilst Coe et al.'s (2017) and Burrell and Morgan's (1979) respective stances differ in some details, there are similarities in that beyond the epistemology and ontology debate, both include the human element, whether it be human nature or an individual researcher's values and beliefs (axiology) which could influence research design. For Grix (2018), it is the order of these stances that is important so that we move from ontology to epistemology to methodology before we reach an understanding of the methods to be used.

Ontology could be seen as the starting point of the research journey. The etymology of the word *ontology* reveals that it combines, ὄντος [being or that which is] with -λογία, [logical discourse] so that when we make ontological assumptions, these “concern the very nature or essence of the social phenomena being investigated” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 5). According to Coe et al. (2017), the researcher should start the enquiry process by asking “What is the form and nature of the social world?” (p. 16). The research assumptions are often pictured as part of a continuum. Burrell and Morgan (1979) present the continuum from a subjectivist approach or nominalism to an objectivist one or realism. For Coe et al., (2017) the ontological positions in a continuum range from realism to constructivism so that the stances would vary from having an objective approach to one where there are several realities created by individuals. Within a positivist paradigm, ontology could be seen as “reductionist and deterministic” (Coe et al., 2017, p. 18), whereas for an interpretivist paradigm, ontology has “multiple realities with the mind playing a central role”.

Within models of philosophical research stances (Coe et al., 2017; Cohen et al., 2018,) epistemology is seen as developing out of an ontological stance. An epistemological assumption concerns “how knowledge can be created, acquired and communicated” (Scotland, 2012, p. 9). The etymology of the term reveals its roots in the Ancient [Greek - ἐπιστήμη [science, knowledge] + -λογία [discourse]. Biesta (2020) argues that generating knowledge is one of the main roles of research as this knowledge is the “main vehicle through which research interacts with and seeks to contribute to [educational practice]” (p. 119). For Coe et al., (2017) it is important for the researcher to confront the body of knowledge by asking “how can what is assumed to exist be known?” (p. 16) coupled with an understanding of the extreme epistemological positions of positivism at one end of the continuum and interpretivism on the other.

3.1.4 My theoretical and philosophical position

This section addresses the underpinning theoretical and philosophical stances I adopted. I have based my decisions for my ontological and epistemological stances on *Bryman’s Social Research Methods* (Clark et al., 2021). Ontology requires researchers to take a philosophical research stance and my social constructivist stance is aligned with a relativist position where “reality is individually constructed” (Scotland, 2012, p. 12). I was influenced in my choice of stance by the learning theory that has influenced my teaching, namely a social constructivist one, based primarily on Vygotsky (1978), who believed that knowledge is constructed through social interaction and Piaget (1952), who posited that the emotional, biological and mental stages of development influence an individual’s experiences as well as how they construct knowledge. In research, the social constructivist ontological position “asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors” (Bryman, 2012 p. 33). That these phenomena are “in a constant state of revision” (ibid) allies well with research based on teachers’ perceptions at the time of significant curriculum change in Wales. Not only that but this stance recognises that “meanings are varied and multiple” and relies “as much as possible on the participants’ views of the situation being studied” (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2018, p. 46).

This ontological stance also includes the notion that “researchers’ own accounts of the social world are constructions” (Clark et al., 2021, p. 28). It was this element of the ontological position that I adopted that interested me the most because it concerned my view of curriculum change in Wales and my positionality. At times, I questioned my positionality as a researcher because I still viewed myself as a teacher and I describe the challenges of my research identity trajectory in more detail in Chapter 5. Throughout the research process reflexivity was an important way of self-scrutinising (Berger, 2015) to ensure there was rigour at every stage of the research. Reflexivity is a valuable tool “to sharpen subsequent research practices” (May & Perry, 2014, p. 109). For Olesen (2018), it is part of a feminist interpretation and it “demands steady, uncomfortable assessment about the interpersonal and interstitial knowledge-producing dynamics” (p. 277) of qualitative research. Reflexivity, therefore, is an important mechanism to check that the researcher is being objective and gives credibility and rigour to the research. In reflexive practice, the researcher must describe “the contextual intersecting relationships” (Dodgson, 2019, p. 220) between researcher and participants and the researcher must be transparent in informing the reader of any differences and similarities which I endeavoured to do.

As an epistemological stance concerns “how knowledge can be created, acquired and communicated” (Scotland, 2012, p. 9) and develops from an ontological stance then it follows that my stance is aligned with my ontological position and is an interpretivist one as it “incorporates a number of different perspectives and approaches” (Clark et al., 2021, p. 24) and is subjective in nature, “based on real world phenomena” (Scotland, 2012, p. 11). This concurs with Parsons’ (2018) observation that “many constructivists espouse an interpretivist epistemology” (p. 75). Underpinning interpretivism is a belief that the social world cannot be studied through a positivist approach alone as social science research needs “to reflect the distinctiveness of human consciousness and experience” (ibid). I was particularly drawn to the hermeneutic approach within this epistemology as it “focuses on interaction and language” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 52) and resonates with research on teachers’ perspectives on language. For Parsons (2018), it is this hermeneutic search for meaning which characterises social sciences research as it focusses on “the

meaning of behaviour” and on “*understanding, rather than explanation*” (Marsh et al., 2018, p. 184, emphasis in original).

Moreover, within an interpretivist epistemological stance the “researcher’s thinking will inevitably be shaped to some extent by their own experiences and identities as members of the social world within which their research takes place” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 8). This suggests that my previous teaching experience and work in the hybrid “third space” (Williams, 2014, p. 1) of teacher education, sitting in between the academic and practical, will have impacted how knowledge has been “created, acquired and communicated” (Scotland, 2012, p. 9) within my research. As the social world is “a nuanced, multi-layered phenomenon” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 8), it was important that my thematic analysis was mindful of identifying both nuance and different layers of meaning in the interview transcripts. . In order to check how I was creating knowledge in my research, I was mindful of maintaining a “continual internal dialogue and critical self-evaluation” (Berger, 2015, p. 219).

3.2 Part B: Methodological choices

This section describes the methodological choices I made which included a mixed methods research approach and case study methodology. A rationale for both is given below.

3.2.1 Rationale for my choice of an integrated mixed methods research methodology

Emerging from what Gage (1989) termed “paradigm wars,” (p. 4) where researchers took opposing quantitative and qualitative camps, mixed methods research (MMR) has dominated Social Science research ever since, becoming the “third major research approach” (Johnson et al., 2007, p. 112). Kumar (2019) considers MMR to be a methodology as opposed to a philosophy, but Cohen et al. (2018) see it as a more complex phenomenon, constituting an approach, a paradigm which is involved in the research as well as being a methodology. Whilst I acknowledge that it “defies simple or single definitions” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 32) and it is “not without controversy”

(Bryman, 2012, p. 628), I was drawn to MMR as a methodology because it provides “the broad inquiry logic that guides the selection of specific methods and that is informed by conceptual positions common to mixed methods practitioners (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2010, p. 5).

Denscombe (2017) notes three characteristics of MMR, which make it different from other methods and these include the combination of different research types in the same project, a focus on using different perspectives to view the research problem and it is this research problem which governs the choice of research methods. Bryman (2004) initially considered that MMR should be considered as multi-strategy as the methodology combines not only methods but also different research strategies. However, in later editions of his *Social Research Methods* (Bryman, 2012), he acknowledges that MMR has become the preferred term in the domain as it emphasises the mixing of the research methods which leads to quantitative and qualitative data, which “should be mutually illuminating” (p. 628).

Whilst my theoretical and philosophical stances were more associated with qualitative research, the pragmatic approach I adopted allowed me to consider using quantitative research as well. Cresswell and Cresswell (2018) highlight that a pragmatic approach offers the researcher “freedom of choice” as it allows them “to draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions” (p. 48), encouraging the researcher not to choose a “competing camp” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 172) between the quantitative and qualitative traditions. Biesta (2020) counters that identifying different approaches to research depending on the quantitative or qualitative is problematic because he suggests that both these terms should refer to data but “not to what one *does* with such data” (p. 14, emphasis in original). For Robson and McCartan (2016), there is alignment between mixed methods research and pragmatism with many researchers who use both qualitative and quantitative data as part of mixed methods research explicitly endorsing “the virtue of a pragmatic stance” (p.183).

As “the integration of quantitative and qualitative data can dramatically enhance the value of mixed methods research” (Fetters et al., 2013, p. 2135), in my research design,

it was important to decide on how I could integrate both for my research. I considered a sequential contributions approach (Denscombe, 2017) which would have required the findings from my qualitative research to inform my quantitative one. However, I rejected this approach as I felt there was an implicit hierarchy in this model with the qualitative research being considered more important. Instead, I used a convergent findings approach (Denscombe, 2017) which gave the qualitative and quantitative data “equal status in cross-validating the findings” (p. 168). It should be noted that the two sets of data were not collected concurrently, but an “interactive approach” (Fetters et al., 2013, p. 2137) was adopted where the qualitative data collection and analysis was able to drive “changes in the data collection procedures” for the questionnaire. This approach was justified as both qualitative and quantitative data “focused on the same issues, variables or constructs” (Cohen et al., 2018 p. 258).

For Cohen et al. (2018) if both qualitative and quantitative data yield similar results “one could suggest that convergent validity has been demonstrated” (p. 258) which draws on a triangulation of methods. Triangulation, which was originally a military and naval location device, allows the mixed methods researcher to develop a much more detailed and richer understanding of the object of study, allowing it to be viewed through different lenses and to be compared with previous data collected, which in turn enhances the rigour of the enquiry (Robson and McCartan, 2016). Triangulation can describe diverse types of data collection, different perspectives in observation as well as different methodological approaches and theories. Denscombe’s (2017) caveat should be noted that, as social science is not by nature objective, “the use of triangulation by social researchers, therefore is not literal” (p. 171) This underlines that social science research is not about finding truths and triangulation, therefore, is not about providing a complete picture but helps provide more information “which move things *towards* the complete picture” (ibid, emphasis in original).

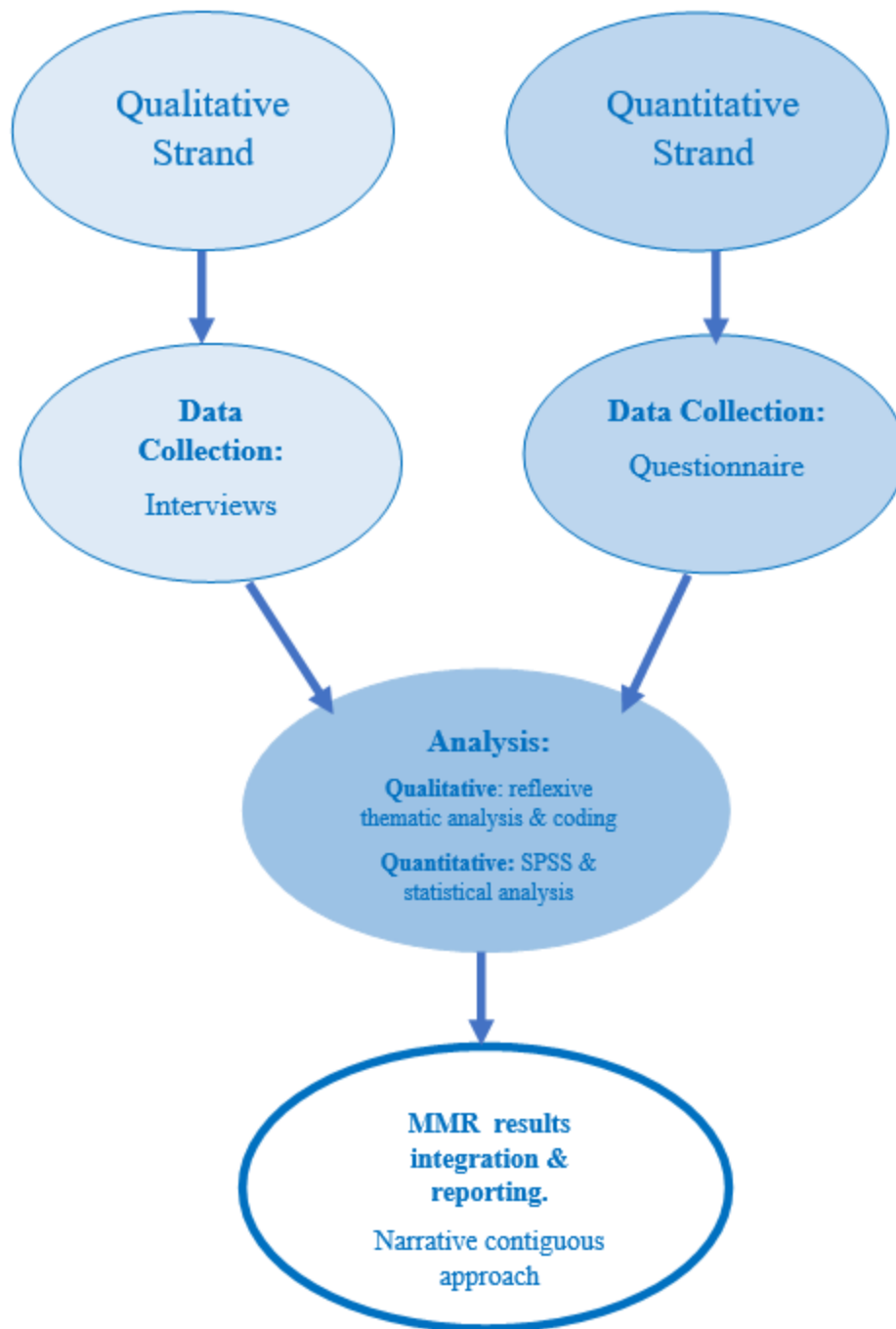


Figure 3-1. Mixed Methods Integration as part of Convergent Findings Approach

Integration between qualitative and quantitative data also occurred at the interpretation and reporting level (Fetters et al., 2013). In Chapter 4 Findings and Analysis, I use a narrative approach and present both qualitative and quantitative findings using a contiguous method where both sets of findings are presented separately and given equal weighting. My integrated mixed methods approach from data collection through to analysis and reporting is shown in the diagram (Figure 3.1) above. However, it should be noted that in Chapter 5, I summarise my research and structure the findings

around answering the research questions and so the method I use is more of a weaving one which “involves writing both qualitative and quantitative findings together on a theme-by-theme or concept-by-concept basis” (Fetters et al., 2013, p. 2142). Both methods – a contiguous presentation with equal weighting and weaving - demonstrate how integrated qualitative and quantitative data are in my methodological approach, each forming part of the same ‘picture’.

3.2.2. Rationale for my choice of case study methodology

For the qualitative data collection, I was drawn to a case study methodology as a “procedure or logic” to follow (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 16) as it “offers the possibility of building up “a rich picture of an entity” using a wide variety of data collection in “gathering the views, perceptions, experiences and/or ideas of diverse individuals relating to the case” (Hamilton, 2011, para. 2); this seemed apposite for research involving language teachers from different schools. Furthermore, case study methodology is useful when we need to “understand the complex relationship between factors as they operate within a particular social setting” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 4), in this situation teachers’ perceptions of the LLC grouping in the context of their school setting. In this way, case study methodology aligns with my ontological stance of social-constructivism, where “meanings are varied and multiple” (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2018. P. 46) and my epistemological stance of interpretivism which is “based on real world phenomena” (Scotland, 2012, p. 11).

In research methodology, the definition of what a case study is could be considered as a “contested terrain” (Yazan, 2015: 134). Chadderton & Torrance (2011) consider the case study to be an “‘approach’ to research” (p. 53) which researches the complex nature of society and education. It should be noted that case study as a methodology has been considered to be a “less desirable form of inquiry” (Yin, 2018, p. 19). A case study is an empirical inquiry (ibid) that investigates a contextualised contemporary phenomenon in detail. The use of case study methodology is relevant in this research regarding language teachers as “a case study provides a unique example of real people in real situations” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 376) as it is “normally something that already exists” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 56). It is interesting to note that this research looks to contribute to the body of knowledge around pedagogical links between languages, in

Wales, so that it is building a theory and theory testing (Yin, 2018) which can also be a feature of case study methodology.

A case study is particularly relevant when you want to understand the how? or why? questions (Chadderton & Torrance, 2011). It allows a subject to be covered in depth rather than a broad stroke. Yin (2018) outlines three types of case study: exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory with a researcher needing to base a decision on which approach to take based on several factors including the research question posed. Gillham (2010:102) states that both individuals and organisations can be “illuminated” by case studies and this metaphorical shedding of light is used by other writers to describe the function of a case study (Schramm, 1971). A case study, however, does not necessarily lead to generalisations being more concerned with “particularization” (Stake, 2005, p. 8). Bassey (2001) defines this “particularization” as “fuzzy generalizations” (p. 5) whereas Yin (2018) states that case studies can be used to generalise theories but cannot be applied to larger populations. For Denscombe (2017), the key point to consider here is the transferability of findings so that even though each case is necessarily distinct, there might be findings, which could be transferred to other setting. For Schwandt & Gates (2018) the question whether of the portrayal of a case is representative or whether the findings from the study are generalisable is irrelevant as “the case is simply the case” (p. 609).

One of the challenges presented by case studies is how to define the boundary of a case. Chadderton and Torrance (2011) state that identifying the boundary is a “major epistemological issue” (p. 53) because a researcher might have difficulties in distinguishing between the edge of the case and the environment (Stake, 2005). For Yin (2014) a case study inquiry should deal with “a technically distinctive situation” (p. 14) whereas for Denscombe (2017) the boundary of a case emerges from its “distinctive identity” (p. 56) and for Stake (2005) a case is “a noun, a thing. An entity” (p. 6). This would suggest that a case must be a distinct entity but with a clearly defined boundary as it is the bounded nature of the case which allows a “thorough, holistic and in-depth exploration” (Kumar, 2019, p. 155).

3.2.2.1 Describing the Case Studies

This research study has three distinct cases, which are three individual secondary schools in different social settings in South Wales. Each school is naturally bounded by its context and inevitably has a distinctive identity, and this is further enhanced by the nature of Curriculum for Wales which encourages schools to create their own context-specific curriculum. There are similarities between schools because they have been identified from their involvement with past triple literacy initiatives and yet there are variables in each case depending on department size, engagement of teachers and pupils and school context; variables which added to the distinctiveness of each case. As “boundedness, contexts and experience are useful concepts for specifying the case” (Stake, 2005, p. 3), it is useful to treat each case on an individual basis and not look to generalise. However, there are inevitably common characteristics or conditions (Stake, 2005) and it is useful to carry out a comparative analysis, the logic of which “rests on the examination of patterns of similarities and differences across conditions in the cases” (Schwandt & Gates, 2018, p. 614). What emerged from this research is what Stake (2005) calls a “multicase study project” (p. 1) so that each case has its own structure which in turn forms part of the ‘multicase’ or multiple case study. It is important too that the “unique vitality of each case” (p. 39) is maintained in any cross-case analysis.

For Chadderton and Torrance (2011) the most significant epistemological issue in case study is “where to draw the boundaries” (p. 53) although having a focus of the AoLE in three different schools (School A, School B and School C) does address this issue. Each school was identified by previous triple literacy work, which implies an understanding of this research’s focus, and this supports the case studies as they benefit “from the previous development of theoretical propositions” (Yin, 2014, p. 17) However, as noted previously in this chapter, how “information rich” a sample of teachers is, cannot be determined in advance of interviewing (Palinkas et al., 2015, p. 2). Even though the three schools were chosen for previous involvement, it is important to note that each school’s context is “technically distinctive” (Yin, 2014, p. 17) from the other case studies and this validates the choice of research method as “the power of case study is its attention to the local situation” (Stake, 2005, p. 8). The three

case study schools are all in the suburbs of the same city but there is a significant difference in socio-economic status (SES) with Schools A and C being in more affluent areas and School B in an area with disadvantage despite all schools being less than ten miles apart. School A is also a pioneer school for CfW, leading on curriculum design and development. Each case study will rely on “multiple sources of evidence” (ibid), including semi-structured interviews with LLC teachers which allows for depth in analysis (Chadderton & Torrance, 2011) which is a positive feature of case study methodology. For each case study presented below, approximate data has been included to prevent identification of the school.

3.3 Part C: Research Design

Since research design “is crucial in enabling you to arrive at valid findings, comparisons and conclusions” (Kumar, 2019, p. 39) it was important for me to have a clear course of action for my research. Intrinsic to my research was a belief in the importance of ethical considerations which allowed me to carry out my research professionally but also with integrity and this is why I have placed them first in this section.

My research design was a straightforward one in that I adopted a cross-sectional study approach which is “best suited to studies aimed at finding out the prevalence of a phenomenon, situation, problem, attitude or issue” (Kumar, 2019, p. 134), in this case perceptions of LLC teachers. A cross-sectional study is used when measures are taken at the same time or “over a relatively short period of time (McCartan & Robson, 2016 p. 140) which was the case for this research. From my pragmatic perspective, I liked the simplicity of its design (Kumar 2019) in that I was able to decide my research focus and select a sample of nine LLC teachers for my case study and the wider sample of secondary LLC teachers for my questionnaire. Kumar (2019) outlines two functions of research design, namely the “procedures and logistical arrangements” of the research and secondly “the importance of quality in these procedures to ensure their validity, objectivity and accuracy” (p. 123). I have used these two functions to structure [3.3.2](#) and [3.3.3](#) with both sections acting as

markers for where this information is covered in this thesis. My research design is also presented graphically in the two diagrams below. In both diagrams, ethical considerations are presented as a continuum throughout my research.

My research design: procedures and logistical arrangements

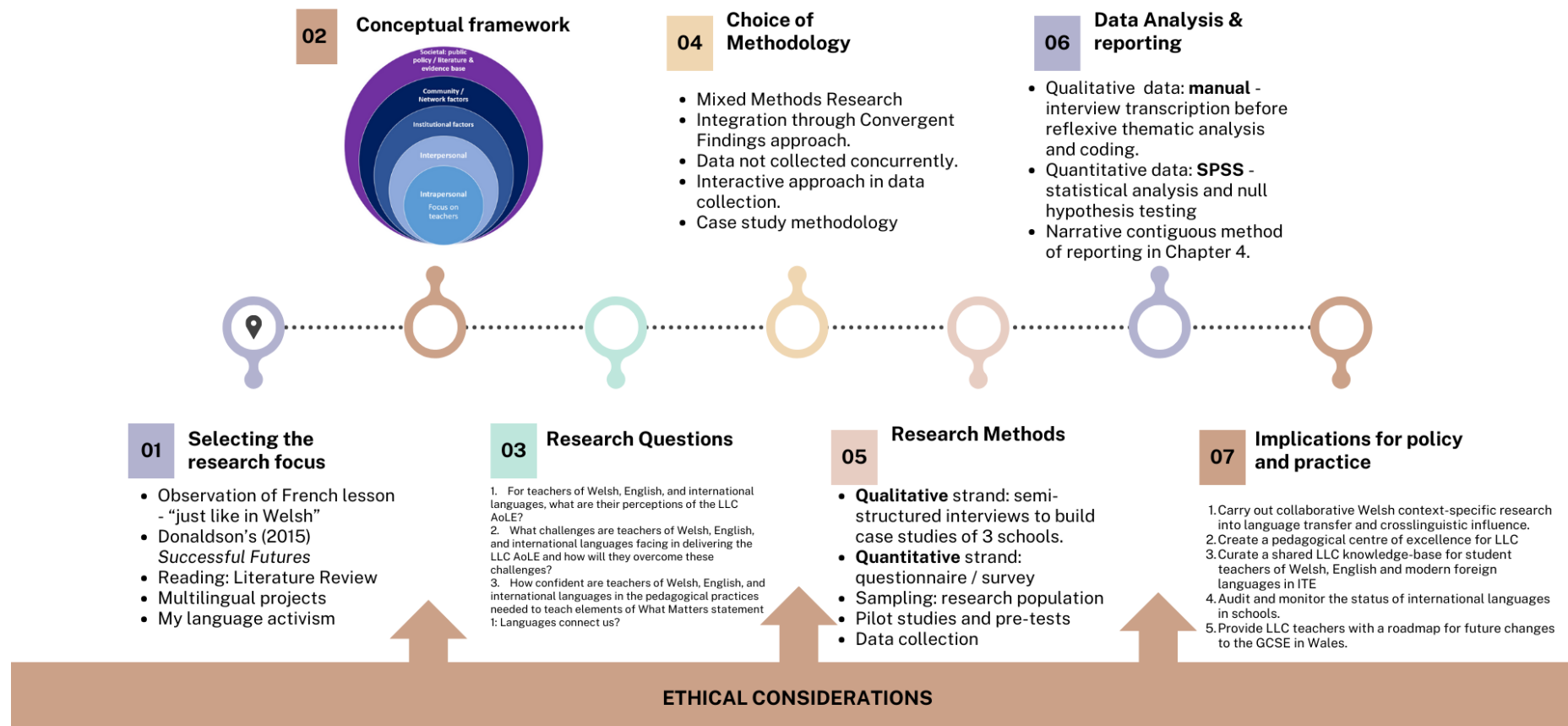


Figure 3-2. My research design: procedures and logistical arrangements

My research design: ensuring validity, objectivity and accuracy

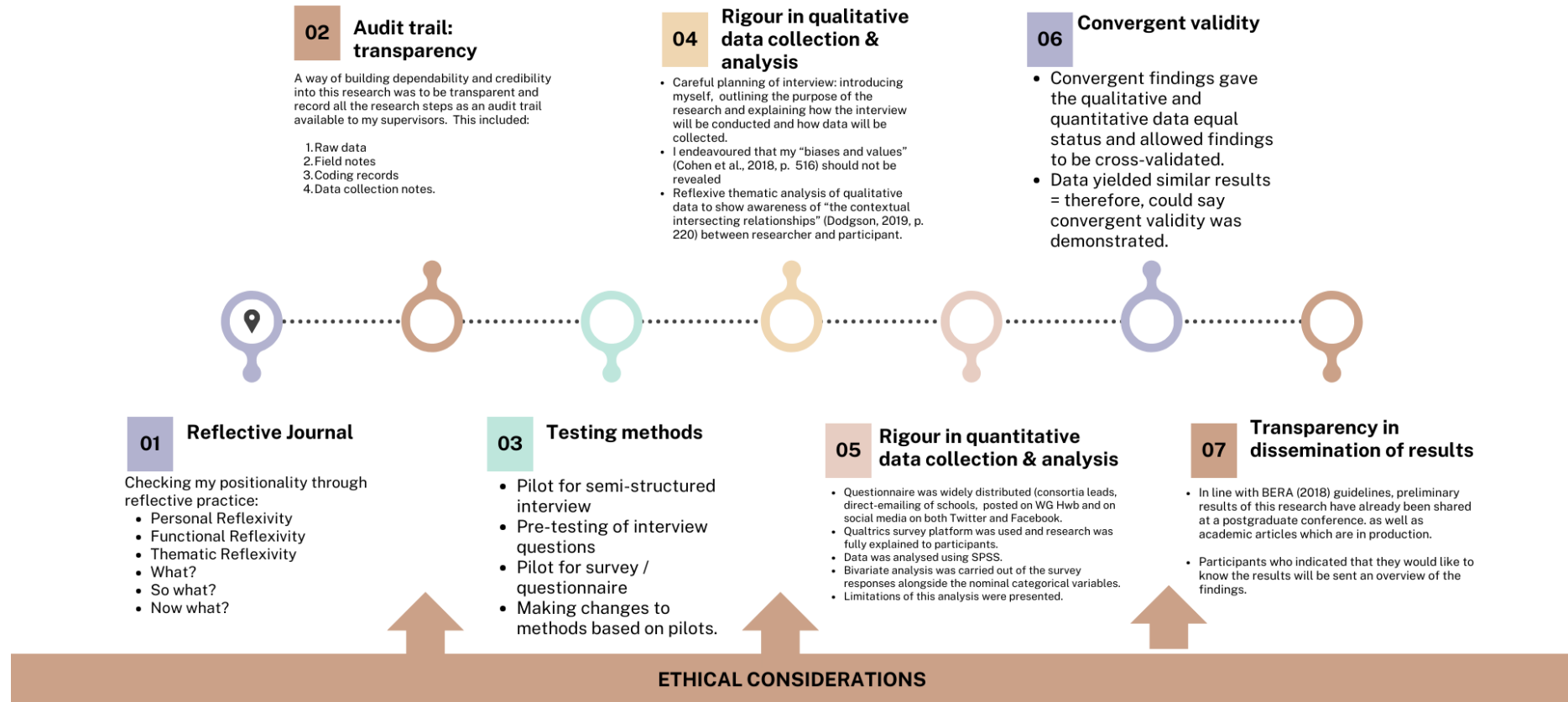


Figure 3-3. My research design: ensuring validity, objectivity and accuracy

3.3.1 Ethical considerations

Research ethics are predicated on the assumption that “researchers have no privileged position in society that justifies them pursuing their interests at the expense of those they are studying” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 337). I felt, therefore, that it was imperative that an ethical approach underpinned the research design from the start of the process and it follows that ethical decision making should be part of each stage of planning so that it becomes “an actively deliberative, ongoing and iterative process of assessing and reassessing the situation and issues as they arise” (BERA, 2018, p. 2) and not a “once-and-for-all matter” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 111).

This research adheres to BERA’s guidelines (2018) which in turn is underpinned by the five ethical principles agreed in 2015 by the Academy of Social Sciences which maintain that the research must be inclusive, respectful, based on integrity, socially responsible and beneficial and not harmful (ibid). The research also strove to maintain “the dignity, rights, safety, and well-being of participants in the research” (Swansea University, para. 1). BERA guidelines (2018) are divided into five areas, namely “Responsibility to participants”, “Responsibilities to sponsors, clients and stakeholders in research”, “Responsibilities to the community of educational researchers”, “Responsibilities for publication and dissemination” and “Responsibilities for researchers’ wellbeing and development” (p. i). I have shown my ethical practice in line with three of these areas which have relevance to my research below.

3.3.1.1 Responsibilities to participants

Informed consent is “one of the founding principles of research ethics” (University of Oxford, 2021, para 1). It involves educating human participants about the research and about what their involvement will entail so they can decide to take part in the research voluntarily. As part of BERA’s guidelines (2018), informed consent is a given and is “the condition by which participants understand and agree to their participation”

(p. 9). For Cohen et al. (2018), this informed consent is about autonomy, ensuring that the intended participants are free to choose to take part or not. In many cases, informed consent “raises an enormous list of concerns” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 123). Thus, in my research, even though all the participants were educated, informed adults, it was important to be aware there may have been those who could be considered vulnerable and so care was taken to consider this in the data collection planning.

The notion of informed consent is crucial to maintain the integrity of the research and, as a result, transparency in explaining the research is a key part of the process. It is important, therefore, to inform participants about the research and the covering letter in the case of a questionnaire and interview (which can also be reiterated by the interviewer) is crucial. Consent, for both questionnaire and interviews, was sought using a series of statements from the Social Research Association’s Research Ethics Guidance (2021) and the consent form template submitted as part of the ethical approval process ([Appendix D](#)). I ensured that this covering letter contained a summary of the research which was brief and jargon-free so that there were no misconceptions amongst participants (Denscombe, 2017). As for the interviews, participants were sent the information prior to the interview. An interview participant sheet ([Appendix C](#)) was sent to interview participants which answered potential questions concerning this research. The letter outlined the purpose of the research into how teachers of Welsh, English and international languages in secondary schools in Wales are responding to the interdisciplinary challenges of the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE in CfW. Prospective participants were informed of how the interview would be conducted and were reassured of the full ethical approval of the research and that there were no significant risks associated with participation. Participants were also provided with my contact details and were informed of their right to withdraw at any time, in line with BERA guidelines (2018) and what is deemed good research practice (Denscombe, 2017).

Privacy and data storage were both important considerations in my research. Even though respondents were not asked for any identifiers (name or address) in the questionnaire, the demographic questions, and responses in the questionnaire “could

indirectly disclose identity” (SRA, 2021, p. 15). For the interviews, names and locations were replaced with pseudonyms to respect the anonymity and confidentiality of participants. Furthermore, as part of maintaining confidentiality, participants were given the assurance that all information collected about them would be kept strictly confidential and, for this reason, names and locations were replaced with pseudonyms. For my research, all data collected was processed in accordance with the Data Protection Act 2018 and the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). All paper records were stored in a locked filing cabinet in the HEI. Participants were all reassured that consent information collected would be kept separately from participants’ responses to minimise risk in the event of a data breach.

3.3.1.2 Responsibilities to the community of educational researchers

In the BERA guidelines (2018), it states that all educational researchers should aim “to protect the integrity and reputation of educational research by ensuring that they conduct their research to the highest standards” (p, 29). It was important then, as part of a community of researchers, that my research values should align with these guidelines. For Coe et al. (2017) research values are divided into epistemic and practical. Epistemic values concern the researcher’s quest for truth and honesty in the analysis and presentation of data and operate as an overarching aim. Practical values concern the constraints on research and the steps to be followed (ibid). For Cohen et al. (2018), ethics in research can be deontological, concerned with the notion of duty, consequentialist where ethical behaviour concerns outcomes or virtue based where the research is based on “what person we ought to be” (Brooks et al., 2014, p. 24).

From a deontological perspective, research must follow guidelines at university and an ethical application was submitted ([Appendix A](#)) and ethical approval was granted ([Appendix B](#)) before the pilot study and full research were undertaken. The ethical approach I took for this research is supported by a virtuous stance as all participants are fellow educationalists and it is founded on respect and integrity, part of the values that “a virtuous person might possess” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 113). Furthermore, epistemic values are also key to this research especially as the research explores

teachers' knowledge and perspectives. The consequentialist view concerns the costs/benefits ratio that this researcher has had to consider regarding the benefits of this research and the potential costs to participants who might have been affected from having taken part.

3.3.1.3 Responsibilities for publication and dissemination

BERA guidelines (2018) state that educational researchers “should communicate their findings” as they “have a responsibility to make the results of their research public for the benefit of educational professionals, policymakers and the wider public” (p. 32). I have been mindful of this imperative and, as such, I delivered an initial presentation of my findings at a postgraduate conference and my further plans for dissemination of my findings are outlined in [6.4](#).

3.3.2 Procedures and logistical arrangements

This section details the procedures I followed for my research. It demonstrates how the research design evolved from inception to being able to make recommendations to benefit policy and practice, as presented graphically in Figure 3-2.

1. **Research focus.** There were a number of procedures I had to follow, the majority of which are presented graphically in Figure 3-2. Some stages of the procedure, namely acquiring HEI funding for my doctoral thesis and moving from MPhil to PhD have been omitted and I start with how I selected the research focus. The French lesson I observed where the words “just like in Welsh” had the potential to improve outcomes was a starting point, as was the publication of *Successful Futures* (Donaldson, 2015). There were other contributory factors including my early reading as part of my Literature Review, the multilingual projects I had been involved in with teachers of English, Welsh and international languages as well as my own language activism and desire to advocate for teachers of international languages in

particular. This meant that my past experiences and work in the “third space” (Williams, 2014, p. 1) of teacher education all shaped my research focus.

2. **My conceptual framework.** Designing my conceptual framework was crucial at the start of my research as it encouraged me to consider what was important. It also encouraged me to examine the relationships between different concepts and to identify what data would be collected (Robson & McCartan, 2016). The ecological model was one that I had used in my teaching and seemed an appropriate fit here. Whereas for Bronfenbrenner (1979) the child was at the centre of the ecological model, I felt it was important to put LLC teachers at the centre and to consider all the nested influences on them and on their practice. I describe, in more detail, the conceptual framework I used in [1.1.2](#).
3. **Research questions.** As the overarching research questions govern the research, it is right that they should be at the core of all the decisions made in the research process. Following Creswell’s (2014) recommendation, it was important to identify the “research problem” (p. 72) – in this case the grouping of languages in the LLC AoLE which then provided the rationale for the research before narrowing the focus into asking specific questions. The three questions of this research consider teachers’ perceptions of the grouping of languages, an understanding of the challenges teachers are facing and gauging teachers’ confidence in the pedagogical practices needed to teach elements of What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*.
4. **Choice of methodology.** I provide my rationale for mixed methods approach in [3.2.1](#) and case study methodology in [3.2.2](#) which was governed by a pragmatic stance of choosing the methodology that best fitted my research questions
5. **Research methods.** These are covered in Part D of this chapter. I provide a rationale for my choice of semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire as well as detailing how I designed and carried out these methods of research.
6. **Data analysis and reporting.** As part of my integrated mixed methods approach, the qualitative and quantitative data sets were not carried out nor analysed concurrently. Instead, I adopted an “interactive approach” (Fetters et al., 2013, p. 2137) where the initial qualitative data collection and analysis supported “changes in the data collection procedures” for the questionnaire. I

then used a narrative approach in Chapter 4 and presented both qualitative and quantitative findings separately but with equal weighting.

7. **Implications for policy and practice.** It is clear from the findings of this study that change is needed in both policy and practice. In [6.2](#) therefore, I propose recommendations for policy and practice which were informed by analysis of the data collected and supported by the Literature Review.

3.3.3 Ensuring validity, objectivity and accuracy

This section details how I endeavoured to ensure validity, objectivity and accuracy in my research as presented graphically in Figure 3-3.

1. **My reflective journal.** The reflective journal ([Appendix F](#)) allowed me to consider the research, using Rolfe et al.'s reflective model (2001) which uses the following questions: *What? So What? Now What?* These questions made me reflect on what I had collected as research data, examine what could be the impact of what I had collected and consider how this data could help shape the recommendations that would come from this enquiry. The reflective journal also helped me consider my reflexivity and my positionality, especially before, during and after the interviews.
2. **Audit trail transparency.** A way of building dependability and credibility into this research was to be transparent and record all the research steps as an audit trail. This included raw data, field notes and the reflective journal outlined above as well as coding records from the thematic analysis.
3. **Testing methods.** The methods and tools I used for my research are discussed in Part D of this chapter. For each tool I used, I ensured that I tried out the method as a pilot study which helps you identify any potential problems of bringing planned research into reality (Robson and McCartan, 2016). I was then able to use this information to improve the methods of data collection.
4. **Rigour in qualitative data collection and analysis** – I discuss the rigorous approach I used for the qualitative data collection in [3.4.1](#) and analysis in [3.4.3.1](#)

5. **Rigour in quantitative data collection and analysis** - I discuss the rigorous approach I used for the quantitative data collection in [3.4.2](#) and analysis in [3.4.3.2](#).
6. **Convergent validity** – as discussed in [3.2.1](#), my mixed methods research was integrated in a convergent findings approach. As both qualitative and quantitative data analysis revealed similar results, “one could suggest that convergent validity has been demonstrated” (Cohen et al., p. 258) which draws on a triangulation of methods. Whilst my results might be limited in scope for generalisation, I do feel that, in a tentative way, both sets of data cross-validated each other.
7. **Transparency in dissemination of research** – according to BERA (2018) guidelines, the researcher has an imperative to disseminate the findings of the research and I discuss this in more detail in [6.4](#).

3.4 Part D: Research Methods

In this section I discuss my choice of methods which are based on my methodological choices and my paradigmatic stance of pragmatism outlined in the previous section. I present my rationale for choosing semi-structured interviews which involve qualitative data collection to build the distinct case studies and a survey or questionnaire, for quantitative data collection. For each of these methods, I firstly address how data was collected before examining how the data was then analysed.

3.4.1 Rationale for my choice of semi-structured interviews

If qualitative research “is characterised by flexibility, openness and responsivity to context” (Busetto et al., 2020, p. 2) then it follows that these are the benefits of interviews as they allow for “the “empathetic” turn” (McIntosh and Morse, 2015, p. 2) between interviewer and interviewee. This notion of empathy, which aligned with my deep respect for the teaching profession, was what encouraged me to use this research tool. Not only that but the interview is “one of the most common ways and recognised forms of qualitative research methods” (Ruslin et al., 2022, p. 24) and was particularly useful to build the case studies. When a participant agrees to take part in an interview

there is a tacit understanding that their words can be used as research data and that the interviewer sets the questions (Denscombe, 2017). For Robson and McCartan, the “human use of language” in an interview offers a “virtually unique window that it opens on what lies behind our actions” (p. 286). I was intrigued to find out how LLC teachers were responding to the LLC AoLE and I felt that interviews would support my research and help build interesting case studies.

Interviews, however, are not without their challenges as they focus on “*self-reports* – what people say they do, what they say they believe and what opinions they say they have” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 202, emphasis in original). Furthermore, another challenge is that interviewees might want to keep the researcher happy (Denscombe, 2017) thereby providing answers that they think they should give. Another potential issue was that the majority of participants knew me, and this will inevitably have had some bearing on their responses. Out of the nine interviewees, I knew six in a professional capacity through my role as a PGCE tutor and two of the interviewees were former PGCE students. I considered myself to be an *insider*, having been a former secondary teacher and having had shared experiences with teachers, and this helped in “conceptualizing a research question that is relevant to participants’ experience” (Berger, 2015, p. 227). However, I had to be mindful to avoid projecting own experience and using it as the lens to view and understand participants’ experience’ (p. 229). It should be noted that, despite my concerns, the interviewees perceived me as an *outsider* as there was an inherent distance in my role as a teacher educator and this helped maintain the integrity of the relationship. This distance could have arisen from a perception in the power differential inherent in a university-based researcher researching secondary teachers. Not only that but because I had carried out Continuing Professional Development (CPD) in Wales and was a teacher educator, there were possible perceived “asymmetries of power” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 137) in the researcher–participant relationship. One way that this was overcome was by providing questions which stimulated and motivated teachers, making them realise that their thoughts and ideas were important for this research, and this was stressed throughout. It was also vital to establish a rapport with interviewees so that they felt relaxed and empowered to respond and this was done before the interviews were recorded. A way

of checking if this was successful was to analyse how candid interviewees were and whether they gave full responses.

A research interview can be *structured*, where the interview is like a verbal questionnaire and where both the interview and data analysis are both standardised; *semi-structured* where there is “a clear list of issues to be addressed” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 204) but the researcher allows for flexibility and *unstructured* where there is a theme introduced by the interviewer, but the direction of the interview is largely shaped by the interviewee’s responses. I chose semi-structured interviews (SSI) because they are exploratory in nature (Magaldi and Berler, 2020) and I liked the idea of allowing a degree of freedom so that the wording and order of questions was able to be modified in response to how the interview flowed (Robson and McCartan, 2016). According to Ruslin et al, (2022) in a semi-structured interview the interviewer “is unlikely to have a complete or sequential script of questions” (p. 24). However, I did use a sequence of questions – and felt validated to use this through the pragmatic approach I adopted – as these were a useful support for me whilst still allowing the interviewees to present their ideas. These questions were used as “prompts and probes” (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 513). *Prompts* allow clarification by the interviewer if there are any points which have not been understood whereas *probes* encourage the interviewee to elucidate further, and these may be prepared in advance or spontaneous depending on what the interviewee has answered.

3.4.1.1 Pilot interview

The interview questions were informed by the pilot interview. It is important to have a pilot study “to throw up some of the inevitable problems” (Robson and McCartan, 2016, p. 400) of bringing planned research into reality. The school was chosen because of its previous involvement in multilingual literacy projects in the region. Based on the information gathered, a smaller version of the full case study was put together. The semi-structured interview with Teacher PS was useful in establishing what type of questions should be asked in the full interviews. Yin (2014) clarifies that a pilot study helps establish how data will be collected and is formative in nature. In this way, it

was useful to establish how the interview would be recorded and how the questions would be structured. Once the interview was transcribed, a superficial thematic analysis took place to identify emerging themes.

It was interesting to note Teacher PS's perspective as a teacher of international languages stating the LLC AoLE "is a power shift towards international languages and has the potential to move learning forward in a radical way if delivered correctly." Teacher PS felt that CfW required less of a change for teachers of international languages, "but more of a change from established core subject teachers as well as the staff training new teachers in English and Welsh". In terms of pedagogy, Teacher PS found Gianfranco Conti's work to be "very pupil friendly for the majority of learners" and had been working with AoLE colleagues to create a common approach to teaching grammar and decoding across the AoLE. Teacher PS felt that collaboration between colleagues had been challenging and strongly felt that: "Meaningful progress within the LLC AoLE depends on traditional English and Welsh teaching embracing connections between languages and being more proactive in encouraging learners to explore these languages in their lessons." Thus, this pilot interview clarified the challenges and concerns of working in an AoLE from a thematic point of view as well as the practical considerations of how to collect and then analyse the data.

3.4.1.2 Interview questions

When structuring interview questions, it is important to remember that "the way you ask a question, to a great extent, determines the response that you are likely to get from your respondents." (Kumar, 2019, p. 186). I made sure that the questions were straightforward, unambiguous and not double-barrelled or having "a question within a question" (Kumar, 2019, p. 187). Moreover, the interview questions were varied in format from factual ones regarding demographic information (e.g. *When did you start working as part of the LLC AoLE?*) to those concerning opinions (e.g. *Of the 4 'What Matters' statements, which do you consider to be the most relevant for the language /s you teach?*) to more open-ended ones (e.g. *Tell me about positive aspects of the LLC AoLE*) which allow for flexibility and "enable the researcher to test the

limit of the respondent's knowledge" (Cohen et al. 2018, p. 513). They also allow the interviewer to probe deeper but also can bring unexpected responses. These unthought-of responses allow the interviewee to contribute to how knowledge is constructed in the qualitative data collection in a participatory way so that "the 'gap' between the researcher and the research participants" is minimised (Kumar, 2019, p. 160).

The final interview questions ([Appendix E](#)) sought to gather information about each of the spheres of influence from the conceptual framework. In this way, some questions were about their perceptions (intrapersonal), some concerned how teachers had collaborated with colleagues (interpersonal), some questions focussed on the role of the school in CfW development (institutional), others targeted professional development from the regional consortia (network) as well as opportunities for interviewees to discuss wider influences (societal). Part A gathered demographic information as well as some basic questions to put interviewees at ease before collecting information on LLC teachers' perceptions of the grouping of languages. The questions checked teachers' perceptions of the grouping of languages, their knowledge of the key changes in Curriculum for Wales and in Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE. Section B included questions about the What Matters statements as well as examining challenges that teachers were facing but these were presented in the context of other 'tell me about' questions which avoided leading questions and sensationalising the challenges. Section C questions dealt with teachers' understanding of pedagogy and the pedagogical practices needed to teach *What Matters* statement 1 – *Languages connect us*. I had to include some jargon here but made sure that I provided a definition for each of the terms mentioned. I also gave teachers a sheet with the four What Matters statement as an aide-memoire. I tried to make teachers empowered to share their views on pedagogy by asking "*Are there potential pedagogical links between languages that could be made? Tell me about these*". Through this careful preparation, I was able to make use of my previous knowledge as a teacher so that I knew how to set a positive and engaging tone which would make teachers want to respond.

3.4.1.3 Carrying out the interview

For Yin (2017) the pre-test is the occasion for a formal “dress rehearsal,” (p. 96) and, following the pilot study, it was important to test the final interview questions on former teaching colleagues, to rehearse both the questions and the introductory explanations. How the interview is conducted takes careful planning and the researcher needs to introduce his or herself, outline the purpose of the research and explain how the interview will be conducted and how data will be collected; and all this information was scripted in advance. It is important that during the interview, “the biases and values of the researcher should not be revealed” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 516) and to this end, it was important to separate the friendly exchange before the interviews and maintain the neutrality of the interview itself.

In circumstances where an entire population is not able to participate in research, sampling is employed “to gather data that are presumed to be representative of that target population” (Stratton, 2021, p. 373). Two broad types of sampling are used – probability and non-probability sampling. Non-probability methods are considered not to be as objective as probability methods but are straightforward (ibid). For the semi-structured interviews, in order to recruit participants, I used a type of non-probability sampling: purposeful sampling. This sampling method is utilised “for the identification and selection of information-rich cases” (Palinkas et al., 2015, p. 2). These “information-rich cases” were three secondary schools in Wales which included secondary teachers of Welsh, English and international languages who had all contributed previously to triple / multilingual literacy activities. However, there is a caveat that the range of how “information rich” a sample of teachers is, cannot be known at the start of a study (ibid) which could prove to be a limitation of the research. Whilst all three schools had previously been involved in these activities, each school and therefore case was chosen because of its distinctiveness, both in curriculum but also in context and social setting.

It was not easy in the wake of the pandemic recruiting teachers to agree to take part, in line with Robson and McCartan’s (2016) assertion that “in some fields it appears to

be increasingly difficult to obtain cooperation from potential interviewees” (p. 287). Once I did find three potential case study schools, teachers from the LLC AoLE in each school were approached to take part in semi-structured interviews. One of the possible limitations of this research, discussed in Chapter 5, is that only teachers from School A agreed to face-to face-interviews. For Schools B and C, the school policy of limiting school visitors following the pandemic meant that interviews had to be carried out remotely via Microsoft Teams. Whilst it was not ideal to have had an inconsistent approach, it should be noted that online communication technologies offer “significant potential to support qualitative data collection” (Archibald et al., 2019, p. 2). Just like its face-to-face counterpart, Microsoft Teams allows a rapport to be established and maintained between interviewer and interviewee (Archibald et al., 2019). Even though larger groups of interviewees would have been more convenient, it was felt that dyadic interviews would be more appropriate as “both participants and moderators feel more at ease with online dyadic groups than four-person groups” (Lobe and Morgan, 2021, p. 310).

Even though the interviews were carried out differently, I tried to ensure that consistency in my approach. Denscombe (2017) describes how the interview room should be set up to encourage interaction and I was mindful to seat myself “at a 90-degree angle” (p. 213) to the interviewee. For the virtual interviews, this meant considering my position so that interviewees felt listened to and comfortable and I opted for looking straight at the camera on the laptop with my notes on a stand behind the screen so that I could maintain eye contact. I also tried to put the respondents at ease during the beginning of the interview, trying to establish a positive tone for the rest of the interview with an understanding that the keywords are “*Trust and rapport*” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 213, emphasis in original). I also made sure that I listened more than I spoke and demonstrated to interviewees by my facial expressions that I was enjoying the opportunity to talk with them (Robson & McCartan, 2016). I recorded the interviews on both a handheld recorder and through Microsoft Teams on my laptop and made sure to check with interviewees that I had their permission to record them, in line with best research practice (Denscombe, 2017).

3.4.2 Rationale for choice of questionnaire / survey

I chose a questionnaire for the quantitative data collection as I know from my own teaching experience that the self-completion element of a questionnaire has appeal for teachers as it can be completed after the school day. From a practical point of view, the questionnaire allowed me to reach a much wider audience and the primary data collected through the questionnaire helped contextualise the case studies. Furthermore, I was drawn to the more impartial nature of a questionnaire as a research tool as it does not suffer from the “interviewer effect” (Denscombe, 2017, p. 209) where particularities about the interviewer could have an impact on the interview. I was interested, therefore, to see if a questionnaire, which offers greater anonymity to respondents would yield even more candid responses. Kumar (2019) clarifies that a questionnaire ensures that, when sensitive questions are to be asked, there is an increased likelihood of an accurate response. Moreover, a questionnaire offers flexibility and can be structured to suit the researcher’s precise needs (Coe et al., 2017).

For Denscombe (2017) “questionnaires are notorious for their low response rates” (p. 181) and to overcome this, I had to consider teachers’ workload and not “putting too much strain on the respondent” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 474). Understanding the demands placed on teachers meant that the questionnaire had to consider appealing to and motivating teachers to respond. One way of maintaining this interest was by including a mixture of open-ended and closed-ended questions. Furthermore, giving teachers an opportunity to express their feelings was considered a key element in the planning as this had the potential of motivating teachers to share their views. Moreover, motivation is a significant factor in response success of the questionnaire and two points can increase this motivation: how salient the topic is to respondents and respondents’ own desire to contribute meaningfully to the research (Denscombe, 2017).

By its nature, a questionnaire must be self-explanatory, and this encourages clear and simple questions. One style of questions utilised is a summated rating scale, known as a Likert scale which was created by Rensis Likert in 1932 and is a quantitative

method of recording participants' feelings and attitudes (Denscombe, 2017) which "can look interesting to respondents" (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 308) and which is an important consideration in this research as it was important to catch teachers' attention. Rating scales are useful in research as they are flexible and allow for quantitative analysis of attitudes and opinion (Cohen et al. 2018) although it should be noted that we cannot tell from the questionnaire why respondents have answered in a certain way or if they have told the truth (ibid). The notion of "unidimensionality" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 480) is important in designing a rating scale so that it measures "one thing at a time". It is also important not to use extremes in the scale endpoints as these tend to be avoided by respondents (ibid).

As the aim of this research was "not to synthesize the stance of the participants per se but to capture feelings, actions and pragmatic opinion of the participants" (Joshi et al., 2015, p. 157), it was felt that the Likert scale was best suited to this task. This research used a three-directional, five-point Likert scale as "from the perspective of participants, it is easy to read and complete" (Taherdoost, 2019, p. 4) and this clarity was a key consideration when involving professionals who work in a stressful role. Respondents were given five responses to a series of questions, with each option having a number from 1 to 5 and a verbal response descriptor. The numbers can be useful for analysis, but it is important to stress that we "cannot assume that the difference between responses is equidistant even though the numbers assigned to those responses are" (Sullivan & Artino, 2013, p. 541).

It is important to consider the data analysis when planning the questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2018). In this case the focus was on differing teachers' perceptions and so questions had to be structured which allowed different data sets to emerge. It is helpful to consider the flow of questions and a flow chart was useful in the planning process. The questionnaire must clarify the aims of the research and so it was vital to articulate the research questions into a concrete set of aims (Cohen et al., 2018). Here the research questions were condensed into one aim to explore the perceptions of teachers of Welsh, English and International Languages regarding the challenges and opportunities in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE. A flow chart was

used in the planning of the questionnaire to anticipate the type of responses (Cohen et al., 2108) that the questions would elicit. The three research questions were at the centre of the planning and the questionnaire was divided into five parts: Section A – Background Information; Section B - Research question 1; Section C – Research question 2; Section D – Research question 3 and Section E – An opportunity for participants to add their own thoughts ([Appendix G](#)).

3.4.2.1 Section A – Background Information

The first section asks demographic questions designed to ease teachers into the questionnaire, such as Q1: ‘Which language is your first language?’ and Q2, ‘Which language/s do you currently teach?’ The latter directly serves the purpose of ensuring the participants meet the eligibility criteria for this questionnaire i.e., practising teachers of English, Welsh, or the international language, whilst the former allows for data analysis on whether there is a link between mother tongue and the perceptions regarding LLC. For both questions a set of possible fixed-alternative responses is provided. Robson and McCartan (2016) suggest that these fixed-alternative responses should be “accurate, exhaustive, mutually exclusive and on a single dimension” (p. 261) and these suggestions aided the planning. The language question has allowed analysis of the different languages taught, comparing this to teachers’ perceptions. This is particularly interesting as different languages will allow different links to be made with English and Welsh. Furthermore, from the five reasons Campbell and Poser (2008) put forward to explain language similarity, “language contact” (p. 10) is relevant to Welsh as we can see the impact of the Roman Invasion and Latin loanwords (Parina, 2010) on the language, allowing potential links to be made between Welsh and French and Spanish, both Latin languages. We can also see the impact of a “genetic relationship – inheritance from a common ancestor” (Campbell and Poser (2008, p. 10) so that we can look at potential links between German and English which is itself a Germanic language. Other international languages taught would also add an interesting dimension to this analysis although the links may be less obvious.

Demographic questions should be written in the most inclusive manner possible (Hughes et al., 2016) which is why an unstructured demographic question that allows individuals to type their age has been used for Q5. and why Q6. ‘Which gender would you identify yourself as being?’ has a wide range of gender options, whilst also allowing for a typable gender option. The pilot questionnaire was used to find examples where ‘other’ as a category in a set of fixed-alternative responses was avoided where possible and typable option allowed respondents to add to the alternatives. The gender question is an interesting one as no such data currently exists in Wales. StatsWales has information on language teacher recruitment and examination uptake but does not show the gender split. Data from Language Trends Wales (Tinsley, 2018: 26) showed that “that the decline in MFL entries is linked to an increasing bias towards female entries in MFL subjects” and so it was interesting to see if this bias towards women is reflected in teachers of international languages as well as teachers of English and Welsh.

For questions 7-10, the questions were structured to elicit useful categorical data for analysis. Q7. It was felt that the question ‘When did you qualify as a teacher?’ would help establish whether early career teachers were more knowledgeable about Curriculum for Wales than their more experienced counterparts and Q8. ‘Did you do your PGCE in Wales?’ allowed for comparison of teacher perceptions of teachers who trained in Wales and those who trained in England. Even though this research is based on English-medium schools in Wales, it is nonetheless interesting to compare perceptions and views of teachers in Welsh-medium schools as this could be a potential area of further research and this is the rationale for Q9. ‘Which is the main language of your school?’ Knowing which regional consortia is linked to each respondent (Q10. In which regional consortia does / did your school belong?) allowed extrapolation of links between the CPD organised by the regional consortia and teachers’ perceptions.

3.4.2.2 Section B – Teachers’ response to the LLC

This section focuses on Research Questions 1 and 2: *For teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages, what are their perceptions of the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE?* and *What challenges are teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages facing in delivering the LLC AoLE and how will they overcome these challenges?* It firstly gauges teachers’ attitudes to Curriculum for Wales and to the LLC before considering the What Matters statements as well as gauging their opinion on the grouping of the three languages in the AoLE and to progression and assessment in the new curriculum.

The Likert scale was appropriate to use here as it measures “‘attitude’ in a scientifically accepted and validated manner” (Joshi et al., 2015, p. 397). For each question in the Attitudinal section, respondents were asked to what extent they agreed (1. Strongly disagree; 2. Moderately disagree; 3. Neither agree nor disagree; 4. Moderately agree and 5. Strongly agree) with the statements which allowed “unidimensionality” (Cohen et al., 2018: 480) in the questionnaire design, providing clarity and ease of access to respondents whilst also aiding the data analysis. This section was informed by Hoy and Spero’s work on teacher efficacy (2005). The statements deal with confidence or self-efficacy regarding collaboration with other AoLE colleagues, including the Four Purposes in LLC teaching, the four What Matters statements and monitoring progression and assessing pupils in LLC.

Curriculum for Wales is predicated on professional learning and on creating, supporting, and developing teachers who “take personal and collective responsibility for professional development” (Furlong, 2015, p. 8). The Schools as Learning Organisations (SLO) approach was launched by Welsh Government in 2017 to support schools to prepare for the new curriculum. It is based on the OECD integrated model of the school as a learning organisation, with 7 dimensions which include “promoting team learning and collaboration”, “establishing a culture of inquiry, innovation and exploration” and “embedding systems for collecting and exchanging knowledge and learning” (Kools & Stoll, 2016, p. 1). The professional learning questions in the

questionnaire cover the various levels of development, including the community / network level regarding input from the regional educational consortia; what happens at the school or institutional level; collaboration between AoLE colleagues at the interpersonal level and personal professional learning of the individual teacher at the intrapersonal level.

Open-ended questions have been kept to a minimum in previous sections to avoid respondent fatigue (Denscombe, 2017), but it was felt that this section provided an opportunity to expand on answers which useful for the research but also interesting for teachers to complete. By placing this section at the end, it allowed teachers to understand the time commitment in completing the four questions. Q5. asked ‘Any other comments?’ to see if there were any more “gems” to be found (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 475) which had not been elicited from the questions.

3.4.2.3 Section C – Pedagogical Practices

This section is based on the pedagogical practices in Research Question 3: How confident are teachers of Welsh, English, and international language in the pedagogical practices needed to teach elements of What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*? Using the 5-point Likert scale, respondents were asked to what extent they agreed with the statements regarding five pedagogical practices outlined in the Literature Review, namely transanguaging, etymology, traditional *parsing*, Language Awareness and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). At the end of this section, an open-ended question is included to ascertain if respondents considered there were any additional pedagogical practices which could support making links between languages. Not only do open-ended questions “invite an honest, personal comment” from respondents (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 475) they also have the potential to gather information or “gems” not contained with the closed questions. However, it should be noted that they do require more effort from the respondent and can be time-consuming for the researcher in terms of data analysis (Denscombe, 2017). For each of the five pedagogical practices, respondents were then asked to consider how effective they would be as part of classroom teaching, for pupils’ engagement and

pupils' learning. Engagement in language learning is a key consideration although with the caveat that engagement could be seen as one of Coe's *Poor Proxies for Learning* (2015) in that, just because a pupil is engaged and motivated, it "does not necessarily lead to learning" (Nuthall, 2007, p. 35).

Open-ended questions have been kept to a minimum in previous sections to avoid respondent fatigue (Denscombe, 2017), but it was felt that this section provided an opportunity to expand on answers which useful for the research but also interesting for teachers to complete. By placing this section at the end, it allowed teachers to understand the time commitment in completing the four questions. Q5. asked 'Any other comments?' to see if there were any more "gems" to be found (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 475) which had not been elicited from the questions.

3.4.2.4 Pilot questionnaire

A pilot questionnaire was trialled by 13 respondents and their comments helped to refine the finished survey. A pilot study is "a try-out of what you propose so that its feasibility can be checked" (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 156) and so it was important to consider the eligibility criteria for this purpose sampling where all respondents were practising teachers of either Welsh, English or an international language. At the end of each section a comment box was placed under the question: 'This is the pilot survey; do you have any feedback on the questions in this section'. Comments received from respondents included: "None. All clear again"; "They're all very clear and easy to follow" and "Straight forward and quick to answer." These comments then validated the clarity and ease of answering of the questionnaire which was a key consideration as "the wording of questionnaires is of paramount importance" (Cohen et al., 2018: 496). One respondent commented: "Comment box after sections could provide an opportunity to explain some answers "and this was added to the definitive version of the questionnaire and no further changes were made.

3.4.2.5 Completion of the questionnaire

Convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling which was used for the questionnaire in this research and involved contacting all secondary schools in Wales, where language teachers then self-selected if they wanted to participate. This method depends on the motivation of would-be participants to respond, and this motivation can be affected by participants' interest in the topic or having strong feelings that they want to share. (ibid). The questionnaire was designed in a way to take this motivation into account. The final questionnaire ([Appendix H](#)) was then sent to curriculum leads in the four consortia to send to schools as well as direct-emailing of 133 English medium schools and 59 Welsh-medium schools. Details of the questionnaire were also posted on the Welsh Government Hwb website and on social media on both Twitter and Facebook ([Appendix G](#)). The questionnaire was then answered by 125 respondents with 92 respondents fully completing the survey (73.6% completion rate) which could be seen as “a good sized and representative sample” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 497).

3.4.3 Data Analysis

In this section I set out how I analysed both the qualitative and quantitative data sets after the full data collection.

3.4.3.1 Qualitative data analysis of interviews

For Chowdhury (2014), the Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) researcher is “reflexive, analytical, and inductive” and “tends to follow a holistic, interpretivist approach” (p. 1135). This interpretivist approach was aligned with my epistemological stance although it should be noted that this approach could be considered as a limitation of QDA as it is necessarily subjective as well as the small sample size, which does not necessarily reflect the broader population (ibid). For Goldsmith (2021), qualitative research and framework analysis “can be a perfect match” (p. 2061) although it is more suited to “analyzing large, complex qualitative datasets, such as can occur in policy research across multiple jurisdictions or geographies” (p. 2062). Whilst it was less appropriate with the relatively small amount of interview data collected for this research, the framework analysis stages of data familiarisation, thematic framework identification, indexing of all data, summarising of data and pattern interpretation were

broadly followed in the process of “reflexive thematic analysis” adopted (Braun & Clarke, 2022, p. 4).

Once raw data has been collected, the social sciences researcher has two tasks – one to reduce the data to make it manageable and the second is to analyse it meaningfully (Luker, 2010). Making the data more manageable is achieved initially through coding, either manually or through CAQDAS (computer assisted qualitative data analysis), although it should be noted that “coding is just *one* way of analyzing qualitative data, not *the* way” (Saldaña, 2021, p. 5, emphasis in original). Both manual and CAQDAS methods allow themes to emerge which can inform the results of the research.

CAQDAS programmes often provide the researcher with a more sophisticated way of coding (Saldaña, 2021) but this does not mean they are the best way as Braun and Clarke (2022) emphasises that there is “no decontextualised best way” (p. 66) of coding. The benefits of CAQDAS programmes are that they save time and are potentially more efficient, especially when dealing with large data sets although it could be argued that familiarisation with the packages could take considerable time (Robson & McCartan, 2016). It is important to note that just because a researcher has used specialist software they have not necessarily conducted “worthwhile analysis” (p. 466) and “software does not analyse material; humans do” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 650).

In qualitative analysis, a code is often a word or short phrase that symbolises the data collected in an “essence-capturing” (Saldaña, 2021, p. 5) or “pithy” way (Braun & Clarke, 2022, p. 35). Before a code can be identified, Braun & Clarke (2022) recommend researchers familiarise themselves with the data as part of the process and adopt a “**qualitative sensibility**” (Braun & Clarke, 2022, p. 7, emphasis in original) in thematic analysis (TA). The familiarisation process allows a researcher to immerse his or herself in the data set, from listening to transcripts to reading field notes, so that he or she becomes “deeply and intimately familiar with the content” (p. 35). As there are three case studies and the study sample is comparatively small, it was felt that manual coding would be more useful in this context as it would allow this researcher greater

reflexivity (Braun & Clarke, 2022), more control over the phases of the analysis and the opportunity for immersion in the data sets.

Once this familiarisation process has taken place, the researcher can then identify items of data which are of interest and apply code labels. Braun & Clarke (2022) emphasise that coding is not about summarising and reducing, it is about the researcher having his or her own take on the analysis. It should be stressed that coding is not a “precise science” (Saldaña, 2021, p. 7), it is instead interpretive and subjective. The heuristic role of coding leads the researcher to identify both patterns and a lack of patterns in the data set. Braun and Clark (2022) differentiate between semantic coding, which is driven by the participant and latent coding which is driven by the researcher, and which focusses on a “deeper, more implicit or conceptual level of meaning” (pp. 59-60). Once the codes have been collated, the researcher is then able to start generating initial themes, which is the third phase in Braun and Clarke’s TA (2022). The importance here is to link the emerging themes, which are “constructed by the researcher” (p. 35) with the research questions.

In the method of thematic analysis I used, I was influenced by four texts: Saldaña’s (2021) *The Coding manual for Qualitative Researchers*, Braun and Clarke’s (2022) *Thematic analysis: A practical guide*, Gioia et al. (2013) *Seeking qualitative rigor in inductive research: Notes on the Gioia Methodology* and Skjott Linneberg and Korsgaard’s (2019) *Coding qualitative data: A synthesis guiding the novice*. Adopting a pragmatic paradigm meant that I had freedom to decide on a method that suited my research and resisted some of the recommendations from the texts I used. This meant that I did not adopt Saldaña’s suggestion of how to consistently annotate “rich text features” (p. 31) but instead used highlighter pens to note similarities and difference in the data during pre-coding. In a similar way, Braun and Clarke (2022) are prescriptive about how themes emerge from coding, and, through my pragmatic lens, I felt this method was over complicated for my small-scale research. I also drew comfort from Skjott Linneberg and Korsgaard’s (2019) work which established that much of the coding literature is “too comprehensive and detailed” (p. 260) and thus,

the method I outline below is much less complicated than the one prescribed but no less rigorous.

The method I used was to consider all activities in the early stages of analysis as *pre-coding*. This meant I was mentally establishing emergent codes from the initial listening of the interview tapes as well as during the transcribing process. I used a mixture of inductive and deductive coding in that I tried to develop “codes “directly” from the data” (Skjott Linneberg and Korsgaard, 2019, p. 263) but there were inevitably “theoretical concepts or themes drawn from the existing literature” (p. 264) which also emerged. This combination of inductive and deductive coding could be considered an “abductive approach” (p. 264) which can be flexible. Whilst I was influenced by Braun and Clarke’s (2022) work on thematic analysis, I adopted a much simpler method of identifying themes by cutting and pasting relevant data into a spreadsheet under three headings: Category, Subcategory and Coding description, which helped me identify final codes or emergent themes. The method I used reflected Gioia et al’s (2013) approach of identifying first order concepts leading to second order themes and finally “aggregate dimensions” (p. 21). This process is described in more detail in Chapter 4.

It is important to note that the questionnaire also yielded qualitative data from the *Any Comments* section at the end of each block of questions and from Section D *Your thoughts*. This data was analysed in the same way as the interview transcripts although it was inevitably more of a deductive process as I was influenced by the themes that had already emerged through analysis of the interview data. I did ensure, however, that the process of analysis was equally reflexive so that any new themes could also emerge. I used the same manual process of cutting and pasting relevant data into a spreadsheet under three headings: Category, Subcategory and Coding description and then cross-referenced these with my previous thematic analysis.

3.4.3.2 Quantitative data analysis

The quantitative analysis of numerical data “is a powerful research form” (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 725) and in mixed methods research gives further insights into the qualitative data collected. Research questions “can be ‘operationalised’ into hypotheses” (Williams et al., 2021, p. 9). These hypotheses are statements which allow links between theories and measurement to be tested. The hypotheses are further operationalised into variables that can be measured to “empirically answer the questions” (p. 10) which underpin the research. There are different statistical tests which can be performed on data which work by determining the extent to which relationship between the variables differ from the null hypothesis (Bevans, 2022) which is an “assumption of ‘no difference’” (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 440). The test then calculates a *p* value, a probability value which is an estimation of the likelihood of seeing a difference described by the test statistic if the null hypothesis of no relationship were true. However, caution is needed here as statistical significance is different from educational significance and this type of testing may encourage the researcher to only consider two answers, either the null hypothesis or the alternative hypothesis where there may be other alternatives (Cohen et al, 2018). It should be noted that more recent research papers call for statistical significance to be abandoned in social science research. Whilst McShane et al., (2019), for example do not seek to ban *p* values, what they do want is to treat *p* values “continuously rather than in a thresholded manner” (p. 241).

Nevertheless, it is important to identify an appropriate test for the data collected. In this case analysis of the questionnaire data was used to determine if different categorical variables or nominal variables were related. For nominal variables non-parametric tests are required (Bevans, 2022, McHugh, 2013) and the three most common are Fisher’s exact test (used when there 2 x 2 tables), the maximum likelihood ratio Chi-square test (used with small data sets) and chi-square test of independence which was felt the most appropriate to be used as it “is one of the most useful statistics for testing hypotheses when the variables are nominal” (McHugh, 2013, p. 143). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to work out computations and analyse the numerical data that was collected through the Qualtrics platform. Once

data had been tabulated, crosstabulation took place to allow bivariate analysis of the survey questions alongside the categorical variables of gender, years of teaching and languages taught. This allowed null hypothesis significance testing (NHST) to be carried out. The analytical decisions taken in this research are discussed in more details in Chapter 4.

3.4.3.3 Writing up the data analysis

As outlined in [3.2.1](#) I used a convergent findings approach to the integration of qualitative and quantitative data which gave equal weighting to both. This method of integration is evident at the interpretation and reporting level (Fetters et al., 2013). In Chapter 4: Findings and Analysis, I structure the chapter in two parts (Part A and Part B) using a narrative contiguous approach method and present both qualitative and quantitative findings separately. Part A uses qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews to build the three case studies whereas in Part B, quantitative data is analysed from the questionnaire to cross-validate the findings from Part A and to examine if teachers from the wider LLC teaching population in Wales agree with these findings. It is in Chapter 5: Summary and reflections where these two data sets are woven together to answer the research questions. My written analysis supports my philosophical and methodological belief that the integration of the qualitative and the quantitative is “mutually illuminating” (Bryman, 2012, p. 628) as whilst in social science research they do not lead to truths, they do “move things *towards* the complete picture” (Denscombe, 2017, p.171, emphasis in original).

3.5 Chapter Summary

In summary, this chapter has outlined the trajectory of the research from theoretical underpinnings to research design and research methods. The chapter has been divided into three parts which are summarised below.

Part A discussed research paradigms which not only embody “the values and beliefs of a group” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 34), but also lend the research a philosophical

underpinning which helps us shape assumptions. My paradigmatic stance is one based on pragmatism which gave me confidence in my research decisions and allowed me to assume “freedom of choice” (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2018, p. 48) in my research decisions. Part A then examined research assumptions which describe the different stances a researcher takes. I then presented my ontological stance which is a social constructivist one aligned with a relativist position where “reality is individually constructed” (Scotland, 2012, p. 12) and which “asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors” (Bryman, 2012 p. 33). My epistemological stance is an interpretivist one as it “incorporates a number of different perspectives and approaches” (Clark et al., 2021, p. 24) and is subjective in nature “based on real world phenomena” (Scotland, 2012, p.11).

Part B outlined my research design and examined the ethical considerations which were needed at every step of the process drawing from BERA (2018) guidelines. I also presented the procedures and logistical arrangements of my research and how I endeavoured to ensure validity, objectivity and accuracy. Part C discussed my choice of methodology –a mixed methods approach for which I provided my rationale and case study methodology. Finally, Part D concentrated on research methods and, in particular my choice of semi-structured interviews (qualitative) for the nine case study teachers and a questionnaire (quantitative) for secondary LLC teachers in Wales. For both of these methods I give my rationale and I also discuss how I carried out the pilot interviews and questionnaire as well as the practical implications for conducting the interviews and encouraging teachers to complete the questionnaire.

The semi-structured interviews and questionnaire allowed all levels of the ecological model to be examined from teachers’ perceptions (intrapersonal), to the collaboration between AoLE colleagues and factors such as pupil engagement in languages (interpersonal), to the institutional factors in terms of professional learning and potential opportunities and challenges (institutional), to the role of networks and the

regional consortia (community /network factors) to public policy on professional learning to the theories elicited through the literature review (societal).

It could be said that all research has limitations which “represent weaknesses within the study that may influence outcomes and conclusions of the research” (Ross and Bibler Zaidi, 2019, p. 261). Limitations can arise throughout the research process, and it is important to address these so that “readers are able to interpret and generalize findings appropriately” (ibid). Limitations to this research are outlined fully in Chapter 5. Chapter 4 will detail the findings from this research which has examined LLC teachers’ perceptions of the AoLE and has as its aim to describe how the LLC case study teachers and the wider LLC population “have constructed reality and what these people take to be true.” (Given, 2008, p. 592).

Chapter 4: Findings and Analysis

Chapter 4: Findings and Analysis

For Priestley et al. (2015) “teachers’ vocabulary and discourses matter” (p. 59), with much to be gained by not just hearing what teachers say, but, also, the way in which they say it. This research is predicated on the importance of language teachers’ “vocabulary and discourses” of Language, Literacy and Communication (LLC)’s and this chapter will examine the findings from case studies based on semi-structured interviews from three schools in Wales as well as from a questionnaire sent to the wider LLC population in Wales. This chapter begins with a summary of the purpose of this research and a recap of the methodology used, as outlined in detail in Chapter 3. It then examines the results of data collection and provides analysis through the lens of the three research questions:

1. For teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages, what are their perceptions of the LLC AoLE?
2. What challenges are teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages facing in delivering the LLC AoLE and how will they overcome these challenges?
3. How confident are teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages in the pedagogical practices needed to teach elements of What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*?

4.1 Part A: Qualitative analysis

This qualitative analysis section of the chapter will initially address each case study in turn, examining how teachers perceive the LLC AoLE and *What Matters* statement 1: *Languages connect us*. These themes that emerged as part of the cross-case analysis support understanding of research question 2 and the challenges LLC teachers have faced and are currently facing. The challenges that emerged thematically from the coding process are the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on readiness for CfW; the significant differences in the three languages in the LLC; freedom in the new

curriculum within the context of teacher agency and monitoring and assessment in the new LLC. Triangulation was then provided by an examination of results obtained from a questionnaire which aimed to establish whether the views of the teachers interviewed were shared by the wider population of LLC teachers in Wales.

4.1.1 Purpose of the research

The purpose of this study is to discover how teachers of English, Welsh and international languages are responding to the interdisciplinary challenges in the LLC AoLE. After reflecting on the pilot study which involved a semi-structured interview with a teacher of international languages, through advice from my supervisors I decided that the focus should be on teacher's perceptions of the LLC grouping of languages and that interviewing teachers of English and Welsh, as well as teachers of international languages would be useful to shape this research which examines teachers' perceptions of the LLC AoLE.

4.1.2 Method

This research used an integrated mixed methods approach with qualitative data collected from semi structured interviews in three case study schools and quantitative data collected from a questionnaire. As outlined in Chapter 3, ethical approval was sought ([Appendix A](#)) and given ([Appendix B](#)) by the Higher Education Institution's Ethics committee, in line with the British Education Research Association (BERA, 2018) guidelines. Three schools were identified within a city in South Wales. In each school, three LLC teachers – one teacher of English, one teacher of Welsh and one teacher of international languages – were interviewed to explore the research questions. While each case could have been made up of the different languages e.g., an international languages case, a Welsh case and an English case, it was felt that a school case would be more useful, as each of the teachers would share the same context, and school context is particularly significant for a curriculum that is made or being made by schools. The three schools were chosen through purposeful or

purposive sampling where researchers “handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristic (s) being sought” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 218). For this research, it was important that all schools had some level of engagement in CfW and, most importantly, that the participants included “knowledgeable people” (p. 219), a key benefit of this kind of sampling, and in particular, all teachers interviewed were practising language teachers with a knowledge of both previous triple literacy initiatives and curriculum changes for their subject in terms of the LLC. Whereas if random sampling had been used, the researcher would have had no idea if the participants were knowledgeable about CfW or not. The key aim for the interviews and the reason purposive sampling was used was to “acquire in-depth information” (ibid).

At the time of the study being conducted, schools were still wary of having visitors in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic, so each school was asked their preferred method of data collection, with interviews either on Microsoft Teams or in person. For Case Study A, interviews were carried out in person in the school but for Case Studies B and C, the schools requested online interviews, which could be considered a limitation of this research and is discussed in Chapter 5. Even though the in-person interviews allowed a more natural interaction between the researcher and teachers, both ways of carrying out the interviews yielded interesting results. Virtual interviews require the researcher “to maintain familiarity with rapidly changing communication technologies” (Archibald et al., 2019, p. 2). Semi-structured interviews via Microsoft Teams “replicate features of face-to-face interviews” (Archibald et al., 2019, p. 2). and can be convenient for researcher and participant. This synchronous data collection closely resembles real time data collection “as both researcher and participants are online simultaneously.” (Lobe & Morgan, 2021, p. 203). Furthermore, it can be assumed that teachers in Wales are familiar with Microsoft Teams from their synchronous and asynchronous teaching during the pandemic and as part of national digital learning infrastructure (e.g., through Hwb). It should be noted, however, that whether this technology can improve “researchers’ and participants’ experiences of qualitative data collection is yet to be validated” (Archibald et al., 2019, p. 2). All data

from the recorded interviews was initially stored on the HEI's secure cloud storage before being downloaded and kept securely by the researcher.

The schools have been named A, B and C respectively. School A is a Pioneer school which meant that it started its curriculum reform journey before the other two case study schools. All schools are in suburbs of the same city in South Wales but have significantly different socioeconomic context and environment which makes the comparative analysis richer. The participants all took part in an individual semi-structured interview which lasted up to 40 minutes. Table 4.1 below gives a brief description of the participants. To maintain anonymity, each participant was assigned a number and the number of years of teaching has been approximated. Even though it would have been interesting to compare teachers' views from the perspective of the languages they speak, it was felt that attributing a language to a teacher could serve as an identifier and this could prejudice the anonymity and privacy of the teachers (Robson & McCartan, 2016), particularly those from the smaller curriculum subjects such as Welsh and international languages. In a comparable way, the teachers listed (Table 4.1) are not presented in case study order and roles of responsibility are described generically, avoiding a specific role which might identify the teacher so that the confidentiality and anonymity of participants is maintained (Kumar, 2019).

Teacher	N. of Years teaching	Responsibility	CfW Experience
1	3	Middle Management	Consortia cross-curricular
2	16	TLR	Pioneer School work
3	25	Middle Management	Pioneer School work
4	18	Middle Management	Consortia work
5	7	Senior Management	Welsh Gov. involvement
6	12	Subject Teacher	School-based planning
7	3	Senior Management	CfW school-working party
8	6	TLR	CfW school-working party
9	13	Middle Management	Consortia work

Table 4.1. Details of case study teachers

All interviews, even those conducted in person, were recorded digitally through a handheld device as well as through Microsoft Teams. Even though the Teams programme creates an automated transcription, it was important to check this against field notes to ensure this transcription was an accurate representation of the interviews but with an understanding that the researcher must try to stay neutral in the process as transcription “can be influenced by cultural characteristics related to an institutional environment, academic environment and the background of the researcher who conducts the transcription process.” (Nacimientto and Steinbruch, 2019, p. 416) which, at times, was challenging and it was important to focus on this in my reflexive diary.

Once the conversations had been transcribed the resulting texts constituted the raw qualitative data. Coding then is the process or tool that turns this data into “a communicative and trustworthy ‘story’” (Skjott Linneberg & Korsgaard, 2019, p. 3). Not only does coding help the researcher reduce the data and make it more accessible, but the process also offers the researcher an initial analysis affording the researcher with thorough insights into the data in question (ibid). In its basic form coding requires a researcher to assign a short label or code to a segment. This researcher opted for immersion into the data through using a manual process of cutting and pasting relevant data into a spreadsheet under three headings: *Category*, *Subcategory* and *Coding description*. Gioia et al. (2013) recommend a “vibrant inductive model that is grounded in the data” (p. 22) and so it was important to ensure that, where applicable, codes came directly from the data thereby maintaining the integrity of what was said by the participants and the dynamics of the interview. An example in this research was an emerging code from initial analysis was the dominance of English as a subject in the LLC. Rather than use “Dominance of English as a curriculum subject” as a code, it was felt that one of the participant’s comments about “the English thing” became the code that was used.

When writing up the interviews, it is important that the resulting narrative can “tell an intellectually compelling—and sometimes even an emotionally compelling—story on the basis of transparent evidence” (Gioia et al., 2013, p. 23) with a “meta-message” of “this is what the informants told us. We’re not making this stuff up” (ibid). The

emergent themes were then refined before narrowing down the focus and examining the “key emergent new concepts or themes” (ibid). An example of this process can be seen below (Figure 4.1):

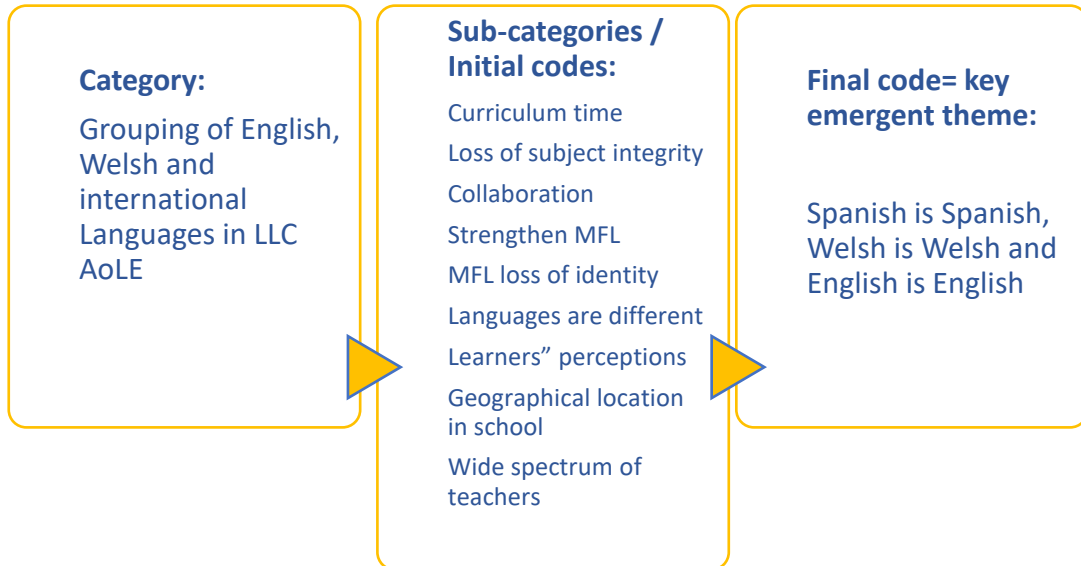


Figure 4-1. Coding process

4.2 Case Study Analysis

In this section, each of the three case studies is presented in turn. An infographic overview is provided for each school, with Table 4.2 serving as a key for some the data categories used. The data sources look at Key Stage 4 performance indicators, attendance, and percentage of pupils eligible for FSM. A concise overview of the school is given as is a summary of the school’s new curriculum. Three main sources were used for the data – Estyn reports, Estyn thematic analysis and My Local School. All data has been approximated to avoid identification of the school and broad Estyn judgements i.e. “Good or above” / “Good or below” have been included. It should be noted that Estyn’s (2022b) current inspection reports do not use summative gradings.

For each school, the findings are discussed through the lens of two of the research questions. Gioia et al. (2013) recommend paying “extraordinary attention to the initial interview protocol, to make sure that it is focused on the research question(s)” (p. 19) and the research questions were kept in mind throughout the process. This section deals with Research Question 1, which looks at teachers’ perceptions of the LLC, and then Research Question 3 which considers teachers’ confidence in the pedagogy of

making links between languages in addressing What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us* is examined. Gioia et al. (2013) state this style of research needs the researcher “madly making notes on what the informants are telling us, conscientiously trying to use their terms, not ours, to help us understand their lived experience” whilst not “losing the higher-level perspective necessary for informed theorizing” (p. 19). The field notes taken in this research allowed the ground-level views of teacher participants not to be lost, whilst never forgetting the distance needed by the researcher to analyse and categorise what was said. Much of the discussion concerned the connections or lack of connections in teaching and learning in the LLC AoLE and how the What Matters statements would be addressed. This data emerged as being context-specific to each school or case and so it was felt that this narrative would be more

useful in the analysis of each case.

Case Study KEY
Data source: My Local School

FSM: There are a number of ways to identify social deprivation, but the most widely accepted is by using eligibility for free school meals (FSM) data. Broadly speaking when the levels of pupils eligible for free school meals rise, the outcomes fall, although this is not a definitive relationship and some schools have consistently higher outcomes than others with similar or lower levels of eligibility for FSM.

ATTENDANCE: Pupils' attendance records are made up of pupil-level attendance data collected electronically from maintained school

CAPPED 9 POINTS SCORE: The average of scores for the best awards for all individual learners in a cohort, capped at a total volume of nine GCSEs or equivalent. Three of the nine are subject specific GCSEs.

LITERACY POINTS SCORE: The average scores for all individual learners in the cohort, taking the best grade from any of the following GCSEs - English language, Welsh (1st) language, English literature and Welsh literature.

NUMERACY POINTS SCORE: The average scores for all individual learners in the cohort, taking the best grade from any of the following GCSEs - Mathematics and Mathematics - numeracy.

SCIENCE POINTS SCORE: The average scores for all individual learners in the cohort, taking the best grade from any of the following GCSEs - Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Science (double award), Applied Science (double award), Applied Science (Single award).

Figure 4-2. Case Study Key

4.2.1 Case Study A - Overview



Figure 4-3. Case Study A

School A (Figure 4.3) was selected because of its work as one of the Welsh Government pioneer schools which were charged with contributing to the development of the new curriculum and policy development as part of a national initiative of encouraging subsidiarity. (Newton, 2020). School A was one of the early innovators in CfW design, creating six curriculum organisers based on the six AoLEs.

English, Welsh and international languages are organised together in the same area although it should be noted that this organisation is at the curricular level, as physically, the languages departments are not close. Owing to the considerable number of English teachers, there is a separate English staffroom, but this is significantly removed from the location of the other two language teaching spaces which has the potential to affect teachers' interactions. Welsh and international languages share a staffroom and both teachers commented that they worked more closely together than with English teachers. As a pioneer school, the LLC AoLE has been operating since 2015 although COVID-19 significantly hampered work in this area, as discussed later in the chapter.

4.2.1.1 Teachers from School A's perceptions of the LLC

All the teachers from School A were knowledgeable about CfW and we able to give precise examples of how they had embraced it in their planning and delivery. They had all received school-level training and one of the teachers was involved in a cross-consortia subject committee. One teacher who had been teaching for three years felt well-prepared for CfW from the PGCE course and acknowledged the benefit of being a more recent teacher whose training had been shaped by CfW. All teachers mentioned the department level training they had undergone, and they felt because they had been working together for several years, they were at the next stage of curriculum development, especially in comparison to other schools.

In terms of potential subject links, they all highlighted benefits including pupils' positive perceptions of staff working together across the languages. It was felt that this

new area had put a new focus on the importance of communication and pupils were now aware of the same skills being used across the languages. Examples given included using eye contact when you give a presentation, the importance of enriching vocabulary and being honest and open to making mistakes in language learning. All teachers mentioned the importance of working collectively towards teaching the Four Purposes, which they considered to be a much more holistic way of teaching, and the importance of encouraging pupils to transfer skills from one language to another. In terms of creating more links between the languages, one teacher highlighted that almost a half of pupils speak a language other than Welsh or English and that there were opportunities to consider community languages (and indeed, language communities) to bring in a different dynamic in lessons.

In comparison to how they had worked previously, collaboration was seen as being a very favourable part of the grouping of languages in the LLC AoLE. Collaboration to date had included setting up a bank of terminology across the languages, with reference guides in pupils' books. A thematic project on the topic of identity that had been trialled in the three languages was deemed less successful as it encouraged the use of English in all the languages and the project felt tokenistic. Where teachers felt that collaboration was successful was that it provided excellent CPD and training as teachers were able to ensure quality assurance, not just in the language they taught but across languages. Understanding the minutiae of their different courses was seen as helpful and even empowering. As an example, the teachers felt it was especially helpful to look at report writing across the languages, and they were able to maintain their distinctness but also benefit from each other's knowledge. It was clear that the teachers perceived that there was considerable benefit from having teachers in the three languages with different passions, different knowledge and different experience and that this enriched their teaching, and they celebrated this difference.

4.2.1.2 Teachers' confidence in teaching What Matters statement 1

When asked about the relevance of the What Matters statements to the language they teach, all the teachers highlighted What Matters statement 3: *Expressing ourselves*

through language is key to communication. The English teacher felt that What Matters statement 4, *Literature fires imagination and inspires creativity* was essential for the subject although recognised that “*fires imagination*” was putting pressure on teachers to find appropriate texts to do just that. The English and Welsh teachers both had started using authentic texts in class but realised that their approach to literature was quite different to how it is taught in English. None of the teachers mentioned What Matters Statement 2: *Understanding languages is key to understanding the world around us.* For the Welsh and International Languages teachers, What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us* was considered important, although not as important as the third statement which focusses on communication. However, for the English teacher the first statement was undoubtedly the most challenging and least relevant to the subject.

As the 12 pedagogical principles are a key part of Curriculum for Wales (Donaldson, 2015), teachers were asked for a personal definition of pedagogy. One teacher defined pedagogy as “the method of teaching and how we teach things”, another as “how we teach, so the methods, strategies we use to teach” and the third as “the methodology you use in transferring a skill set or knowledge from the teacher to learners. As for the pedagogy needed to teach What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*, the three teachers felt confident about teaching etymology which was a part of their current practice and was deemed useful for creating links between languages. All language teachers felt confident in deconstructing sentences or traditional *parsing*. In English lessons, the *parsing* involved basic grammatical concepts as well as identifying figures of speech e.g., similes and metaphors whereas for this Welsh and English teacher, this pedagogical activity was considered having a purely grammatical function. Translanguaging was mentioned by the teacher of Welsh as a useful pedagogical practice which may be because *trawsieithu* (translanguaging) is a common term in Welsh as it is a pedagogical practice that is used at GCSE.

Conti’s Extensive Processing Instruction (EPI) method and his resources Sentence Builders, which are described in more detail in Chapter 2, were mentioned by the teachers of Welsh and international languages as having transformed the curriculum

in Year 7. They both considered that it was an excellent way to encourage pupils to construct sentences and, as a result of using this pedagogical practice, had seen pupils produce quite complex sentences in the target language. They both thought that using a similar approach in Welsh and international languages would help pupils make the links in their learning between the languages. The divide between Welsh and International Languages on one side and English on the other was felt keenly here. For the English teacher, any potential connections between the languages were comparative ones from a content perspective - festival culture for example - as opposed to any linguistic connections.

Overall, teachers from School A felt confident in delivering the purpose-driven new curriculum. They all acknowledged the benefits for pupils and themselves as teachers in forging strong links between the language departments. Collaboration was seen as essential to their practice and personal development. They had a clear identity as an AoLE although COVID-19 had hindered interactions, but the teachers were keen to develop this identity further. Each language was seen as being distinct. Where they were less cohesive was in how to deliver the What Matters statements and teachers mentioned the lack of prescription from the curriculum guidance as being problematic. Whilst language learners in the AoLE were considered “resilient and engaged” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 254) in the three languages, the AoLE has not yet adopted a “multilingual approach to language learning” (Gorrara et al, 2020, p. 245); the approach is collaborative, but each language department is distinct with the main obstacle being the divide between English and the other two languages.

4.2.2 Case Study B - Overview



Figure 4-4. Case Study B

School B (Figure 4.4) was chosen for its involvement in curriculum planning at the regional consortium level. Teachers from School B also acknowledged that COVID-19 had impacted the school's readiness for implementing CfW, but during the interviews it emerged that it was their confidence in making the changes which had been most affected. They highlighted some key staff to the school as having transformed the school's journey to implementation and there was an emerging sense of confidence in the interviews. For Newton (2020), the fact that CfW is based on a subsidiarity model "will successfully foster teachers' confidence in ways that will help sustain curriculum development efforts over time" (p. 223)

However, all teachers felt that CfW was not 'new' and that it was important to map practice from the current curriculum that worked effectively in the school context to the new curriculum. One such example was the school's focus on Assessment for Learning (AfL). AfL had been a focal point for School B for many years, but teachers felt that it fitted in well with CfW's emphasis on AfL (Donaldson, 2015) as it looks at progress in learning rather than summative judgements. This contrasts with Arfon's (2022) findings that there has been a move away from the use of AfL as a term in Wales, with *learner progression* favoured instead.

The school has stayed faithful to recommendations from *Successful Futures* (Donaldson, 2015) and all subjects are organised in an AoLE structure, although it was recognised that the school had felt the freedom to interpret the recommendations to suit its context was positive. Examples are given in school documentation of how these areas address the Four Purposes. The LLC AoLE embraces communication and considers it to have an enabling function for language learners but also a wider remit to support all subjects in the curriculum. The documentation emphasises the transferability of language skills which supports learners in their language learning. Learners are encouraged to take risks in their language learning and make mistakes so that can build their confidence in their language work. The AoLE is also highlighted as encouraging social cohesion and statements are made in the documentation about the wider benefits of adopting a multilingual or plurilingual approach.

4.2.2.1 Teachers from School B's perceptions of the LLC

From a geographical/organisational perspective, the Welsh and International Languages departments are close, but are at a considerable distance from the English department. However, the teachers were keen to stress that they see the AoLE structures as having a holistic approach. Furthermore, the three teachers recognised the benefits of collaboration but were keen to stress limitations of arbitrary links being made between the languages. An example given was how a thematic approach on identity would mean complex autobiographies in English which contrasted with the basic language introductions in the international language. One teacher spoke of the challenge of identifying the concepts and the threshold concepts between the subject disciplines that enable learners to make the progress across all languages. They perceived that they had an identity as an AoLE and there was a clear drive to build a cohesive approach, but all teachers were keen to maintain subject integrity, in fact one teacher said that this was “essential” to ensuring the success of their approach. The English teacher was keen to collaborate with the other languages but felt that English as a subject had more in common with other subjects than with Welsh and English.

They had experimented with a thematic approach across the three subjects, but this had not been well received as it was perceived to be repetitive for learners and felt reductive in terms of subject teaching. Furthermore, there was clear resistance to adopting the CfW guidance for the sake of it, as expressed by one teacher: “Are we adding value to their experience as they move through the school or are we just sort of slavishly stuck with the guidance that says we must do this?” The teachers felt that COVID-19 had impacted their drive for cohesion, but it had also served a reflective purpose of allowing them to see that the thematic approach had not been successful.

4.2.2.2 Teachers' confidence in teaching What Matters statement 1

There was a feeling of optimism regarding their novel approach of focusing on the functions of language which one teacher defined as describing people, including oneself, describing places, objects and perhaps natural phenomena, creating questions, expressing one's feelings, making arrangements, comparing and contrasting, describing past events and making plans for the future. Both Welsh and International Languages departments had adopted the Conti method of language teaching as described in Chapter 2 and were advocates for Conti's Sentence Builders which encourages "forced output" leading to "independent production of language". The main attraction to adopting the Conti method has been pupil feedback which had been overwhelmingly positive, and the international language teacher stated that "numbers have almost doubled".

Pedagogy was defined by the teachers respectively as "the science of teaching", "the teaching method, the order in which you teach things for best pupil progress" and "the art of teaching, the architecture of teaching." Rather than focus on language-specific pedagogy, the teachers were keen to highlight the school's approach to pedagogy, namely identifying six pedagogical priorities which are challenge, independence, engagement, relationships, responsive teaching and skills. The expectation is that every lesson, in every AoLE, addresses and tries to move on each of these six essential elements whilst still having its own focus.

All teachers were confident in teaching etymology although this was used more in tutor time as part of the "Word of the Day" initiative as opposed to being an integral part of language learning. All teachers acknowledge that it was useful and could be considered a pedagogical approach but felt its role in language learning was limited. The teachers stressed that a triple literacy approach was "what we have always done" and they exploited any opportunity where there were similarities in the language. The Welsh teacher was confident in translanguaging pedagogy as the imperative to adopt this had come from the Welsh A level specification but felt that it was harder for other languages to consider using this pedagogical approach.

Overall, there was a shared belief between the language departments in the purpose-driven curriculum they are delivering. Whilst they were not early adopters of an AoLE-based curriculum organisation, they did recognise that there were benefits for learners in highlighting the links between the languages. They were realistic too of the limitations in this structure and, having recognised that a thematic approach did not work, were keen to consider other pedagogical practices but the importance of subject integrity meant that these were subject-specific in focus. Both teachers of Welsh and international languages saw the benefit in adopting a Conti-style approach to language learning. What emerged through the interviews was the cohesion was more at a school level with a drive for pedagogical practices across all AoLEs and a clear focus on Assessment for Learning rather than summative assessment in all subject areas.

4.2.3 Case Study C - Overview



Figure 4-5. Case Study C

School C (Figure 4.5) was chosen because of its quite different approach to curriculum design. Even before the inception of Curriculum for Wales, School C had developed a

distinct way of considering cross-curricular teaching with cross-curricular project days which involved interaction of pupils from different school years. Similarly, School C's approach to designing for the new Curriculum for Wales has not followed the path that other schools have taken, but it has kept true to the guidance by basing its curriculum on its context. What was interesting was how often teachers from School C mentioned "consistency" as there had been considerable work at whole-school level to ensure there was consistency in all schemes of work, across all departments rather than just within AoLEs. There was also consistency in all lessons which had to address the Four Purposes and Progression Steps and the whole school adoption of Fisher and Frey's (2013, p. 2) *Gradual Release of Responsibility* model which involves four stages of implementation from Focus lessons (1), Guided Instruction (2), Productive Group Work (3) to Independent Learning (4).

In the same way that School C has adopted a very personal approach to CfW, English, Welsh and international languages are only notionally grouped together. The teachers interviewed explained that there were initial meetings between the language departments, and they examined schemes of work and they concluded that there was not much overlap. A languages faculty was created which includes Welsh and French (the term international languages is not used), whereas English is its own faculty.

4.2.3.1 Teachers from School C's perceptions of the LLC

The teachers interviewed all felt they had tried to make the AoLE work but they considered that there were not enough opportunities in the schemes of work they had created for meaningful collaborations. The meetings they had had between the three subjects were frequently mentioned and there seemed to be an element of regret that they had not found a way to collaborate effectively and meaningfully. The lack of alignment between the three subjects was cited as the main issue and the fact that becoming an AoLE would be a "box-ticking exercise". Another contributing factor mentioned were pupils' different attainment levels in all three languages. Opportunities for collaboration between Welsh and French were considered much more fruitful and the two language departments had regular meetings and had

completely aligned their schemes of work in terms of topics. For the English teacher interviewed in School C, English as a subject was much more allied to the Humanities AoLE and, History, where there could be fruitful collaboration when studying myths and legends or Old English texts, for example.

4.2.3.2 School C -Teachers' confidence in teaching What Matters statement 1

Of the four What Matters statements, the French and Welsh teachers felt that the first three had the greatest relevance to their languages with statement 4 concerning literature being the least appreciated mainly because learners' lower levels of attainment in these languages would affect their engagement with authentic texts. The French teacher considered *Languages connect us* to be the most important statement for the subject because "we really thrive on that in French", describing connection-based activities as the "exciting aspect" of language work. An example was given of an exercise based on classroom instructions where pupils were encouraged to decode meaning by using their knowledge of other languages as well as context.

The teachers defined pedagogy as "teaching", "teaching and learning" and "the science of teaching" respectively. They all felt confident to use etymology in their teaching and all gave examples of how they used this frequently, but on an ad-hoc basis when opportunities arose. There was also confidence in traditional *parsing* or deconstructing sentences. The French teacher described this as "detective work" and that pupils were constantly asked to look for cognates in their decoding of texts. All teachers felt that pupils arrived in Year 7 with a lack of grammatical understanding citing the primary curriculum as the main problem here although the continuum of the 3-16 CfW curriculum might address this. The teacher of international languages stated that year 7 pupils, for example, did understand how a simple sentence works but were not able to identify the subject, verb and object in a sentence and the English teacher suggested that textual analysis was useful here to encourage pupils to spot grammatical structures. The French teacher mentioned pupils with EAL (English as an Additional Language) were far more used to grammar. The teacher of Welsh was "a big fan of parsing" and found gap-fill or cloze procedure exercises were the most effective

vehicle for pupils to understand sentence structure. The English teacher described the 8-week literacy foundation unit that all Year7 pupils study as contributing to their acquisition of grammatical knowledge, although the other language teachers were less convinced by its efficacy in terms of their subject.

Conti's *Sentence Builders* (Conti & Viñales, 2022) were commented on by the teacher of French and this pedagogical practice of using sentence builders had been incorporated into the French scheme of work but had been "adapted" to suit the school context. The French teacher felt sentence builders were beneficial to pupils as Conti "ticked all the boxes" in terms of practical classroom activities that were grounded in research although the department had not fully embraced this approach. A colleague in the department, however, had been tasked with developing more Conti-inspired resources.

4.2.4 Cross-Case Analysis: Emerging themes

The four themes which emerged from a consideration of the data from the three case studies combined are "Because of COVID" which examines how the pandemic affected school readiness for CfW and ultimately teachers' confidence in the new AoLE, "Spanish is Spanish, Welsh is Welsh, and English is English" which considers the problematic grouping of the three languages in the LLC AoLE in terms of interdisciplinarity, 'So, there's more freedom" which looks at the lack of prescription in CfW tied in with teacher agency and finally "How are we going to measure this?" which explores the challenge of pupil progression, assessment and monitoring in the LLC AoLE.

4.2.4.1 "Because of COVID"

The COVID-19 pandemic was a recurring theme throughout the interviews, as it has clearly had a significant impact on the teachers (and schools) interviewed. Whilst we know that COVID-19 affected all people "regardless of nationality, level of education,

income or gender” (OECD, 2020, p. 4), it particularly affected teachers’ mental health as they were put under considerable pressure having “to adapt quickly to continue delivery of education and to look after the welfare of the pupils in spite of the pandemic” (Kim et al., 2022, p. 300). Not only that but many teachers also had heightened anxiety about teaching demands and suffered from a lack of administrative support (Pressley, 2021). What is less obvious and what interestingly emerged from the data is that teachers perceived that COVID-19 had affected much of the preparations for CfW despite the views of regional consortia and local authority officers who considered the pandemic “as an opportunity to focus on developing the ethos and principles of the Curriculum for Wales” (Estyn, 2021, p. 72). Schleicher (2020) reports that the pandemic reinforced our understanding that “supportive environments” are “needed to focus on learning” (p. 4) and it would seem to follow that the same supportive environments are needed to teach effectively and to collaborate, a key requisite of the new curriculum. Whilst some pupils may have benefited from the “socialization opportunities” of online environments (Di Pietro et al., 2020, p. 9), teachers found collaboration harder this way. For Teacher 9 there was the added problem that all teachers were paired up with colleagues as a wellbeing initiative during the pandemic, but the pairings were not AoLE-based which hindered collaboration between AoLE colleagues even further. Not only that, but when school buildings were opened again, there were challenges posed by the school structures as these did not facilitate effective social distancing (Di Pietro et al., 2020) as exemplified by Teacher 1 who commented: “COVID definitely hindered us being able to actually meet [...]. Before COVID we could all sit – English, Welsh and Spanish teachers in a group.” It also meant that any collaboration initiated before the pandemic was tested with much of the impetus lost as can be seen in the words of Teacher 6: “So, the kind of collaboration between the LLC stopped. [...] So, I can say now there is a vague connection between us but is very tenuous” as well as a shift in priorities for teachers as demonstrated by teacher 7: “The school did not have the time to prepare and implement as well as it should have, because COVID had to take precedence over new curriculum.”

It would follow that the need to examine new pedagogy needed for the LLC AoLE was also affected adversely as “there was a marked “hollowing out” of pedagogic

practice” during this period (Morgan et al. 2022, p. 6) and many teachers had to contend with adapting “to new pedagogical concepts and modes of delivery of teaching, for which they may not have been trained” (Schleicher, 2020, p. 4). The impetus of the curriculum making that had started before the pandemic affected teachers’ perceptions of being ready to deliver as shown by Teacher 1: “I do think that COVID has had a big part to play on it because it’s obviously shifted the drive for two years.” COVID-19 then did appear to have delayed not only school’s ability to launch the new curriculum but also teachers’ engagement with and confidence in delivering the potentially challenging elements of the curriculum namely progression and assessment as shown by teacher 3’s comments: “Pupil progress and progression steps – it’s been on the back burner because of COVID.” This view was shared by Teacher 2 regarding assessment: “We haven’t looked at this because of COVID” as well as regarding the reporting of pupil progress: “We’ve put a hold on things because of COVID.”

However, this was not helped by the perceived lack of direction teachers received at the start of the curriculum planning. This meant that early collaborative projects were not successful, as highlighted by Teacher 4 who discusses a previous project: “We’ve sort of dipped into it about 3 years ago, dipped into working together as an AoLE”. This viewpoint was shared by Teacher 6: “Our first collaboration I would say, I cannot say that it was massively successful and because for us it turned out to be more of a tick list.” Furthermore, during the COVID-19 pandemic the “changing workloads” of teachers, along with the “the sense that staff are there 24/7” (French et al., 2022, p. 59) may well have further impacted on teachers’ engagement with and confidence in delivering parts of CfW. However, the resilience and fortitude that teachers displayed is viewed as a strength by the Welsh Government as they acknowledge that “educational practitioners have risen heroically to the challenges, showing remarkable adaptability, commitment and resilience.” (Welsh Government, 2021b, para. 2). For Teacher 8 the main challenge of the pandemic was concerning pupils: “We struggled hugely, not with our preparation, with the participation and engagement of pupils and it will take us a long time to get that back.”

Even if there are benefits in this even more resilient workforce of teachers, it is important to remember that, from Bronfenbrenner's (1979) classic ecological theory "the ecological environment is conceived as extending far beyond the immediate situation directly affecting the developing person" (p. 7) and it follows therefore that "teachers do not exist in isolation, rather they are impacted by interconnected stressors that exist in their personal lives, their students' lives, and the broader context of society" (Robinson et al., 2022, p. 79). Therefore, it may be too soon to gauge what teachers have been through following the pandemic and how long these effects will last, especially as we slowly emerge into a post-COVID new (ab)normal (Crick et al., 2022). It may be too that stresses about the new curriculum have conflated with the stresses felt by teachers at such a challenging time and this may impact on their energy for the new curriculum (Marchant et al., 2022).

4.2.4.2 "Spanish is Spanish, Welsh is Welsh, and English is English"

The theme of subject disciplines emerged in all interviews as it is clearly a contentious issue for the teachers interviewed. *Successful Futures* asserts "that subjects and disciplines should remain important but that these should be grouped within six Areas of Learning and Experience" (Donaldson, 2015, p. 38). The report felt that the "Areas of Learning" used in the Foundation Phase in Wales were too narrow in their remit and the inclusion of "experiences" signals that educational experiences are "an integral part of the curriculum, to broaden children and young people's horizons, stimulate their imaginations and promote enjoyment in learning" (ibid). Gatley (2020) identifies a tension in that "teaching the six Areas of Learning and Experience on their own is unlikely to fully achieve the Four Purposes of the New Welsh Curriculum" (p. 209). As the purposes of CfW are at some level driven by developing future citizens of Wales, studying subjects can contribute towards these dispositions but "it is unlikely to be sufficient" (ibid). Not only that but there is the potential that such a curriculum "verges on turning education into a form of therapy that is more concerned with the emotional well-being of pupils and students than with their emancipation" (Biesta, 2009, p. 6).

The supra-level influences for these AoLEs followed “an international trend in recent years towards using “areas of learning” as curriculum organisers, sometimes combining disciplinary learning and wider capabilities or capacities” (Donaldson 2015, p. 36). *Successful Futures* (ibid) cites “curriculum organisers” from Australia, New Zealand, Netherlands, Northern Ireland and Scotland. It was recommendations from The Cambridge Primary Review, however, that shaped the AoLEs, with *Successful Futures* (2015) advocating that they should “provide a rich context for achieving the purposes of the curriculum”, “be internally coherent” and “employ distinctive ways of thinking and have an identifiable core of disciplinary and instrumental knowledge” (p. 38). This “identifiable core” demonstrates that in spite curriculum reform, “disciplines seem almost obstinately to linger on” (Young & Muller, 2010, p. 20).

However, the initial concern for teachers in Wales regarding the AoLEs has been the potential of the subject groupings to affect subject integrity and not have “an identifiable core of disciplinary and instrumental knowledge” (Donaldson, 2015, p. 38). Teacher 5 expresses this concern: “I think the main challenge is as practitioners, we want to maintain subject integrity and we want to make sure that we are still delivering that higher quality education and pupil outcomes for each specific subject”. For Myatt (2018), it is “knowledge and use of subject-specific terminology which supports pupils to enter the domain of the academic discipline” (p. 31) which is important for further study. Furthermore, the teaching of knowledge could be seen as having a civic role as “schools transmit shared and powerful knowledge on behalf of society. We teach what they need to make sense of and improve the world” (Roberts, 2016, para. 15). For Ashbee (2021), senior leaders in schools need to appreciate all subjects as well as “being able to glimpse the existential wonder and joy of the specialist, to have a sense of what it means to live-in each subject” (p. 65).

It would follow that the challenge for the AoLEs in Wales is to maintain the “existential wonder and joy” (ibid) whilst developing a purpose-driven curriculum. It is this potential loss of subject integrity which teachers are feeling most keenly. For some AoLEs, this potential loss is even more likely as expressed by Teacher 3:

“Humanities, for example, it’s much more blurred, isn’t it? And when pupils came to do their options, they didn’t know what History and Geography were”. This, of course, is less of an issue in the LLC AoLE as the languages are each so different, as encapsulated by the same teacher, with a part of this extract being chosen as the code label for this theme because it expressed a common thread through all interviews: “My concerns initially were the change to the subject and how it could lose its identity but [...] there’s no doubt, Spanish is Spanish; Welsh is Welsh, and English is English, and you can’t change that.”

This view was reciprocated by Teacher 1 who states that, despite the school’s establishment of an AoLE in 2017 in its role as a Pioneer School, each language remains distinct: “I still do feel that they are quite separate...as they know what they are getting when they come to me” and echoed by Teacher 4: “For now, we’ve stayed as separate disciplines. The languages are completely different things.” For Teacher 8, this separation from the other languages was liberating: “We are quite independent in a lot of ways and that gives us freedom to do our own thing.”

For Gorrara et al. (2020), placing English, Welsh and international languages in the same grouping suggests that “builders of the new curriculum have recognised the importance of putting linguistic diversity at the heart of the experience” (p. 251). This diversity then has the potential to enrich but could be seen as problematic in terms of collaboration between the three languages and challenges the recommendation that each AoLE “be internally coherent” (Donaldson, 2015, p. 38). Moreover, pupils quite distinct levels of competence affect the parity of the three languages in the curriculum, as demonstrated by Teacher 4: “So, they come to comp with knowledge of Welsh and English and MFL is a blank canvas – three very different disciplines in the same AoLE.” Although for Teacher 8, the difference in pupils’ levels was not considered a disadvantage: “They’ve got a real advantage coming into French because they’re starting from scratch, so they never get the feeling that they’re behind.”

Parity, or lack thereof, between the three languages is based on several factors including what is taught and how it is taught and the stark difference between the pedagogy needed for L1 and L2 is seen in the words of Teacher 6: “So, in terms of English language, pupils are taught to persuade. They are taught to argue [...] so again, there is not much parity with Welsh and international languages.” This sentiment is shared by Teacher 2 who states: “It’s just I suppose the languages are very different and obviously the way literature is taught in English is very different to how literature is taught in Welsh or Spanish.” This is exemplified by the fact that all teachers of Welsh and international languages mentioned the Conti approach to language learning and yet not one of the English teachers was aware of his methods. It may be that for teachers of Welsh and international languages planning the curriculum around the What Matters statements is more challenging as their learners are at a much lower level. This may explain why they are keener to have recourse to “pre-packaged methods” (Newton, 2020, p. 227) for language activities.

However, Teacher 9 identified one link in that English literature offers opportunities for learners to deconstruct language which could encourage them to think about connections between the other languages they are studying. In one example, Teacher 9 discussed how a link to French verb structure helped an explanation of the syntax used in Shakespeare’s *Henry V*. Another example was given of how getting pupils to think about the title of Wilfred Owen’s poem *Dulce Decorum Est* (1921) allowed them to use the knowledge of other languages to construct meaning, which in turn awakened their analytical skills.

It should be said that even if literature is a feature that must be addressed by all three languages in the new curriculum (What Matters statement 4), it will inevitably be treated differently because of pupils’ linguistic levels for each language. This highlights one of the areas of concern for teachers of Welsh and International Languages in an English-medium setting, namely “the English thing” or the perceived dominance of English in the curriculum. Teacher 1 sums this perception: “It comes back to the English thing. The concern for me sometimes is that English might dominate the area because, even though Welsh is now core, English has most of the

hours.” Teacher 8 shared this viewpoint: “English is such a big beast within the school.” Also, links between English and the other two languages are not immediately obvious, as expressed by Teacher 4: “I don’t know where English can fit in. I would personally like to see English teaching a bit of English from a structural point of view.” This notion is shared by Teacher 3: “We need more collaboration in terms of grammar – one of the problems encountered in international languages is that pupils don’t know their own language well enough.” However, Teacher 6 identifies a problem here, that pupils of English do not necessarily need a knowledge of grammar to achieve in the subject: “In English language pupils are not taught those aspects of the language. The children can speak the language.” Teacher 8 challenges this view as whole-school grammar initiatives had not benefited pupils’ learning in other languages and that context-specific teaching of grammar was deemed more useful.

Another issue which can affect cohesion between the languages is the larger size of English departments in English-medium schools which means that the department is often not near the other two languages geographically, as demonstrated by Teacher 1: “So Welsh and MFL are all along this corridor...I think it does help, especially with Welsh and MFL being the more similar. I do feel like that’s the divide.” This view is shared by Teacher 2: “It does have a possible impact because unless one of us comes over to the corridor, we don’t really see each other. An LLC staff room might help.” This could be seen as a widespread problem in schools, as shown by Teacher 4: “We’re on the same floor but a long way apart. So, we don’t get a chance to pop into each other’s rooms.” This geographical distancing of the departments would seem to mirror then the divide between English and the other two languages. For Teacher 8, this has led to Welsh and International Languages having a stronger bond: “We’re called Languages now, Welsh and French, are we are completely aligned.”

However, there are clearly opportunities for collaboration between the three languages and this will be explored further in the narrative concerning each case study. Furthermore, association with the dominant subject of English could improve how international languages are perceived, as expressed by Teacher 3: “This working in

partnership is going to strengthen MFL as English can do a lot to enhance international languages.”

The LLC AoLE will need to address these two tensions – finding experiences for learners which allow them to realise the four purposes but also appreciating the distinctness of each language. Teacher 5 summarises this idea effectively:

We want them to be linguists who understand that connection between the AoLE.

But we also want to produce passionate speakers of French or Spanish and really passionate artists in terms of literature and the use of English language and of course, we want to produce Welsh speakers in line with that 2050 strategy. (Teacher 5)

4.2.4.3 “So, there’s more freedom”

One of the codes that emerged almost immediately in the thematic analysis of the interview transcripts was a feeling of “So, there’s more freedom,” concerning the perceived freedom that the new curriculum has afforded teachers. Much of this concerns the prominence of subsidiarity in the new curriculum. There is no doubt that this freedom has the potential to liberate teachers from doing what they have always done, as demonstrated by Teacher 4: “We’ve been stuck in a rut as language teachers and restricted in what we teach. It’s going to be very open for me with what I teach. So, there’s more freedom.” This is supported by Newton’s (2020) work, which found that “many teachers believe the new curriculum will give them greater freedom in their choice of subject content and the learning experiences they can provide pupils” (p. 225). However, as expressed by Teacher 2 this freedom brings excitement but also the responsibility that goes with this freedom: “I think actually with the new curriculum there is more scope for freedom and creativity, so in that way it’s exciting but of course, there is the pressure of wanting to do a good job.” This supports Newton’s (2020) findings that the freedom to experiment excited teachers, but he also questioned

accountability in the process and how the pressures teachers were under might affect their pedagogical decisions.

For this freedom to be used effectively, teachers are required to show agency in their role or the capacity “to act purposefully and constructively to direct their professional growth and contribute to the growth of their colleagues” (Calvert, 2016, p. 52). Teacher 7 asserts that this agency might be problematic: “I think for a lot of teachers generally, [...] the idea of having more agency is not something they particularly want. They’d rather have the knowing what they’re turning up to doing every day.” However, Priestley et al. (2015) acknowledge that teachers who have been in the profession for many years “have access to a discourse” (p. 66) that allows them to see the “bigger picture” which allows them “to put things in perspective” which could challenge Teacher 7’s assertion. Teacher 8, exemplifies the benefit of experience: “I’ve been able to use my previous experiences and to bring a whole lot of culture and language and life into our lessons [...] We all have to maintain the core vocabulary obviously, but we’ve got a lot of freedom.”

There is an expectation that all teachers, experienced and less experienced, “as agents of change” (Priestley et al., 2013, p. 187) in Wales “actively engage with curriculum making and design decisions” (Hughes & Lewis, 2020, p. 291) as highlighted in *The Curriculum for Wales: Implementation plan* (Welsh Government, 2021b, para. 30): “only by creating opportunity for practitioners to own the reform process in their schools and settings, for them to feel valued and empowered by that process, and to feel motivated to contribute to its continuing development, can we ensure the long-term success of the reforms.” Priestley et al. (2015) discuss the “slipperiness” (p. 19) of the term agency as it is often conflated with action, as an innate attribute people possess. Priestley et al. (2015) offer an alternative understanding of the term as an “*emergent phenomenon*” which is achieved by individuals “through the interplay of personal capacities and the resources, affordances and constraints of the environment by means of which individuals act” (p. 19, emphasis in original). It would seem then that teacher agency is affected by knowledge and skills teachers possess, the time, opportunities and resources at their disposition as well as the context in which they work. This

context is an important consideration as it has the potential to “disable individuals with otherwise high agentic capacity” (Priestley et al., 2015, p. 197).

Within Priestley et al.’s (2021) notion of “sites of curriculum making” (p. 13), school-based curriculum development is at the micro level. This term defines curriculum making by individual teachers or by teams of teachers at the school or departmental level, although decisions made at the classroom level are deemed to be at the nano level. In terms of the conceptual framework which underpins this research, the focus here is on how teachers use this freedom at the intrapersonal level, their collaborations at the interpersonal level and school-based decisions at the institutional level, as highlighted in Figure 4.6.

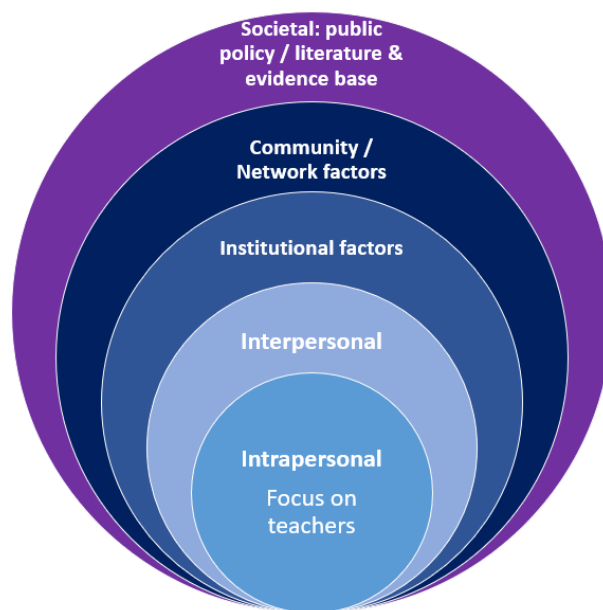


Figure 4-6. Conceptual Framework based on Ecological Model

For schools to foster agency in their teaching staff, “purposeful (and protective) leadership is essential” (Priestley et al., 2015, p. 162). Teacher 5 has a leadership role within the school and elaborates on how staff are protected: “My approach has been to be the umbrella, really and shield colleagues from that noise by limiting the terminology staff have.” Teacher 5 realises, however, that teachers will need to develop more agency: “but as we look further down the line, my hope is that colleagues become a lot more confident in understanding what is a very intellectually challenging problem of curriculum design.” This shielding from the “noise” of curriculum making

can be seen at the departmental level in the words of Teacher 2 who initially did not feel involved in curriculum making but moved from not having a teaching and learning responsibility (TLR): “I haven’t had to do much preparation as I wasn’t a TLR holder when people senior to me were working on the curriculum” to now having one and Teacher 2 acknowledges that this TLR has given more freedom, required greater agency and inevitably more responsibility and the pressure that comes with it.

The same teacher attributes this early start in curriculum making that School A had as a pioneer school as affecting collaboration with other schools: “I think it’s been a bit difficult to communicate with other schools because we are ahead in our planning as we’re a pioneer school.” Despite differences in school context or stage of development in curriculum making, the Welsh Government curriculum guidance would suggest that all teachers have a role to play in developing and implementing CfW. Le Fèvre et al (2016) consider all teachers to be curriculum makers “because they design and enact learning intentions for their students within their classrooms and schools” and affirm that teachers have “efficacy and agency” in their “professional decision making about curriculum priorities” (p. 310). Rosiek and Clandinin (2016) posit that this is because teachers are the “central mediator of many different curriculum resources” (p. 302) and this puts them at the heart of curriculum making, although the interviews would imply that the hierarchical structures of schools inhibit teachers’ freedom or encourage them not to embrace the freedom, as expressed by Teacher 7: “For me, I don’t feel the pressure from that freedom to create a bespoke curriculum, not so much, but I think that’s because the head of department puts so much effort into creating.”

Even though “high-capacity teachers” will have what it takes “to break free from the cage” (Priestley et al., 2015, p. 162), it is incumbent on school leaders at all levels to consider the agency of their staff, at whole school or departmental level “to promote changes in both instructional practices and teachers’ beliefs” (Hughes & Lewis, 2020, p. 300) so that teachers would feel empowered to be the curriculum makers CfW needs. Moreover, for Newton (2020) “feeling listened to” was what contributed the most to a “renewed sense of professionalism” (p. 219) amongst teachers.

4.2.4.4 “How are we going to measure this?”

The final theme to emerge from the thematic analysis was “How are we going to measure this?”- a general concern about assessment and monitoring. Donaldson (2015) charts “dissatisfaction with current assessment arrangements” (p. 74) from stakeholders as one of the drivers for assessment reform as part of CfW. In *Successful Futures*, Donaldson is “also vocal about the impact that high stakes and external assessment, focussed on small range of outcomes can have on the breadth of the curriculum” (Titley et al., 2020, p. 305). From Donaldson’s recommendations, CfW shows “a significant shift in the role of assessment within education, at both a national and a school/setting level” (Welsh Government, 2022g, para. 1). Assessment in CfW has three main objectives, namely: “support individual learners on an ongoing, day-to-day basis; identify, capture and reflect on individual learner progress over time and understand group progress in order to reflect on practice.

The most striking change is that schools are now tasked with developing their own assessment arrangements, in the same way as they have created or are creating the new curriculum. This freedom means that schools could create an approach to assessment which lacks rigour as the system has “the potential for tokenistic and surface-level implementation.” (Titley et al., 2020, p. 311). For teachers, however, this freedom can be exciting but also daunting and even confusing, as exemplified by Teacher 7 who felt a lack of synergy between departmental plans, whole school priorities and what is happening in the classrooms. Schools were clearly cautious about a new assessment regime and this caution in some ways goes against the recommendations from *Successful Futures* for assessment to be “an ongoing process indistinguishable from teaching and learning and an essential part of the teaching process” (Estyn, 2022, p. 5) and not an additional “bolt-on” (Donaldson, 2015, p. 76). However, this does correlate with Estyn’s findings that “school leaders were not always able to articulate clearly their vision for assessment or identify its impact on teaching and learning” (Estyn, 2022, p. 4) and so it will be interesting to ascertain whether this caution remains after schools become more confident in delivering CfW.

The Progression Steps are mentioned by all teachers interviewed, mainly because they imply a different way in monitoring pupil progress. This supports Titley et al.'s (2020) findings that the “contextual progression steps” were “difficult to conceptualise” for teachers (p. 313). For Teacher 6, progression is not the concern but the problematic measurement of it: “I’m not fearful about progression because I know that they’re going to make progress, but I am fearful about measuring progression. How are we going to measure this?” Teacher 2 expresses the change in thinking needed in monitoring pupils’ progress: “Progression Steps are quite different – so it’s broader because it’s about pupils actually where we would expect them to be or below that expectation or above that expectation.”

For some of the interviews, there clearly a feeling of the French adage *plus ça change, plus ça reste la même chose*, as shown by Teacher 1 and Teacher 4 who both perceived that teachers would be assessing the same skills in CfW and so there would not be radical differences. For Teacher 8, however, these changes have been positive: “Assessment now is more about ensuring that we assess what pupils are actually learning as opposed to making links for the sake of making links and this kind of approach seems positive.” Furthermore, Teacher 7 found the experience of monitoring in a more holistic way to be liberating, taking the pressure off teacher and pupil although Teacher 7 did acknowledge that not having levels was challenging as “you know where you are with levels, you know, a number’s a number.” A potential problem here is that schools may use the Progression Steps in the same way that they used levels, and this concern of was expressed by Teacher 6 who thought there was the danger of the descriptions of learning become assessment descriptors for schools.

New types of assessment, at what is currently known as Key Stage 3 (KS3), will inevitably mean that high-stakes assessment like the GCSE will have to adapt and the Welsh Government will have to “ensure alignment between the principles which have guided the development of the new curriculum” and the GCSE (Titley et al., 2020, p. 305). Furthermore, for Arfon (2020), many learners in Wales “are missing qualifications opportunities to recognise their plurilingualism in terms of all the

languages that they may know” (para. 11). What is interesting to note is how important the GCSE is currently in shaping curriculum content at this stage for all teachers agreeing with Teacher 3’s comment that “I’ve always got one eye on the GCSE...so our assessments will look like mini-GCSE assessments, guaranteed” demonstrating that every language department looks to the GCSE as the end goal to shape content at KS3. The current concern is the fear of the unknown as shown by Teacher 6: “So, we a vague sort of plan but it is going to depend on how things go and how pupils respond to it” as well as data concerns as expressed by Teacher 3: “Also, the data targets that are going to be thrown up to predict a GCSE grade. How is this all going to feed into this melting pot of information we’ve got on pupils?” For Arfon (2020), it is important that there is alignment between learning, teaching and assessment as they belong “to the same ecosystem” (para. 9). The challenge will be for schools to monitor and assess pupils in ways which go beyond the “potential for tokenistic and surface-level implementation” and to give teachers time and capacity “to undertake the type of involved, collaborative work curriculum development involves.” (Titley et al., 2020, p. 311).

4.2.5 Cross-Case Analysis: Commonality and Tensions

Braun and Clarke (2022) warn of the “premature closure of analysis” and how this can lead to a superficial analysis which only captures “the most obvious meanings in the data” (p. 266). The thematic analysis in the previous section encouraged a re-immersion in the data with a recognition that there were other topics which emerged. Connelly and Peltzer (2016, pp. 52-57) in their article on underdeveloped themes in quantitative analysis suggest that this superficial analysis occurs because of confusion between data topics and themes. Braun and Clarke (2022) class data topics as those that can be summed up by a single word whereas themes are more nuanced.

One such topic was cohesion at a whole-school level. All three case studies had interpreted the curriculum guidance very differently in terms of language provision, but they all shared a commonality, that of a renewed cohesion as a school following curriculum development. For School A, this cohesion was centred on the Four

Purposes which governed every curriculum decision. In School B, the cohesion concerned Assessment for Learning and a whole-school approach to pedagogy. Whereas for School C, this cohesion was not at the AoLE level but was explicitly stated by all teachers, from key messages incorporated into PowerPoint presentations, to the school's pedagogical approach of "I do – We do – You do" and its whole-school diagnostic marking policy. Where there was a lack of cohesion, this was identified by all teachers. Two of the English teachers, for example, felt that English as a curriculum subject was more aligned to Humanities than to Welsh and international languages; the fact that this was raised demonstrated how important this notion of cohesion and alignment was to teachers.

It was evident that in the three schools, curriculum planning at the school level had "provided the structure and architecture for pupils' learning" in the schemes of work which in turn "allows for teachers' autonomy in the delivery of the scheme as it unfolds, lesson by lesson." (Myatt, 2018, p. 38). Even though in these three cases, the teachers interviewed perceived this meso-level curriculum planning to have been effective, Priestley et al, (2021) warn of the "bowdlerization of complex ideas that become reduced to slogans" (p. 19) that can happen at this level of curriculum making.

Another topic identified, albeit much more nuanced, was pride, which was inferred by what teachers said and the way in which they said it. Even though there were elements of the curriculum organisation they questioned, there was pride in having a curriculum that purpose-driven and that all teachers were "collectively working towards teaching our pupils with the Four Purposes in mind to prepare them for the future" (Teacher 1). For Newton (2020), the notion of subsidiarity in sites of curriculum making has strengthened teachers' professionalism, responsibility and ownership of the reforms as well as "reinvigorating teaching and improving quality" (p. 2). Teachers in School C were proud of the fact that curriculum-planning activities had encouraged all departments to work together to make sure that schemes of work were aligned across the school. Teachers from School A were proud of having been early adopters of the new curriculum and how they felt empowered to make curriculum decisions because they knew from experience what worked. For School B, teachers demonstrated not

only pride in the whole school endeavour to plan a curriculum that suited their schools' context, but in not having to make arbitrary links and having the freedom and agency to shape their own schemes of work.

Tensions between the case studies concerned the topic of interpretation. Each school had interpreted the curriculum guidance very differently in the spirit of CfW, but this also gave rise to a potential inability to easily collaborate between schools. One of the teachers, for example, spoke of her despair of being unable to work collaboratively with other schools as her school was on a quite different stage of planning compared with other schools. There was also a stark difference in the interpretation of the What Matters statements. Whilst there was cohesion at the school level and this issue is not of concern within the same school, a pupil who moved from one school to another might have a considerably different experience. This supported by Newton's (2020) research that "any focus on relevance shaped at the local level will increase variability between schools." (p. 223).

Following the thematic analysis of the data that emerged from the semi-structured interviews that has been covered in Part A, it was important to establish if the interviewees' perceptions were shared by the wider population of LLC teachers in Wales "to enhance the rigour of the research" (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 171). Thus, the subsequent questionnaire, described in Part B, was a data triangulation strategy to establish whether there were any "possibilities of discrepancies and disagreements between the different sources" (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 171).

4.3 Part B: Quantitative Analysis

In this second part of the chapter, the main emphasis is on quantitative analysis of the survey data using the data analysis software SPSS. The main aim of this quantitative analysis was to ascertain whether the broad levels of sentiments of the wider LLC population mirrored the views of the case study teachers interviewed. It should be noted that teachers' comments in the survey were also analysed in a qualitative way.

To this end, all qualitative data from Section B “Any Comments” and Section D of the questionnaire which was entitled “Your thoughts” was coded before thematic analysis could take place. Where codes matched those used in the analysis of interviews, the same code label was used. This analysis is recorded in response to RQ2 later in the section.

Part 2 is organised around the three research questions. All relevant data sets are included in the body of the text. The conceptual framework underpins each element of this section with the intrapersonal dimension, the most important as teachers’ perceptions and confidence levels have been interrogated. The interpersonal dimension is also essential as collaboration is a key part of CfW as shown by the organisation of the AoLE. Furthermore, institutional factors also have a significant relevance to teachers, and they are also affected by community network factors and the societal dimension.

4.3.1 Statistical Analysis

Convenience sampling, a type of non-probability sampling was used for the questionnaire in this research and involved contacting all secondary schools in Wales, where language teachers then self-selected if they wanted to participate. This process is described in more detail in Chapter 3. The data obtained from the Qualtrics web survey was analysed in the following ways: where simple demographic information was needed, the *Results* function within Qualtrics allowed for pie charts to be produced from the demographic data because they are a useful visualisation “for showing proportions” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 754). For other questions, the survey was uploaded to SPSS and in turn data tables were moved into Microsoft Excel to streamline the data and produce graphs.

For questions which used the Likert scale, it is important to note that “we cannot use the mean as a measure of central tendency” as questioning what the average responses of “Strongly Agree” responses and “Strongly Disagree” statements, for example, “has

no meaning” whereas the median is an “appropriate measure” (CEED, 2023, para. 15). For more complex data analysis, SPSS statistical software suite was used. To prepare for crosstabulation through SPSS, for reasons of parsimony the Likert scale responses of *Strongly Disagree* and *Moderately Disagree* categories were conflated as *Disagree* and *Strongly Agree* and *Moderately Agree* as *Agree* and with *Neither Agree nor Disagree*. These responses were recoded using the Transform function on SPSS. This meant that every category in the Likert Scale was assigned a numerical value e.g., Strongly Agree was assigned the numerical value 1 etc. The Recoding into Different Variables facility allowed the old 1-5 values to be changed to 1–3 shown in the table (Table 4.2) below:

Old Value	Numerical Value	New Value	Numerical Value
Strongly Disagree	1	Disagree	1
Moderately Disagree	2	Disagree	1
Neither disagree nor agree	3	Neither	2
Moderately Agree	4	Agree	3
Strongly Agree	5	Agree	3

Table 4.2. Recoding into different variables

What was of interest here was to summarise and compare the less nuanced and broader levels of sentiment of teachers’ perceptions, so the neutral responses and overall positive and negative responses were used as “there is no assumption of equal intervals between the categories” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 482) and participants tend to avoid the extreme ends of the scale (ibid). This then allowed analysis of the data and a crosstabulation to occur with statements compared with a number of different categorical variables described in 4.3.6.

When you obtain a set of results in educational research, significance or difference testing “is an important feature” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 789) as “quantitative testing is virtually synonymous with significance testing” (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 440). In this case, the chi-square test was used as a test of difference between two categorical variables; this process is described in more detail in 4.2.6. The variables mentioned

above were analysed but, for most tests, there was insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis which is an “assumption of “no difference” (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 440)

4.3.2 Demographic information of respondents

Following a pilot questionnaire, the final questionnaire was sent to curriculum leads in the four consortia to send to schools as well as direct-emailing of the 130 English medium schools and 52 Welsh-medium schools or schools with bilingual provision in Wales (Collen et al, 2021). Details of the questionnaire were also posted on the Welsh Government Hwb website and on social media (both Twitter and Facebook). The questionnaire was then answered by 125 respondents with 103 respondents fully completing the survey (82.4% completion rate) which could be seen as “a good sized and representative sample” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 497). The response rate to this section is shown in the Table below (Table 4.3):on

Survey Question	Respondents
Used triple / multilingual literacy	103
Departmental position of responsibility	103
Age	103
Years of teaching	103
Gender	103
Teacher training in Wales	102
Pioneer School	103
Main language of school	103

Table 4.3. Number of respondents

Teachers from the sample population were all qualified and practising teachers of English, Welsh and international languages in Wales, working in both Welsh-medium and English-medium settings in the state sector. It was important to translate the survey and accompanying letter into Welsh to make sure all potential respondents felt included in the request for participation. Section A of the questionnaire gathered demographic information from the respondents which initially served the purpose of ascertaining whether respondents were part of the desired sample population, and this also allowed categorical variables in this sample to be compared with the distribution of variables in other categories later in this section.

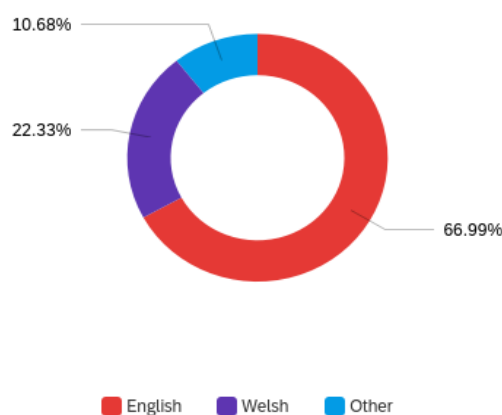


Figure 4-7. Section A Q1 - First language

As shown in Figure 4.7, of the 103 participants who fully completed the survey, 22.3% stated that their first language was Welsh. This is higher than the number of Welsh speakers in Wales which is 17.8% (Welsh Government, 2022g.) reported in the Annual Population Survey in 2021. It is interesting to note, however, that whilst 23 respondents declared their first language to be Welsh, only one respondent used Welsh in the qualitative comments. This may reflect confidence in Welsh speakers in the domain specific language of a survey as expressed by one respondent: “Welsh is my mother tongue, but English is my predominant language” and the same respondent answered the survey in English.

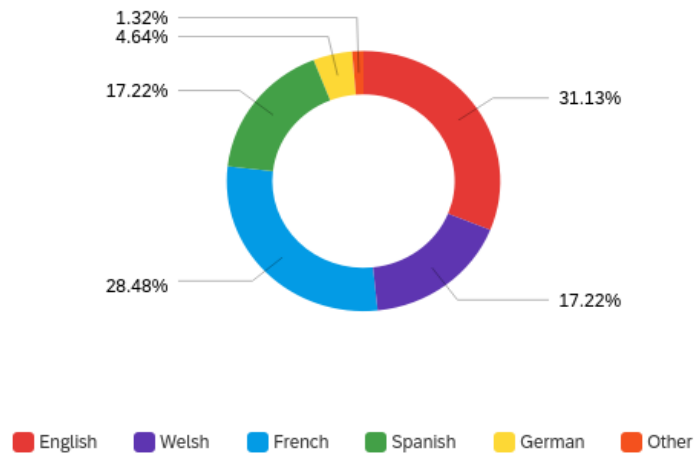


Figure 4-8. Section A Q2 - Languages taught

In terms of international languages, Figure 4.8 shows that French dominates (28.48%) with the dwindling number of German teachers reflecting the overall demise of the language in Wales over the last decade, although this has stabilized more recently (Collen et al., 2021). The other two languages taught were Mandarin and Italian by two of the respondents. The distribution of languages reflects the data gained by Language Trends Wales (ibid) which showed that of the pupils who studied an international language, 56% were entered for GCSE French, 33% for Spanish and 11% for German. The comparatively high numbers of teachers of international languages who responded to the survey might reflect the fact that traditionally crosslinguistic work was seen as the domain of the Modern Foreign Languages department and so the survey would have appealed more to these participants.

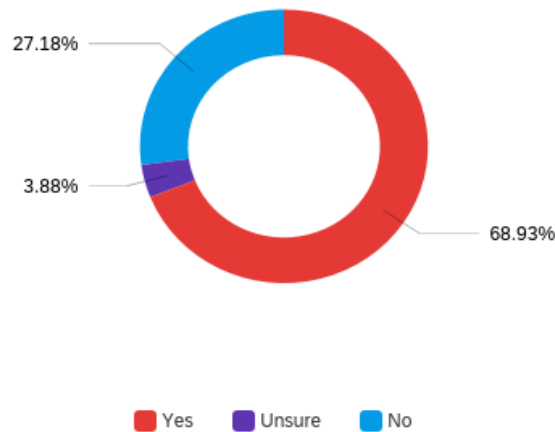


Figure 4-9. Section A Q3 - Triple Literacy

Respondents were asked “Have you ever used triple / multilingual literacy activities in your teaching?” (Figure 4.9) Of the 103 respondents, 68.93% replied in the affirmative. This correlated with the case study teachers – 6 out of the 9 teachers interviewed (66.6%) had used triple / multilingual literacy activities in the past but, interestingly, none of those interviewed saw relevance in this type of pedagogical practice in CfW.

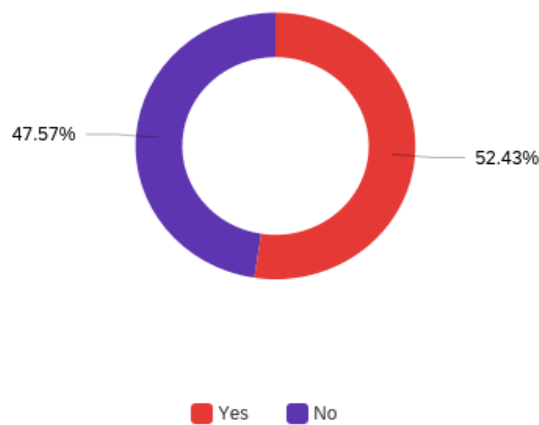


Figure 4-10. Section A Q4 - Departmental position of responsibility

The relevance in this data (Figure 4.10) is that most respondents held a departmental responsibility (52.43%) which may reflect their confidence in speaking about curriculum changes. Similarly, from the data that emerged from the interviews, those participants who held a TLR, such as Teacher 2, felt more ownership in the curriculum

reform process and those who did not have any responsibility were keen to express how they were happy for those in leadership positions to make curriculum decisions.

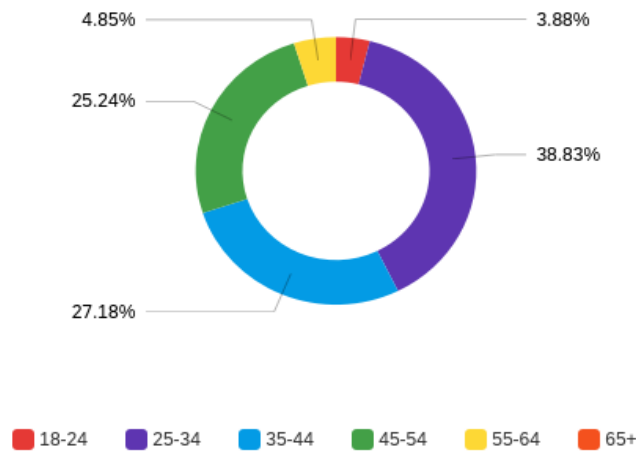


Figure 4-11. Section A Q5 - Age of respondent

Figure 4.11 shows that the age group 25-34 had the highest representation amongst respondents (38.83%) and, there could be a correlation between this data and confidence in completing online surveys. The implications of the age of respondents will be discussed later in the chapter to examine whether teachers' age has any link with their confidence in the pedagogical practices needed to deliver What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*.

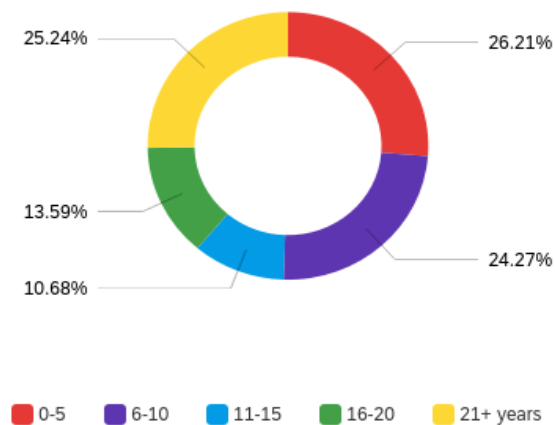


Figure 4-12. Section A Q6 - Years of teaching

It is interesting to note that the highest number of respondents (26.21%) came from early career teachers (Figure 4.12). There are similarities between this result and Teacher 1's comments that she felt that being a recently qualified teacher had meant that she was more confident in CfW planning. Conversely the second highest number of respondents came from those who had been teaching 21+ years (25.24%) which will serve as useful analysis in the section on data variables.

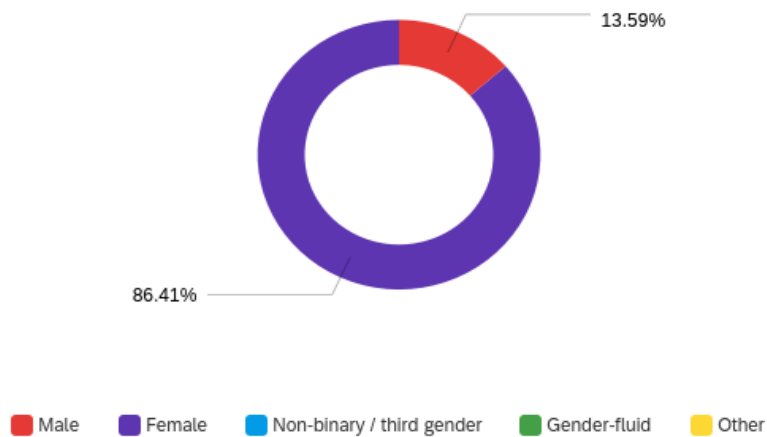


Figure 4-13. Section A Q7 - Gender

Even though respondents were given a choice of answers (*Male / Female / Non-binary / Other*) they only responded to Male or Female (Figure 4.13). Whilst it shows the trend of predominantly female teaching force in Wales, the sample does not reflect the representation of 34% male teachers in 2021/22 in Wales (Stats Wales, 2021: online).

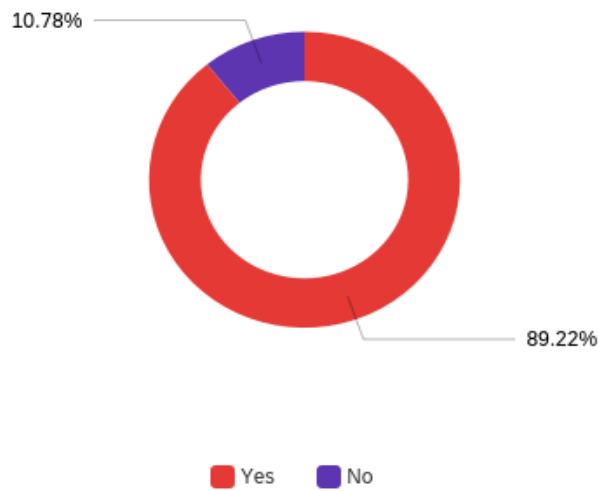


Figure 4-14. Teacher training in Wales

It is interesting to note here that, if 89.22% of future students train to be teachers in Wales as the respondents did, the workforce will have a good grounding in CfW (Figure 4.14). The current 10.78% of teachers who trained outside Wales, will have had to upskill to be able to understand the Welsh context.

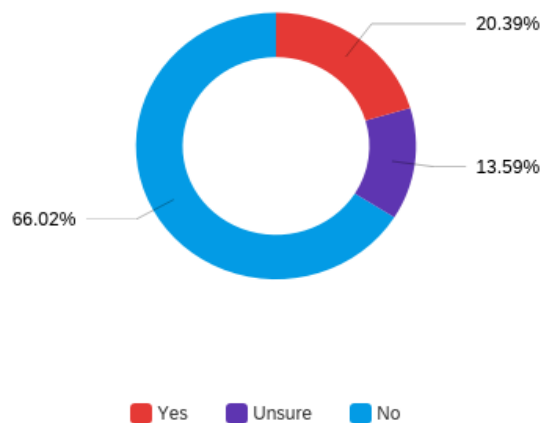


Figure 4-15. Section A Q9 - Pioneer school

Of the respondents who fully completed the questionnaire, 20.39% worked in Pioneer Schools (Figure 4.15). In the interviews, staff from School A were more confident about curriculum reform because their school had been a Pioneer School and as a result, they were early adopters of the AoLE structure, for example. This would

suggest that most respondents from the questionnaire had only just started their curriculum planning or were less confident as seen by staff from School B and C.

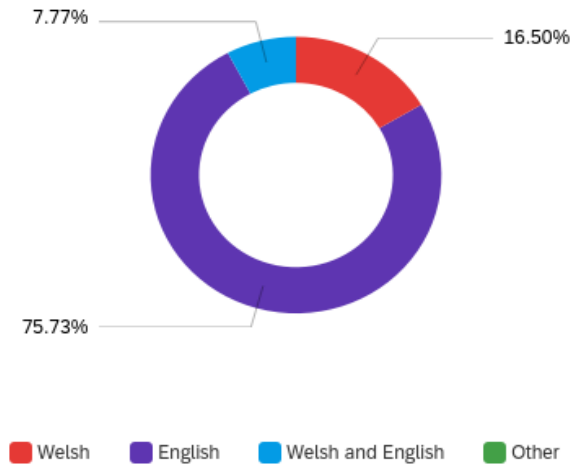


Figure 4-16. Section A Q10 - Main language of school

For teachers who had responded to the direct email, 75.73% worked in school where English was the main language (Figure 4.16). This mirrors the ratio English medium schools (133 schools) to Welsh-medium schools in Wales (59 schools).

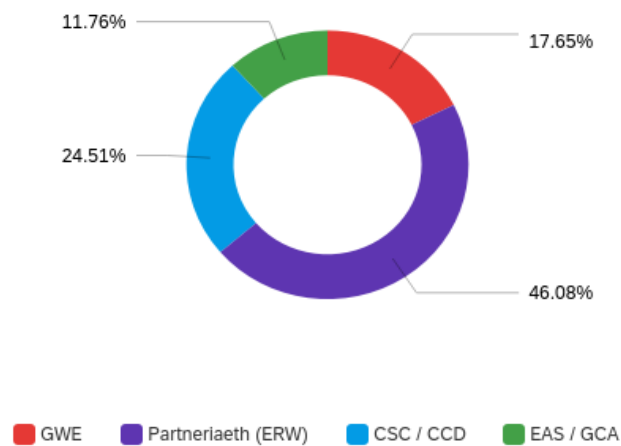


Figure 4-17. Section A Q11 - Consortia

The higher representation of teachers from Partneriaeth (formerly ERW) might be explained by the consortium's previous leading role on multilingual literacy and

training on the LLC which might have encouraged more teachers from this area to correspond (Figure 4.17).

Overall, the data would suggest that the questionnaire respondents were “knowledgeable people” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 219) in the context of this research which adds further rigour to this questionnaire as a triangulation strategy.

4.3.3 Research Questions (RQ)

4.3.3.1 RQ1

To consider research question 1 (RQ1): *What are English, Welsh and International Language teachers’ perceptions of the Languages, Literacy and Communication Area of Learning and Experience?* data was analysed from Section B of the survey. This section initially questioned respondents on how knowledgeable they perceived themselves to be about elements of CfW, before assessing their attitude towards CfW and the LLC. There was an attrition rate of 10% which could be explained by survey fatigue and a lack of time or a lack of interest in the topic. It may well have been that overloading respondents with demographic questions had placed “too great a burden” (Cohen et al., 2018: 498) on them to want to proceed.

It was deemed essential to check on how knowledgeable teachers felt about elements about CfW in Question 12, as this knowledge has the potential to shape their perceptions. It also shows where they feel less secure in their knowledge of curriculum changes. Teachers were asked to consider their knowledge in relation to Curriculum for Wales as a whole (Figure 4.18), to the Four Purposes (Figure 4.19), to the AoLEs in general (Figure 4.20) and the LLC AoLE, in particular (Figure 4.21).

There was a consensus amongst teachers, demonstrating that they perceived themselves equally knowledgeable about CfW, the Four Purposes and the LLC AoLE (Agreement of 80.7%, 80.6% and 81.8 % respectively) and slightly less

knowledgeable about AoLEs in general (74.2%). In terms of the median response, these varied between 4.0 for knowledge of CfW, 4.6 for knowledge of the Four Purposes, 3.95 for knowledge about the AoLEs in general and 4.09 for knowledge about the LLC AoLE. Overall, these results were in line with all three case studies where teachers were knowledgeable about the changes to the curriculum as a whole and about the LLC AoLE. However, it could also show that teachers felt pressure to demonstrate that they were knowledgeable.

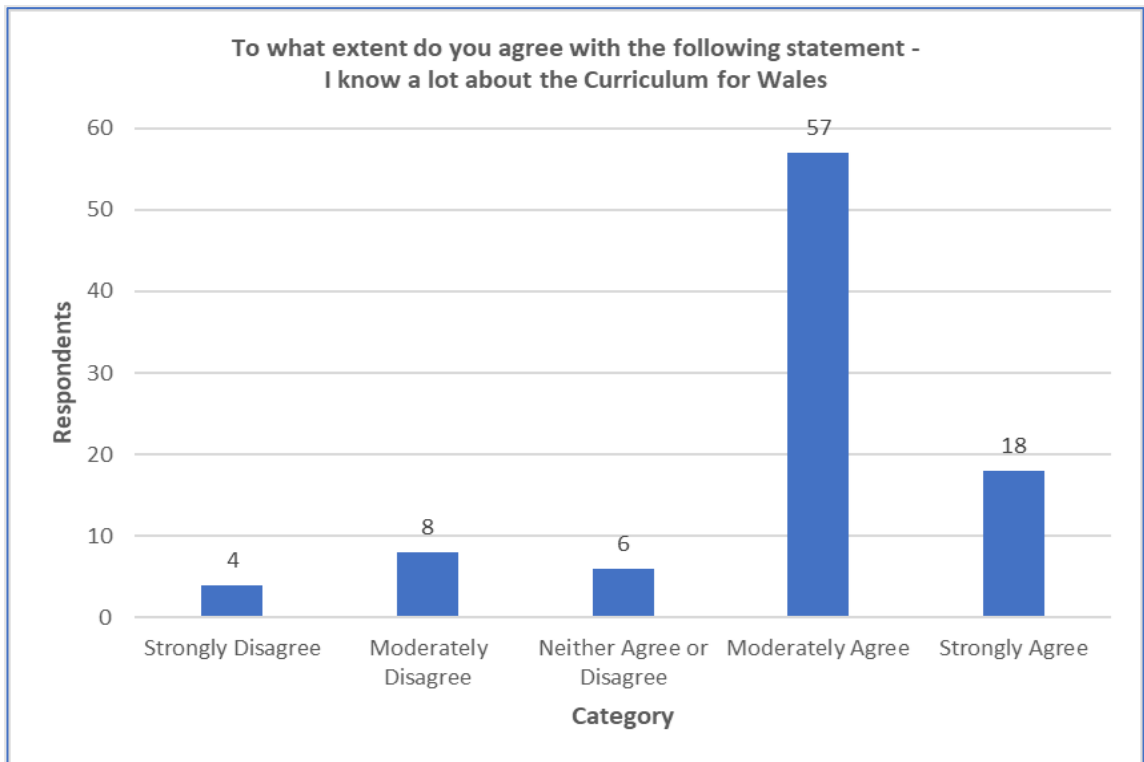


Figure 4-18. Section B Q12 - Knowledge about CfW

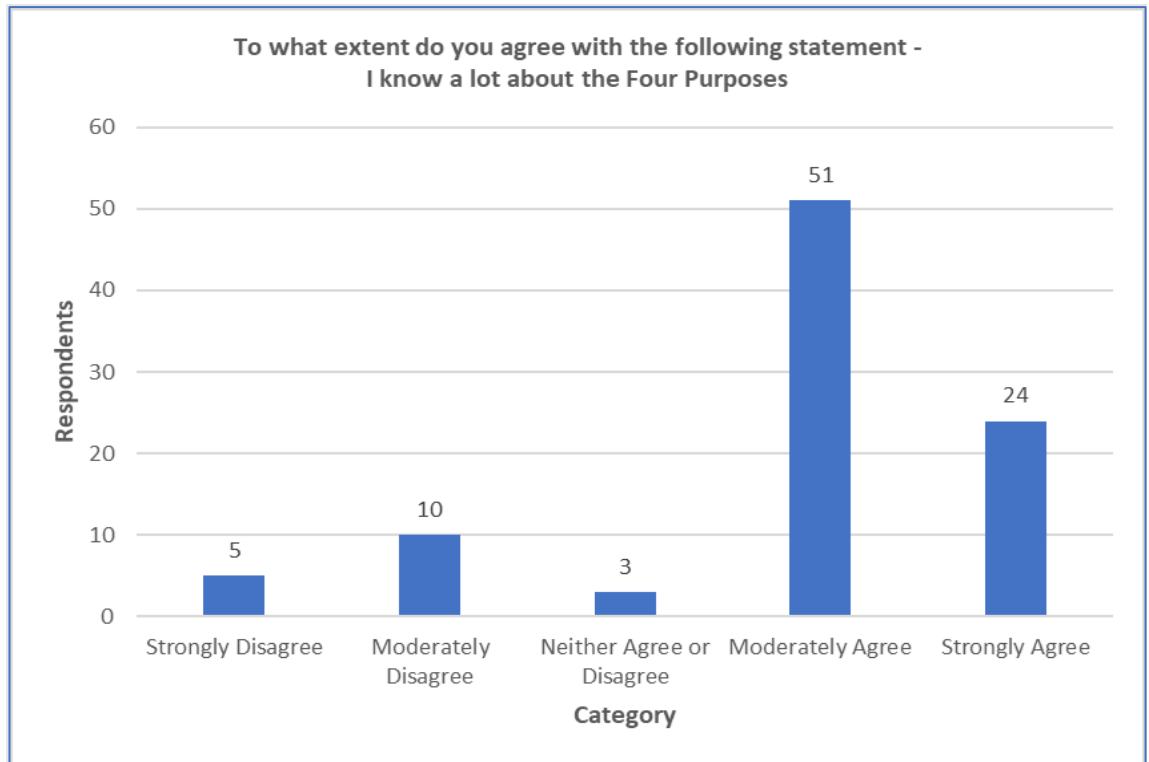


Figure 4-19. Section B Q13 - Knowledge about Four Purposes

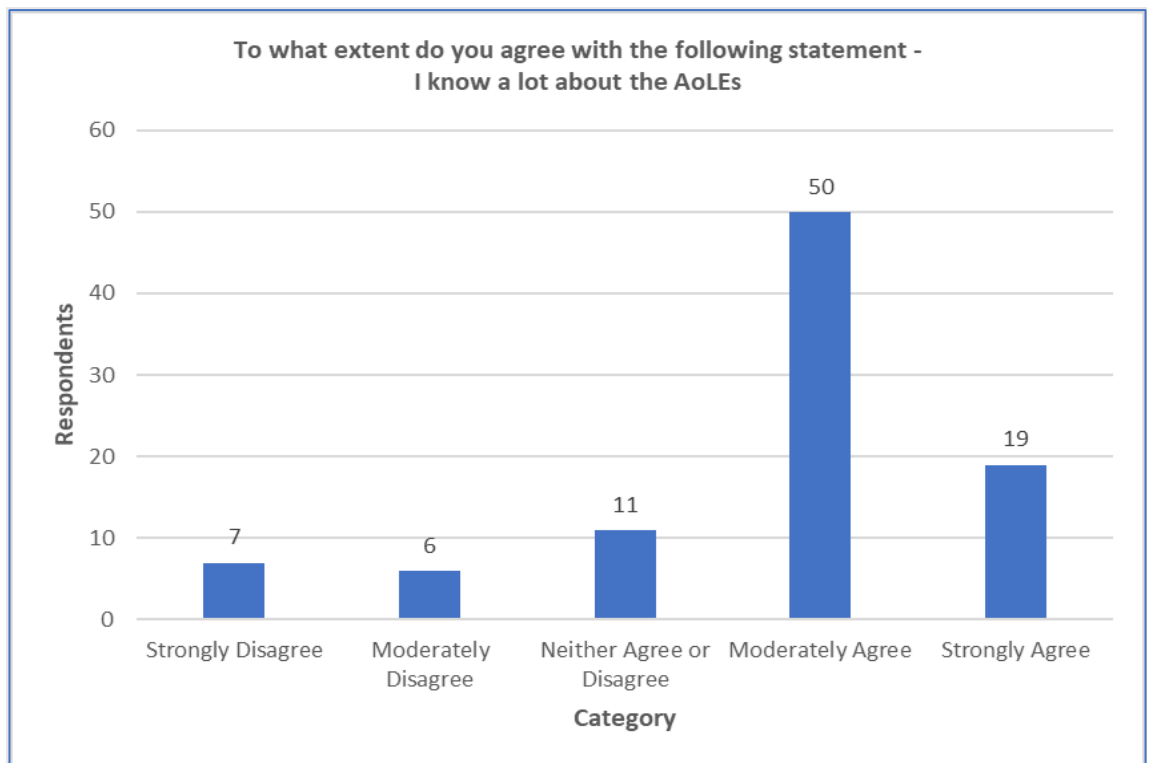


Figure 4-20. Section B Q14 - Knowledge about AoLEs

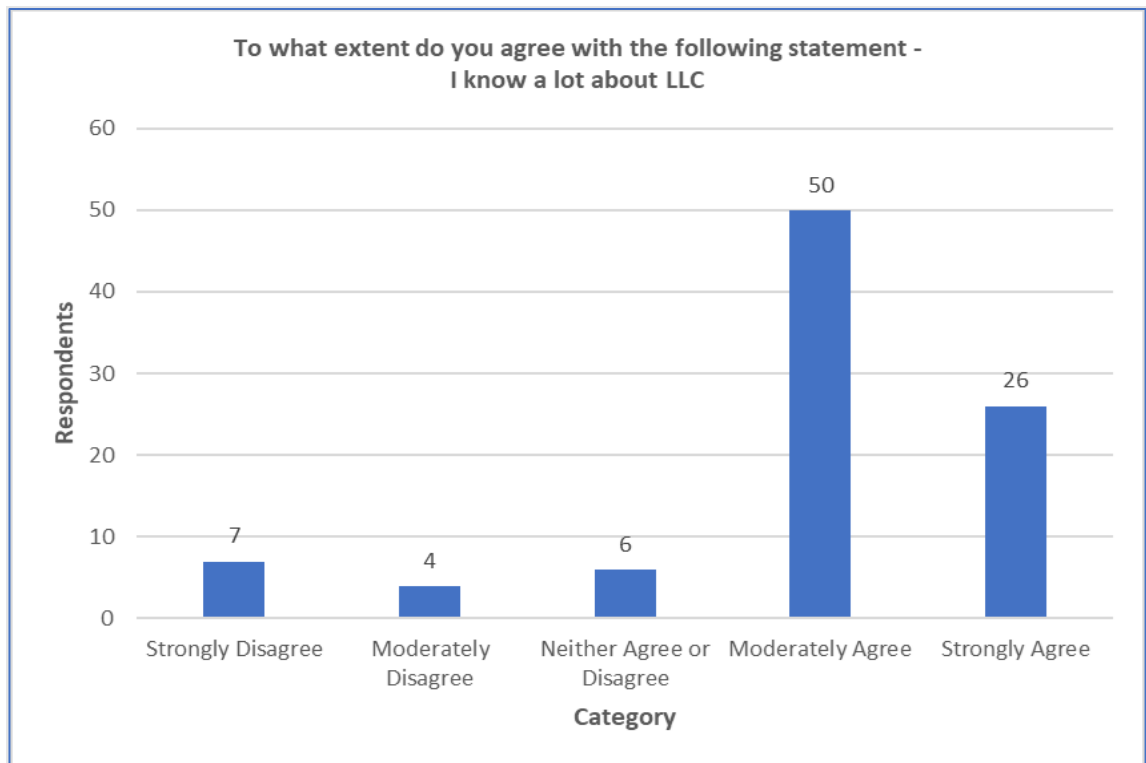


Figure 4-21. Section B Q15 - Knowledge about LLC AoLE

For Question 13, respondents were asked to consider their attitude towards the LLC, in particular the *What Matters* statements (Figure 4.22), the grouping of languages (Figure 4.23), progression in LLC (Figure 4.24) and assessment in LLC (Figure 4.25). For attitudes towards the *What Matters* statements, there was greater agreement with the statement (49.2% agree as opposed to 23.7% disagree). Regarding the grouping of English, Welsh and International Languages opinions were divided with 46.2% disagreeing and 37.4% agreeing with the statement “I have a positive attitude about the grouping of English, Welsh and International Languages”. This clear difference in opinion might be owing to schools’ readiness to deliver CfW, how long AoLEs have been operational or confidence in finding meaningful links between the languages. The higher percentage of disagreement reflects the consensus of the teachers interviewed who saw benefit to the grouping of Welsh and International Languages but not to the inclusion of English and so were overall dissatisfied with the grouping.

As for attitudes towards progression (Figure 4.24), 46.7% agreed with the statement and this broad agreement was seen in the interviews where Teacher 3 voiced a shared perception: “I’m not fearful about progression because I know that they’re going to make progress.”. Where questionnaire respondents disagreed with the statement this may reflect a common concern from the interviews of “How are we going to measure this?” This concern can be seen in the question regarding assessment where the median score was 2.73 and most respondents, namely 44.1%, disagreed with the statement, compared with 30.1% who agreed.

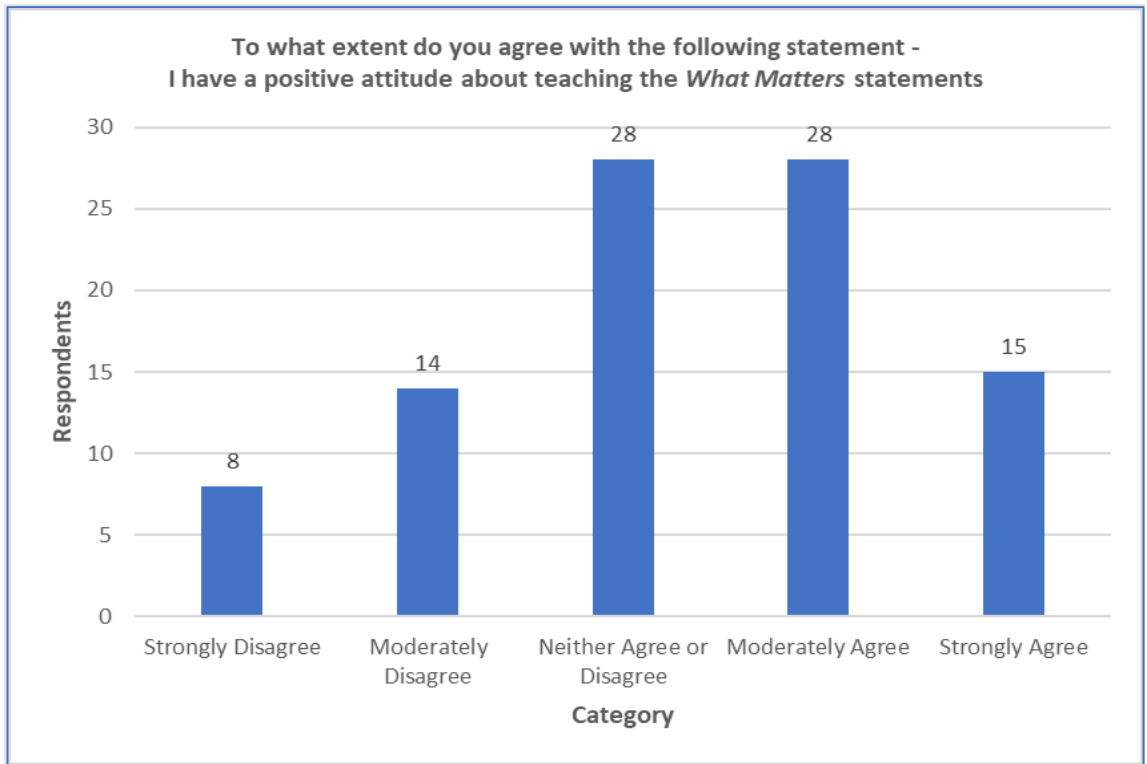


Figure 4-22. Section B Q13a - Attitude towards teaching *What Matters* statements

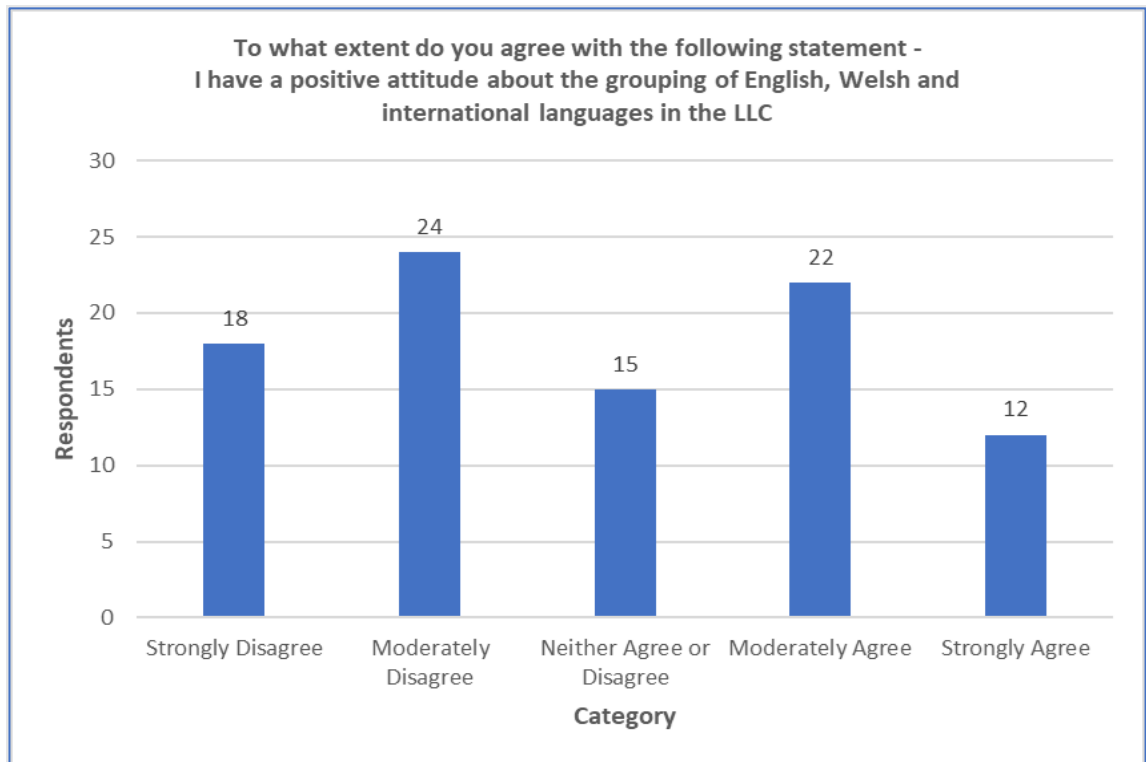


Figure 4-23. Section B Q13b - Attitude towards grouping of languages

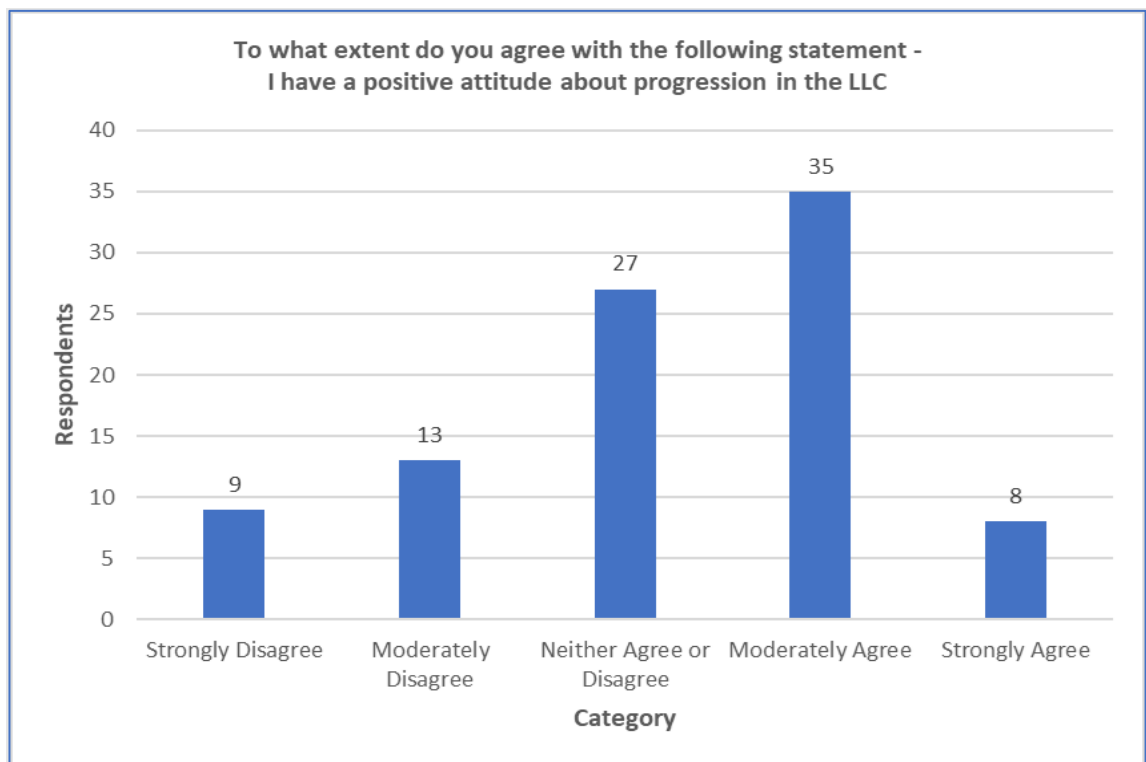


Figure 4-24. Section B Q13c - Attitude about Progression in LLC

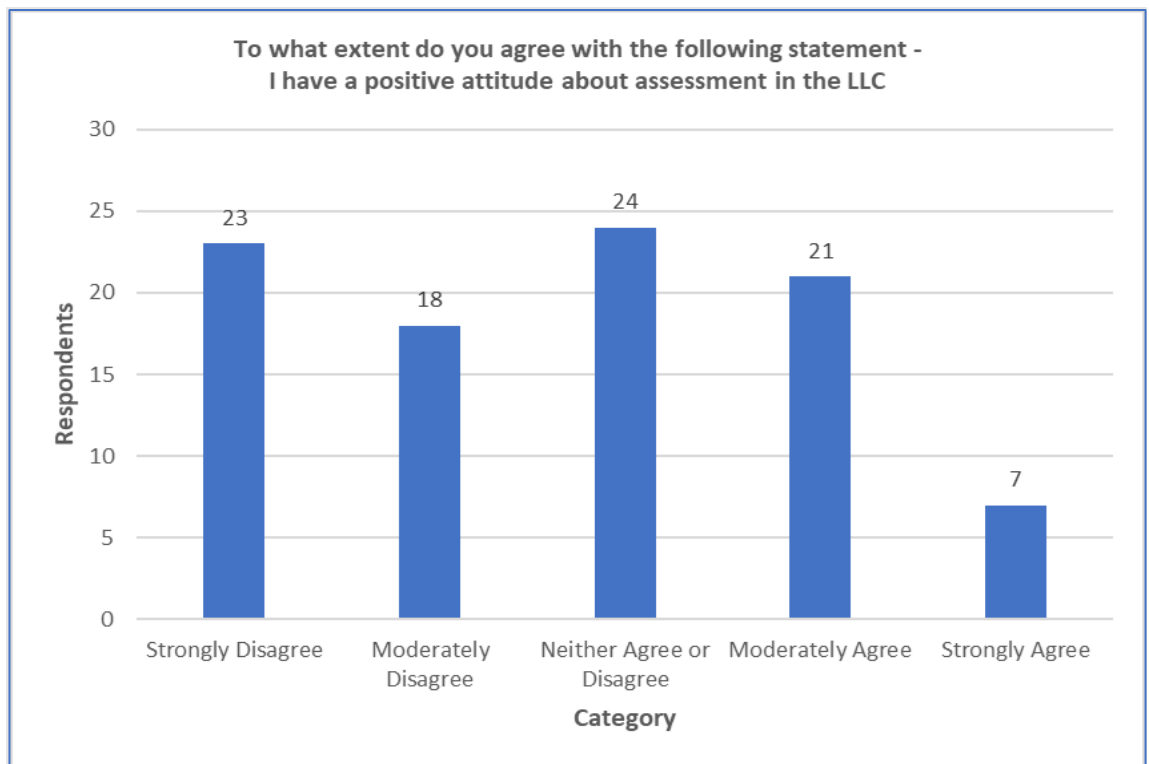


Figure 4-25. Section B Q13d - Attitude about Assessment in LLC

4.3.3.2 RQ2

Data from Section D of the questionnaire which was entitled *Your thoughts* will be used in this section in response to RQ2: *What challenges are teachers of Welsh, English and international languages facing in delivering the LLC AoLE and how will they overcome these challenges?* Respondents' statements were coded to allow for thematic analysis. The coding process, which is described in more detail earlier in this chapter and in Chapter 3, involved a manual process of cutting and pasting relevant data into a spreadsheet under three headings: Category, Subcategory and Coding description. As the analysis of the qualitative data from the *Your thoughts* section fitted in with the codes that emerged from the thematic analysis of the interview transcripts, the same code labels have been used. One additional theme was identified from the thematic analysis, namely "Finding the time".

'Spanish is Spanish, Welsh is Welsh, English is English'

This theme was the most significant theme and all the sub-themes from this theme are presented in a frequency table below (Table 4.4). The theme focusses on maintaining the subject integrity of each language in the Area, the distinctiveness of each language as well as challenges in the grouping of languages.

SPANISH IS SPANISH, ENGLISH IS ENGLISH, WELSH IS WELSH SUB-THEMES	FREQUENCY
Time allocation for MFL	5
Recognition for MFL	3
Lack of parity between languages	3
Conflict between AoLE colleagues	6
First and second language challenges	9
English is in wrong AoLE	3
Welsh political agenda	3
Less time for literacy	2
Dumbing down	2
Arbitrary links	4
Keep subject specialism	2

Table 4.4. Frequency Table, sub themes

There was less of a focus on keeping subject specialisms although one participant felt that “maintaining the integrity and academic respect of key disciplines as separate subjects at GCSE” should be a key focus of CfW, another concurred stating that “maintaining sense of independence” was vital for each language and another stated that it was imperative to create “a consistent curriculum approach whilst also outlining importance of subject specialism”.

Collaboration or the challenges of collaboration, however, was a recurring topic with one participant railing against “feeling constrained by collaborating with LLC colleagues” with another participant adding that “forcing subjects into AOLES goes against fluid collaboration and natural cross curricular links” and another questioning new power differentials: “A challenge is possibly being told how to teach Spanish/Welsh by a Head of English!?” The divide between English and the other two languages was evident here. In English medium settings, this highlights the dichotomy between first language and second language with pupils being in “different stages of language acquisition” in the languages. This is clearly frustrating for English teachers;

one expressed the view that it was challenging “working with other languages when pupils have a very basic knowledge of them and are far more advanced in English.”. On the other hand, the other languages felt the curriculum was making “arbitrary links between English and other languages” and that English teachers were reluctant to engage, with one participant simply stating “working with the English department” as a challenge and another participant agreed that it was extremely difficult “to get the English teaching staff to buy into importance of other languages”, which was countered by another participant writing the biggest challenge was “integrating and making links with international language”.

From an English teachers’ perspective, the focus on collaboration was causing a “detriment to reading, oracy and writing skills through lost hours in English.” This view was shared by another participant: “The amount of time dedicated to literacy will be affected negatively - I feel it’s such an important skill this should be an explicit area rather than mixing with languages.”

Not only that but working together as three languages as an LLC was considered difficult “without compromising or dumbing down”. Just as in the interviews, some participants felt that English is in the wrong AoLE, voiced by one participant: “I don’t think English is in the correct AOLE” and another, “English links better with e.g., history and expressive arts, even science”. Another participant felt that there was political motivation behind the decision to group the languages together: “The political agenda to force people to learn Welsh and the combination of all languages in the AoLE when there are closer links to English with History or even Expressive Arts.”

The lack of parity in curriculum allocation was a concern on the part of international languages teachers who yearned for “the same standing in schools as English and Welsh” with another participant wishing that international languages “are given a fair place in schools regarding time allocation.” One demonstrated the problem: “I currently teach Spanish, in KS3 we have 3 hours per fortnight.” Another added (in Welsh): “*Caiff dwy iaith eu cyfrin bynciau craidd ac un yn bwnc anghraidd, hyn yn*

golygu nad oes cysondeb o ran oriau cyswllt, cydnabyddiaeth arweinwyr pwnc a daw”r disgyblion i’r ysgol a llai o afael ar yr iaith ryngwladol.”[Two languages are counted as core subjects and one as a non-core subject, this means that there is no consistency in terms of contact hours, recognition of subject leaders and the pupils come to school and have less grasp of the international language].

In line with the interviewed teachers, some participants considered that the AoLE might give a “bigger profile for MFL which could help reverse the decline.” However, many respondents were critical of forced links between the languages, exemplified by one teacher who stated that “students dislike learning about holidays in all 3 languages at the same time - forcing links is not effective.” Despite the dislike of forced links, there was acknowledgement that finding the right links “could help learners transfer knowledge and skills from one subject to another which could hopefully increase engagement, develop learners’ skills and enabling them to become more independent learners.”

For the AoLE to be a success, one participant felt that the “grammatical awareness of English teachers needed to be developed as well as a “common framework for MFL and Welsh teaching.”. There were positive comments on collaboration with colleagues “to provide rich learning opportunities for pupils without the confines of accountability measures and exam pressures” and to learn from each other. One teacher of international languages voiced a concern that unless there was collaboration, “it might become difficult to unilaterally build on skills” within this AOLE; although there should not be “too much focus on links” but instead ‘solid foundations of individual language learning and the links between them”.

“So, there’s more freedom”

Many participants felt one of the best features of CfW was “autonomy for schools to choose content”. This was echoed by another participant who felt that the freedom to create a new curriculum “will have the best chance of maximising learner outcomes in terms of preparing them for their futures.”. However, for other participants the freedom was synonymous with “a lack of guidance” with one participant citing this freedom as “creating significant anxiety and concern among teachers.”. Another participant voiced concern that ‘such a level of freedom” caused a “lack of consistency between schools and across Wales” which was echoed by the teachers who were interviewed.

“Because of COVID”

Whilst there were fewer comments about the pandemic in comparison to the semi-structured interviews where it was very prevalent. It still occurred in relation to planning for CfW: “This is a big change so soon after a pandemic, more time to plan would be of value to us so we can plan effectively and not properly plan for a purpose driven curriculum because of time restrictions” and its impact was still keenly felt by teachers as exemplified by this respondent who mentioned that one of the challenges was “the increased workload that the pandemic has generated”. Not only that but the repercussions of the pandemic are still being felt by LLC teachers: “We are still in a pandemic - priorities have changed.”

“How are we going to measure this?”

The lack of prescription in the “woolly What Matters statements” was of concern for one participant, with progression levels ‘still a grey area” and this reflected a general feeling of discontent with regards assessment: “the major issue with CfW at the moment is assessment is not ironed out and therefore we, as educator practitioners, do not 100% understand the end goal.” This sentiment mirrors the words of Teacher 3

who stated that “we’re at the teething stage” regarding understanding progression and assessment as “we don’t know where we’re going with this.”. It also correlates with the data collected in Section B of the questionnaire on teachers’ confidence levels in monitoring pupil progression (Figure 4.26) and assessing pupils (Figure 4.27) where in both data sets the unease about the new arrangements for progression and assessment can be seen. It would have been expected that the experienced workforce would feel high degrees in confidence in both areas as these are key foci for any teacher. Whilst most teachers were confident – 58.1% for progression and 55.9% for assessment, the percentage who opted for the neutral option in both (16.1% for progression and 15.1% for assessment) or who chose “unconfident” (27.8% for progression and 29.0% for assessment) is concerning.

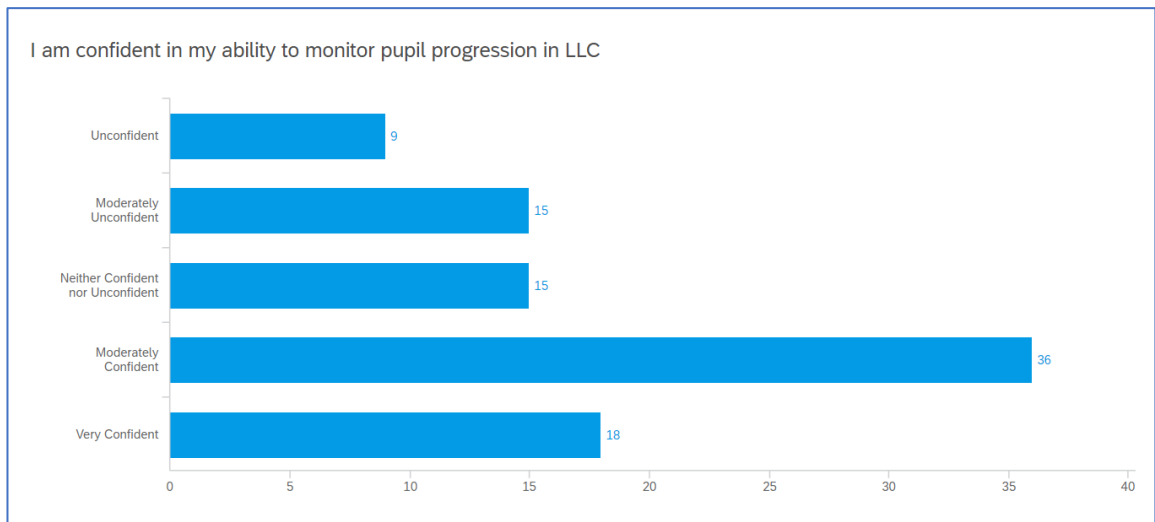


Figure 4-26. Section B Q 14a - Teacher confidence in monitoring pupil progression in LLC

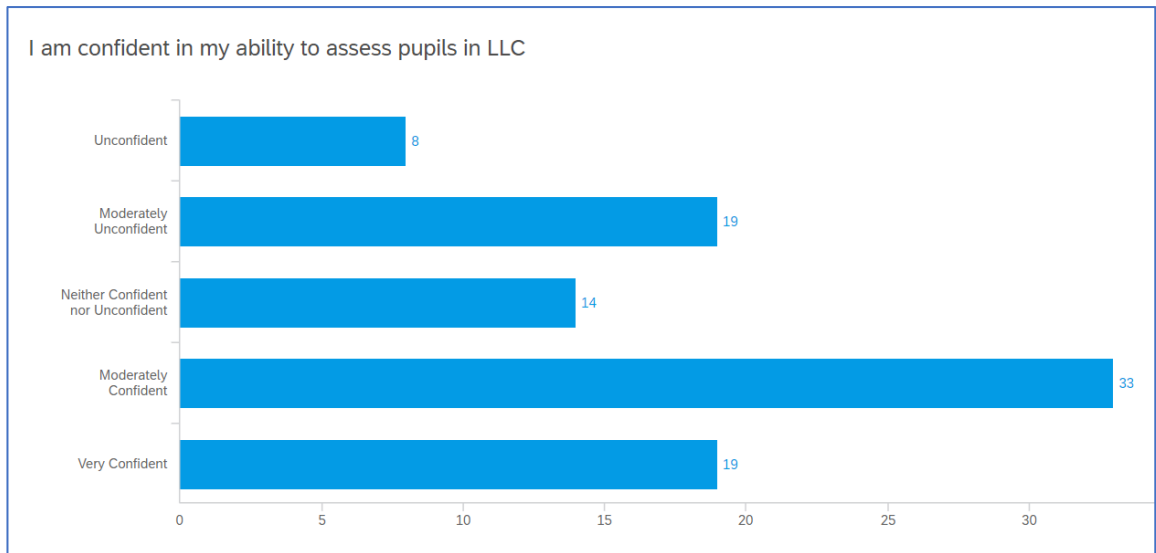


Figure 4-27. Section B Q 14b -Teacher confidence in assessing pupils in LLC

The main problem for participants is the lack of guidance: “For secondary schools, the lack of clarity on assessments makes planning beyond the theoretical almost impossible.” Another participant agreed with this sentiment, adding: “From reading all the documents I feel like a lot is put on middle leaders to design a subject curriculum with little help and guidance.”

For one teacher, the socio-economic imbalance in Wales is a factor, with some of these disadvantages already present prior to the pandemic exacerbated by COVID-19 (Waters-Davies et al., 2022): “The idea that if you teach them well enough, they can be assessed any way and succeed might work well for Tarquin and Lucretia in School Z, but elsewhere it’s pure fantasy”. For another, the AoLE structure is causing a problem: “All guidance is vague and it’s harder to implement in secondary schools due to the structure of separate subjects even within new AOLES.” Many participants were concerned about the GCSE in that teachers were now “preparing for qualifications that maybe do not align with the curriculum”; a viewpoint shared by another participant: “It is ridiculously vague and secondary schools still have to focus on GCSEs, so what will change?”. Overall, there was a feeling of concern and even despair, with “every school is flailing around in the dark” and one respondent adding: “I honestly think the new curriculum is a shambles. Without fundamentally changing GCSEs, we can’t change anything.”

“Finding the time”

This was a new, smaller theme that emerged from the participants’ comments with many considering a lack of time to effectively plan the biggest challenge they were facing. Comments concerned the time needed to make new schemes of work and resources and “to prepare thoroughly”. The added complication of needing to collaborate with LLC colleagues had exacerbated the situation, voiced by one participant who expressed the view that the biggest challenge was: “The additional workload and pressure of collaborating, modifying and implementing new schemes of work, especially with the effects of covid still affecting us.” One participant viewed professional development as a problem because of a lack of time whilst another participant felt the “excuses of practitioners” were more of an issue.

4.3.3.3 RQ 3

To address RQ3 - How confident are English, Welsh and international languages teachers in the pedagogical practices needed to teach elements of What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us?* - data was collected from Section B of the questionnaire regarding participants’ confidence levels in collaborating with AoLE colleagues and in teaching What Matters statement 1. Emerging from the interviews, it was clear some of the pedagogical practices were unfamiliar to teachers and so “familiarity” was considered a more effective metric here as testing teachers’ confidence in unfamiliar practices could make respondents feel uncomfortable. For each of the pedagogical practices, teachers were asked if they had ever used or would consider using the pedagogical practices as well as establishing if they perceived any potential for the pedagogy. Confidence then in these practices would be inferred by the researcher.

Teachers’ confidence levels are aligned to teacher self-efficacy, a term first coined by Bandura (1977) who defined it as “beliefs in one’s capabilities” (p. 40). Bandura observed that a group’s confidence in its abilities contributed to more successful outcomes, calling this “collective efficacy” (p. 477). Hattie (2016) considered collective efficacy to have the greatest influence on student achievement, with an

effect size of 1.57, as opposed to the average effect size of 0.40. Here teachers were asked to rate their confidence levels in collaborating with colleagues in the LLC AoLE (Figure 4.28) and in their ability to teach What Matters statement 1. What was most surprising was that whilst most participants felt confident about collaborating with LLC colleagues (63.5%), the number who were unconfident (21.5%) or who chose the neutral option is of concern (15.1%), especially as “professional collaboration benefits students and teachers alike.” (Hargreaves & O’Connor, 2018: 3). Some of the negativity surrounding is supported by teacher comments later in this section.

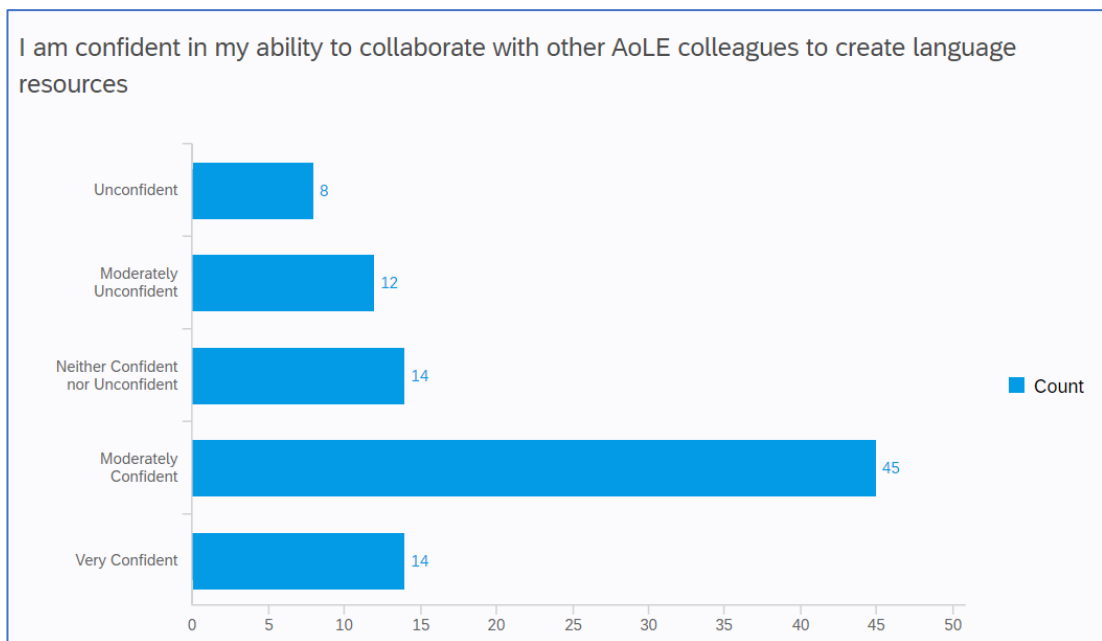


Figure 4-28. Section B Q 14c Confidence in LLC collaboration

For one participant, the What Matters statements were seen as the greatest opportunity for learners, providing them with “the bigger picture”. What Matters statement 1 – *Languages connect us*, has the potential to encourage collaboration between LLC colleagues, as expressed by one participant who recognises the benefit to teachers as well as learners: “I feel it will allow us to help learners engage with language learning in a more focused way and allow learners to make explicit links between languages.” One opportunity that this statement creates is “the chance to improve the use of terminology” across languages to ensure consistency. In terms of teacher confidence in teaching this statement (Figure 4.29), most teachers (60.2%) felt confident with fewer teachers feeling unconfident (20.5%), although it should be noted that 19.4% chose the neutral option, suggesting that they had not fully formed an opinion.

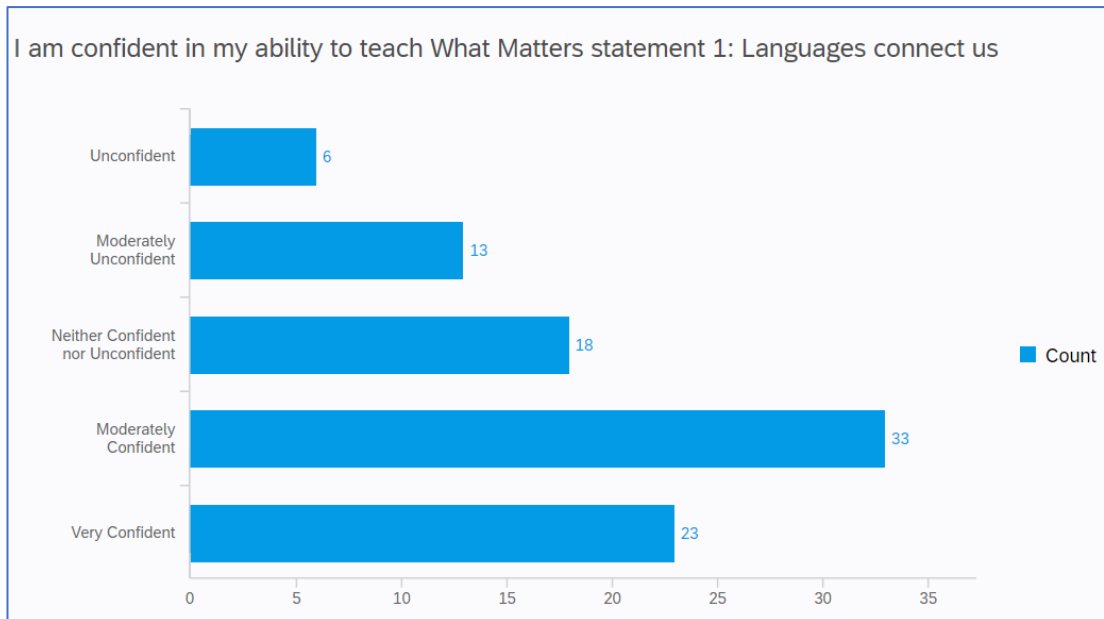


Figure 4-29. Section B Q 14d Confidence in What Matters 1

4.3.4 Pedagogical Practices

In Section C of the questionnaire, teachers were questioned about their familiarity with certain pedagogical practices that could support the teaching of What Matters statement 1 (Figure 4.30). Teachers were most familiar with etymology (80.24%) and Language Awareness (75.31%), somewhat familiar with translanguaging (64.3%) and least familiar with traditional *parsing* (35.8%) and CLIL (24.68%). For each of the pedagogical practices, teachers were asked to consider the following statements:

- I have used this pedagogical practice.
- I would consider using this pedagogical practice.
- I feel that this pedagogical practice is or has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice as part of classroom teaching.
- I feel that this pedagogical practice is or has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice for pupil engagement.

The percentage of agreement for each of these statements is recorded in Table 2 below. It was decided to concentrate on agreement statements only as this was considered more effective in indicating confidence levels.

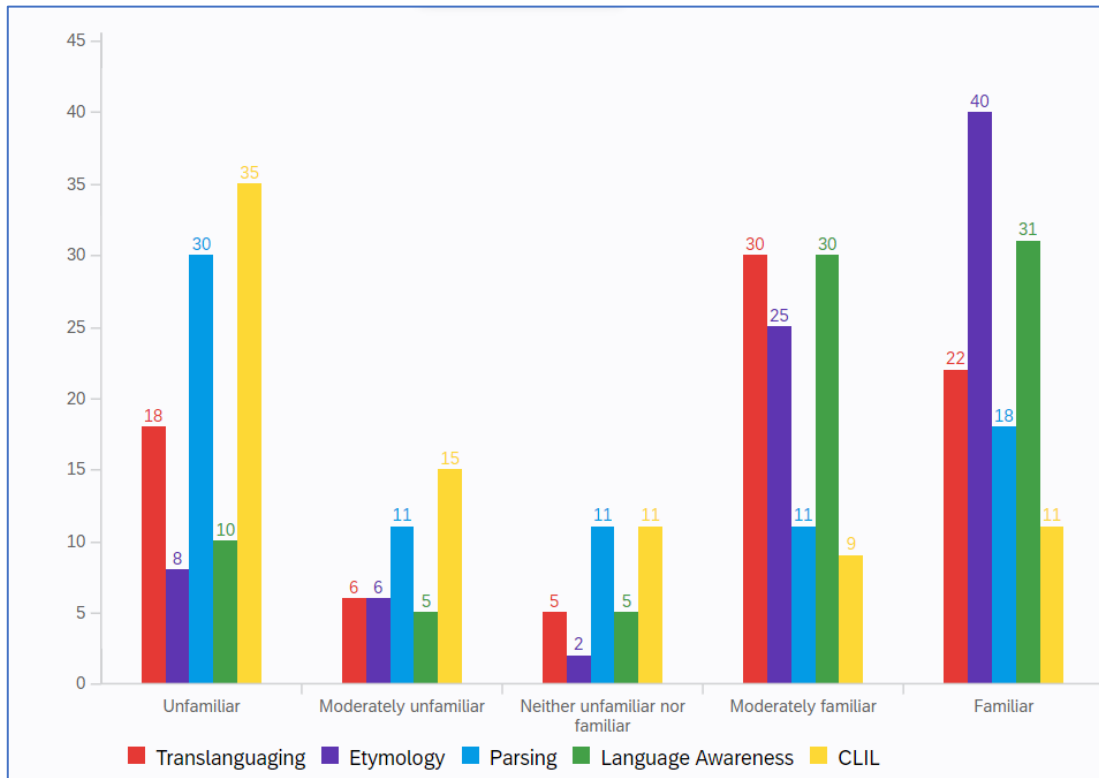


Figure 4-30. Section C Q25 - How familiar are you with the following pedagogical practices?

PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE	DEFINITION	% HAVE USED	% WOULD CONSIDER USING	% AGREE Pedagogy has potential to be to be an effective language pedagogical practice as part of classroom teaching.	% AGREE Pedagogy has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice for pupil engagement.	% AGREE Pedagogy could support making links between the AoLE languages
Translanguaging	Translanguaging alternates the use of two languages for input and output in the same activity. The learner receives the information in one language and works with that information in another language.	56.79	73.5	68.74	67.07	65.85
Etymology	Etymology is the origin and history of word or words.	87.8	93.67	83.96	75.6	86.25
Traditional parsing	<i>Parsing</i> is the deconstructing of a sentence into its component parts and the describing of the syntactic roles of the component parts.	71.6	74.68	69.04	62.97	65.0
Language Awareness	Language awareness refers to explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use.	72.84	78.75	76.25	68.75	76.32
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning is an approach where students learn a subject and a second language at the same time.	21.95	41.46	43.21	43.04	46.25

Table 4.5. Pedagogy overview

It is clear from Table 4.5 that LLC teachers were most familiar with etymology as a pedagogical practice and least familiar with CLIL. Teachers appeared most confident in etymology as a pedagogical approach, possibly because it can take place through the medium of the first language and has strong links with history, the subject which some English teachers felt was more aligned to their subject. Besides CLIL, LLC teachers could see the potential of the other pedagogical practices in the classroom context and to help make links between AoLEs. Not only were teachers not confident in CLIL, but they were also reluctant to see it as an effective pedagogical practice, possibly because it requires knowledge of at least two languages.

4.3.5 Respondents' views on pedagogy

From the comments section on Section 3 of the questionnaire, CLIL was viewed positively by some respondents, especially those who had used this pedagogical practice in their Welsh teaching: "I have taught for 34 years prior to this post in the Welsh medium system, and it is all CLIL and is incredibly effective for the vast majority of learners." Similarly, a teacher of international languages thought it could be useful pedagogy: "The opportunity to teach something else through the medium of French would be great and would be a more natural way of learning a language in fact." Conversely one participant was unclear on how CLIL would work: "I have questions regarding CLIL approach as I feel I don't have a full understanding of what it is, despite the above definition, sorry" whilst another participant felt it had limitations as a pedagogical practice: "Difficult to do this in French. Pupils switch off if language is too hard." One of the participants made an interesting comment about the pedagogical practices in the questionnaire: "I also teach Latin to GCSE/Level 2 and see all of the above as extremely useful, but with a caveat [...] Less motivated pupils often find it boring and or irrelevant."

For some participants, the pedagogy needed to teach *What Matters* statement 1 was general in approach such as modelling and Assessment of Learning that could be used across all AoLEs as well as "interleaving and retrieval" (survey respondent). Other suitable pedagogical practices suggested by participants included the "use of Conti's

pedagogy for chunking and using sentence builders” which had previously been mentioned by many of the interviewees as well as “Extensive Processing Instruction (E.P.I.) Authentic and relevant language learning opportunities.” For some teachers, this was an opportunity to stress the importance of literacy, as you need the ability “to write fluently in another language you need to be proficient in your first language” and the fact that there should be a “focus on literacy skills on a whole school level” although this idea was challenged by another participant who put forward instead that, instead of focussing on literacy lessons should be: “*cynnig cyd-destunau bywyd go iawn, hynny yw agwedd fwy Ewropeaidd at ddysgu ieithoedd yn hytrach*” [offering real life contexts, that is a more European approach to language learning].

One participant emphasised the need for “resources provided to monolingual colleagues to highlight links between languages” and another that financial investment was required to train teachers for the new pedagogy: “The curriculum promises much but without finance to provide realistic training it will be the same old thing dressed up to look as if it is multilingual.” This was supported by data from the Professional Learning questions from Section B where participants overwhelmingly considered that they would benefit from training in this area (Figure 4.30) reflected on 80.64% agreeing with the statement. They also saw the benefit in collaborating more with AoLE colleagues (Figure 4.32) with 80.97% agreeing with the statement, a view supported by one participant who considered the greatest benefit of the LLC being “learning from colleagues in other departments.”. Teachers are feeling the pressure, however, of teaching new pedagogy, exemplified by this participant: “If there are elements like translanguaging I’m not confident in, I have to learn a lot when I’m not confident” and “finding the time” for this professional learning is a challenge for all teachers.

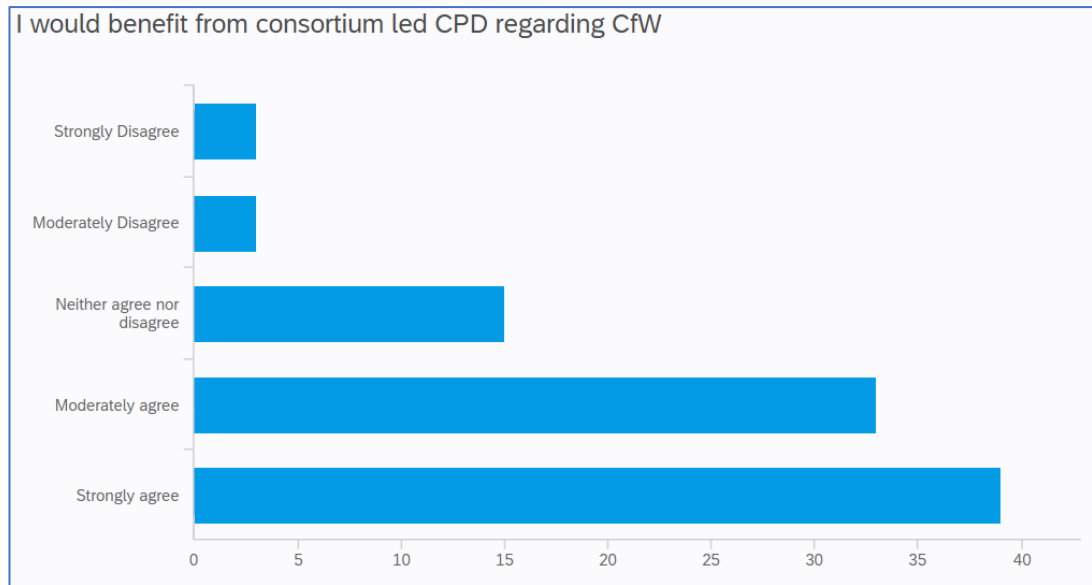


Figure 4-31. I would benefit from consortium led CPD regarding LLC.

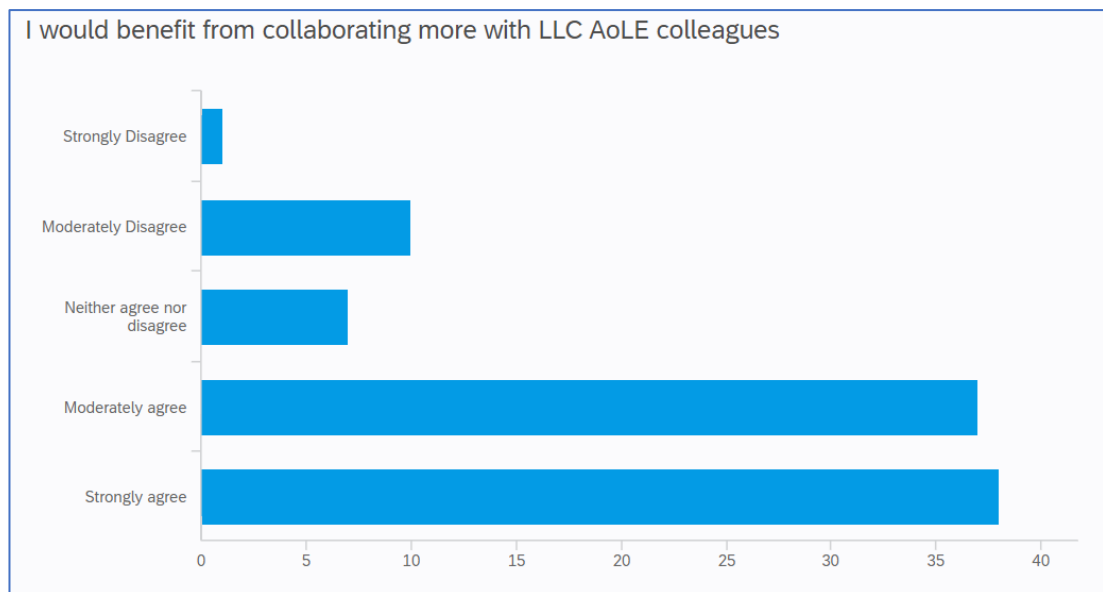


Figure 4-32. I would benefit from collaborating more with LLC AoLE colleagues to prepare for CfW

In summary, teachers revealed that they were overall confident in teaching *What Matters* statement 1 but were not all confident in some of the pedagogy which could enhance the teaching of this statement. The message from teachers was that more professional development was needed and more opportunities to collaborate with LLC colleagues, which in turn might overcome the negativity expressed by some teachers. Mostly though this negativity arises from fear of the unknown.

4.3.6 Data variables and hypotheses

When you obtain a set of results in educational research, significance, or difference testing “is an important feature” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 789) as “quantitative testing is virtually synonymous with significance testing” (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 440). To ascertain whether there is any significance or difference in the data, it is important to construct hypotheses which are statements which allow links between theories and measurement to be tested. Hypotheses are presented in the null form which is an “assumption of ‘no difference’” (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 440). Statistical tests are then performed on the data to calculate a p value, a probability value which is an estimation of the likelihood of seeing a difference described by the test statistic if the null hypothesis of no relationship were true (Bevans, 2022). In hypothesis testing, hypotheses are further operationalised into variables and inferential statistics are used “to more rigorously demonstrate” (Kremelberg, 2014, p. 120) if there is a relationship between these variables. The nature of the data governs the choice of test and in this case, as the variables were categorical, the chi-square statistic was deemed most appropriate (Kremelberg, 2014). For this more complex data analysis, SPSS statistical software suite was used.

To create a null hypothesis, an initial question needs to be asked by the researcher, for example, *do teachers with more years of teaching feel knowledgeable about the LLC AoLE?* A null hypothesis H_0 is then created, such as *Years of teaching do not affect teachers’ perceptions of their knowledge about the LLC AoLE.* The alternative hypothesis H_1 states that there is a difference between years of teaching and knowledge of the LLC AoLE, with an assumption that early career teachers who have recently trained as a teacher might be more knowledgeable about elements of CfW than more experienced teachers. The two categorical variables are then cross tabulated, and a chi-square test of independence is performed. If the asymptomatic significance value is 0.05 or less then significance or difference in the data is established (Cohen et al., 2018). As mentioned previously in this chapter, the p value as a construct has recently been questioned and Andrade (2019) further challenges the use of “ < 0.05 as a cut-off”

(p. 210) to indicate statistical significance. He concludes that it is useful to have an indication “to base decisions upon” although “its limitations should be recognized” (p. 214). Whilst this research understands these challenges, < 0.05 was still used, although caution was taken in drawing conclusions beyond tentative ones from this data analysis.

Post hoc tests allow the researcher to further analyse the cross-tabulation data to see where there are anomalies or differences in what would be statistically expected by a normal distribution. Under the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent the adjusted residuals will follow a standard normal distribution (mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1). Any cell is considered significant where there is an adjusted residual of more than 1.96 (2.0 used in convention) or -1.96 (-2.0 used in convention) is identified. So, an adjusted residual that is more than 1.96 indicates that the number of cases in that cell is significantly larger than would be expected if the null hypothesis were true. Where the adjusted residual is -1.96, the number of cases is significantly less than would be expected (Agresti, 2002). The chi-square test of independence is reported as follows:

X^2 (degrees of freedom, $N =$ sample size) = chi-square statistic value, $p = p$ value.

4.3.6.1 Bivariate data tests

Before any meaningful analysis can take place, the researcher needs to interrogate the data and have a clear line of enquiry. Underpinning this line of enquiry is qualitative data from the case study interviews and Biesta et al.’s (2015) paper on teacher agency which asserted that experienced teachers, whilst “highly advanced” (p. 636) in professional skills, had undergone years of teaching a highly prescriptive curriculum (Biesta et al., 2015) and therefore the assumption is that they could potentially find CfW challenging. Furthermore, two teachers interviewed as part of their research espoused a view that they felt was replicated in the Scottish teacher profession that responsibility for issues was “seen to the remit of those further up the chain” (p. 633) so that teachers with departmental responsibility could be potentially more knowledgeable about CfW. Thematic analysis of the data from the semi-structured

interviews revealed that teachers of the different languages had very different viewpoints as “the languages are completely different things” (Teacher 4) and “we are quite independent in a lot of ways” (Teacher 8). Furthermore, not being a TLR holder - “as I wasn’t a TLR holder” - meant less ownership in the LLC (Teacher 2) and the fact that finding links between languages was easier with an understanding of *triple literacy* because “this is what we’ve always done” (Teacher 4).

For RQ1, to understand teachers’ perceptions of the LLC AoLE, univariate categorical variables of years of teaching, departmental responsibility and different languages taught (which are described in more detail in 4.3.2) were cross tabulated with questions concerning knowledge, attitude and confidence in the LLC. For RQ3, to ascertain how confident teachers are with the pedagogical practices, years of teaching, previous use of triple literacy and multilingual literacy and languages taught were cross tabulated with attitude towards the What Matters statements, confidence in teaching What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us* and familiarity with the pedagogical practices.

Bivariate analysis using the chi-square test of independence was used to initially determine whether there was any significance in these variables. Post-hoc tests using the adjusted standardised residual (z) were used to determine which cells were significantly larger or smaller than expected if the null hypothesis were true. All tests are detailed below. A statement in bold denotes that a significant relationship was established, and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. It should be noted that data tables are included below (4.2.6.2) only for tests where a significant relationship was established.

RQ1a: Crosstabulation with Years of Teaching

Knowledge of LLC. A chi-square test of independence showed that there is a significant relationship between years of teaching and teachers' knowledge of the LLC. **Teachers with 21+ years of teaching were significantly more likely to know less about LLC:** $X^2(8, N = 93) = 17.21, p = .028$.

Confidence in collaborating with LLC colleagues. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 12.75, p = .121$.

Attitude towards LLC. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 91) = 7.78, p = .455$.

Attitude towards progression A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 91) = 7.78, p = .455$

Attitude towards assessment A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 91) = 7.48, p = .485$

Confidence in progression A chi-square test of independence showed that there is a significant relationship between years of teaching and confidence in LLC. **Teachers with 16-20 years of teaching were significantly more likely to feel unconfident about progression in LLC:** $X^2(8, N = 93) = 17.34, p = .027$

Confidence in assessment A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = .196$

RQ1b: Crosstabulation with Departmental Responsibility

Knowledge of LLC. A chi-square test of independence showed that there is a significant relationship between departmental responsibility and teachers' knowledge of the LLC **Teachers with departmental responsibility were significantly more likely to know a lot about LLC:** $X^2 (2, N = 93) = 6.54, p = .038.$

Confidence in collaborating with LLC colleagues. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2 (2, N = 93) = .68, p = .711.$

Attitude towards grouping of languages in LLC. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2 (2, N = 91) = 2.35, p = .308.$

Attitude towards progression A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2 (2, N = 91) = 2.35, p = .308$

Attitude towards assessment A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2 (2, N = 93) = 3.60, p = .165$

Confidence in progression A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2 (2, N = 93) = .57, p = .752$

Confidence in assessment A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2 (2, N = 93) = 2.33, p = .313$

RQ1c: Crosstabulation with Languages Taught

Knowledge of LLC. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$.

Confidence in collaborating with LLC colleagues. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$.

Attitude towards LLC. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$.

Knowledge of progression A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$

Knowledge of assessment A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$.

Attitude towards progression A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$

Attitude towards assessment A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$

Confidence in progression A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$

Confidence in assessment A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$

RQ 3a: Crosstabulation with Years of Teaching

Attitude towards What Matters statements. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their attitude towards the *What Matters* statements: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 8.19, p = .415$.

Confidence in teaching WM statement 1. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their confidence in teaching What Matters statement 1: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 9.14, p = .330$.

Familiarity with Translanguaging. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their familiarity with translanguaging: $X^2(8, N = 81) = 6.16, p = .629$.

Familiarity with Etymology. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their familiarity with etymology: $X^2(8, N = 81) = 7.70, p = .463$.

Familiarity with Parsing. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their familiarity with parsing: $X^2(8, N = 81) = 11.76, p = .162$.

Familiarity with Language Awareness. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their familiarity with Language Awareness: $X^2(8, N = 81) = 2.30, p = .970$.

Familiarity with CLIL. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their familiarity with CLIL: $X^2(8, N = 81) = 9.69, p = .287$.

RQ 3b Crosstabulation with previous use of triple literacy / multilingual literacy

Positive attitude of What Matters statements. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between previous use of triple literacy / multilingual literacy and positive attitude towards What Matters statements: $X^2(4, N = 93) = 3.43, p = .488$.

Confidence in teaching What Matters statement 1. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between previous use of triple literacy / multilingual literacy and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(4, N = 93) = 6.33, p = .176$.

Familiarity with translanguaging. A chi-square test of independence showed that there is a significant relationship between previous use of triple literacy / multilingual literacy and teachers' familiarity with translanguaging. **Teachers with previous experience of triple / multilingual literacy were significantly more likely to be familiar with translanguaging:** $X^2(4, N = 81) = 15.43, p = .004$.

Familiarity with etymology. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between previous use of triple literacy / multilingual literacy and teachers' familiarity with etymology: $X^2(4, N = 81) = .93, p = .920$.

Familiarity with parsing. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between previous use of triple literacy / multilingual literacy and teachers' familiarity with parsing: $X^2(4, N = 81) = 6.50, p = .165$.

Familiarity with Language Awareness. A chi-square test of independence showed that there is a significant relationship between previous use of triple literacy / multilingual literacy and teachers' familiarity with Language Awareness. **Teachers with previous experience of triple / multilingual literacy were significantly more likely to be familiar with Language Awareness:** $X^2(4, N = 81) = 16.32, p = .003$.

Familiarity with CLIL. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between previous use of triple literacy / multilingual literacy and teachers' familiarity with CLIL: $X^2(4, N = 81) = 5.85, p = .455$.

RQ 3c: Crosstabulation with Languages Taught

Knowledge of What Matters statements. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$.

Confidence in teaching WM1. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(8, N = 93) = 7.78, p = .455$.

Familiarity with Translanguaging. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(6, N = 81) = 7.71, p = .196$.

Familiarity with Etymology. A chi-square test of independence showed that there is a significant relationship between languages taught and familiarity with etymology. **Teachers of Welsh were significantly more likely to be unfamiliar with etymology.** $X^2(6, N = 81) = 12.8, p = .047$.

Familiarity with Parsing. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(6, N = 81) = 2.89, p = .823$.

Familiarity with Language Awareness. A chi-square test of independence showed that there is a significant relationship between languages taught and familiarity with Language Awareness. **Teachers of English were more significantly likely to be unfamiliar with Language Awareness.** $X^2(8, N = 81) = 14.36, p = .026$.

Familiarity with CLIL. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no significant association between how long the respondent had been teaching and their knowledge of CfW: $X^2(6, N = 81) = 8.21, p = .223$.

4.3.6.2 Bivariate data tables which show statistical significance.

In the tables below, the cells in **bold** denote a *z* score of +1.96 meaning that there were significantly more responses that would be expected due to chance in this cell, those in *italics* show a *z* score of -1.96 meaning that there were significantly less responses that would be expected due to chance in this cell.

			Knowledge about LLC AoLE			
			Disagree	Neither	Agree	Total
Years of teaching	0-5	Count	2	1	20	23
		% within Years of teaching	8.7%	4.3%	87.0%	100.0%
	6-10	Count	0	3	19	22
		% within Years of teaching	0.0%	13.6%	86.4%	100.0%
	11-15	Count	0	1	10	11
		% within Years of teaching	0.0%	9.1%	90.9%	100.0%
	16-20	Count	1	0	11	12
		% within Years of teaching	8.3%	0.0%	91.7%	100.0%
	21+ years	Count	8	1	<i>16</i>	25
		% within Years of teaching	32.0%	4.0%	<i>64.0%</i>	100.0%
Total	Count	11	6	76	93	
	% within Years of teaching	11.8%	6.5%	81.7%	100.0%	
			100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 4.6 Bivariate analysis of Years of Teaching and Confidence in Progression

		Confidence in Progression			Total	
		Disagree	Neither	Agree		
Years of teaching	0-5	Count	3	3	17	23
		% within Years of teaching	13.0%	13.0%	73.9%	100.0%
	6-10	Count	6	4	12	22
		% within Years of teaching	27.3%	18.2%	54.5%	100.0%
	11-15	Count	0	3	8	11
		% within Years of teaching	0.0%	27.3%	72.7%	100.0%
	16-20	Count	8	1	3	12
		% within Years of teaching	66.7%	8.3%	25.0%	100.0%
	21+ years	Count	7	4	14	25
		% within Years of teaching	28.0%	16.0%	56.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	24	15	54	93
		% within Years of teaching	25.8%	16.1%	58.1%	100.0%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table 4.7 Bivariate analysis of Years of Teaching and Confidence in Progression

			Departmental position		Total
			Yes	No	
Knowledge of LLC	Disagree	Count	4	7	11
		% within Knowledge of LLC	36.4%	63.6%	100.0%
	Neither	Count	1	5	6
		% within Knowledge of LLC	16.7%	83.3%	100.0%
	Agree	Count	47	29	76
		% within Knowledge of LLC	61.8%	38.2%	100.0%
Total	Count	52	41	93	
	% within Knowledge of LLC	55.9%	44.1%	100.0%	

Table 4.8 Bivariate analysis of Departmental responsibility and Knowledge of LLC

			Used triple multilingual literacy			
			Yes	Unsure	No	Total
Familiarity with Translanguaging	Unfamiliar	Count	11	0	13	24
		% within TRANSFAM	45.8%	0.0%	54.2%	100.0%
	Neither	Count	3	1	1	5
		% within TRANSFAM	60.0%	20.0%	20.0%	100.0%
	Familiar	Count	41	3	8	52
		% within TRANSFAM	78.8%	5.8%	15.4%	100.0%
Total	Count		55	4	22	81
		% within TRANSFAM	67.9%	4.9%	27.2%	100.0%

Table 4.9 Bivariate analysis of Use of Triple Literacy and Familiarity with Translanguaging

			Used triple multilingual literacy			
			Yes	Unsure	No	Total
Familiarity with Language Awareness	Unfamiliar	Count	6	1	8	15
		% within LAFAM	40.0%	6.7%	53.3%	100.0%
	Neither	Count	1	0	4	5
		% within LAFAM	20.0%	0.0%	80.0%	100.0%
	Familiar	Count	48	3	10	61
		% within LAFAM	78.7%	4.9%	16.4%	100.0%
Total	Count		55	4	22	81
		% within LAFAM	67.9%	4.9%	27.2%	100.0%

Table 4.10 Bivariate analysis of Use of Triple Literacy with Language Awareness

			Familiarity with Etymology			
			Unfamiliar	Neither	Familiar	Total
Languages	English	Count	2	1	28	31
		% within Language3	6.5%	3.2%	90.3%	100.0%
	Welsh	Count	4	0	5	9
		% within Language3	44.4%	0.0%	55.6%	100.0%
	International Language	Count	3	0	23	26
		% within Language3	11.5%	0.0%	88.5%	100.0%
	International Language + English/Welsh	Count	5	1	9	15
		% within Language3	33.3%	6.7%	60.0%	100.0%
Total	Count		14	2	65	81
		% within Language3	17.3%	2.5%	80.2%	100.0%

Table 4.11 Bivariate analysis of Languages taught and Familiarity with Etymology

			Familiarity with LA			
			Unfamiliar	Neither	Familiar	Total
Languages	English	Count	10	4	17	31
		% within Language3	32.3%	12.9%	54.8%	100.0%
	Welsh	Count	1	0	8	9
		% within Language3	11.1%	0.0%	88.9%	100.0%
	International Languages	Count	1	0	25	26
		% within Language3	3.8%	0.0%	96.2%	100.0%
	International Language + English/Welsh	Count	3	1	11	15
		% within Language3	20.0%	6.7%	73.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	15	5	61	81
		% within Language3	18.5%	6.2%	75.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	18.5%	6.2%	75.3%	100.0%

Table 4.12 Bivariate analysis of Languages taught and Familiarity with LA

4.3.6.1 Bivariate analysis summary

From the bivariate analysis, some tentative conclusions can be drawn. In response to RQ 1 which looks at teachers' perceptions of the LLC, there were some interesting results when looking at years of teaching. Whilst years of teaching did not affect teachers' attitude towards the grouping of languages, nor their confidence in collaborating with LLC colleagues or in assessing pupils, there were some statistical differences noted when teachers had been teaching for some years. In this way, teachers with 21+ years of teaching were more likely to know less about the LLC; and those that had been teaching for 16-20 years were less likely to feel confident in monitoring pupils' progression with the new progression steps. For Lomba-Portela et al. (2022) innovations in teaching – in this case the new LLC AoLE as part of CfW – very often “ignore the perspectives and realities of teachers” (p. 359) and it may well be that “changing workloads” (French et al., 2022, p. 59) during the pandemic have had a significant impact on teachers' appetite for innovation. Teachers with departmental responsibility, however, were more likely to know about the LLC which links to the teacher interviews, with Teacher 2 who had not done much CfW

preparation “as I wasn’t a TLR holder”, although this had changed with a new TLR role which had given Teacher 2 a new perspective.

As for RQ3 which deals with confidence in the pedagogical practices, what was most interesting was that teachers who had previously used triple / multilingual literacy in their teaching, were more likely to be familiar with translanguaging and Language Awareness. It may be that early adopters of triple / multilingual literacy are more aware of pedagogy that has the potential to make links between languages. Conversely, teachers of Welsh were more likely to be unfamiliar with etymology and teachers of English were less likely to be familiar with Language Awareness although these both could be useful activities. Etymology, on the one hand, “unlocks the territory” (Myatt, 2018, p. 96) of the subject domain so that pupils “have access and master deep subject knowledge” (p. 96). Language Awareness, on the other hand can help pupils notice “similarities between languages and language structures” (Forsman, 2021, p. 19) in the way that Finland’s *language-aware approach* has done, which could prove useful in CfW.

4.4 Chapter summary

Overall, this chapter has presented the main findings and key analysis of this research. This chapter has examined various parts of the conceptual framework which has underpinned this research. Examples of how the framework has been used can be seen in Table 4.13 below:

Sphere of Influence	Examples
Intrapersonal	Teachers’ perceptions, knowledge, attitude and confidence levels
Interpersonal	Collaboration with AoLE colleagues / organisation of AoLE
Institutional Factors	School cohesion
Community / Network Factors	Role of consortia in training
Societal Factors	Political agenda in Wales

Table 4.13. Conceptual framework and data collection

Teachers were clearly divided about the grouping of languages in the LLC AoLE, and this had been creating tensions between colleagues. It is important where there are tensions that the researcher must not “reconcile the differences” but “acknowledge their multiplicity” (Saldaña, 2021, p. 360). Furthermore, other respondents outlined the benefit of the LLC AoLE in “building a value in languages” and increasing communicative skills with one respondent celebrating that “learners will be able to improve their ability to communicate with a larger range of the world” (survey respondents).

This chapter has been based around “teachers’ vocabulary and discourses” (Priestley et al., 2015, p. 59) as these matter. They matter because teacher agency and efficacy are at the heart of a curriculum built on subsidiarity. They matter as well because teachers have been or will be the curriculum makers as CfW evolves. The teachers interviewed and surveyed were “knowledgeable people” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 219) as trained teachers of English, Welsh and the international language who feel, on the one hand, empowered by the freedom they have but also concerned about many issues including assessment and the grouping of languages. A researcher needs to heed the advice to “listen more than you speak” (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 287) and it was important to keep faithful in reporting what teachers said but, also, the way in which they said it, from field notes to transcribing to the reflexive thematic analysis. Cohen et al. (2018, p. 686) warn that “words carry many meanings; they are nuanced and highly context-sensitive” and this was important to remember when analysing teachers’ comments in the questionnaire, as words taken out of context might not represent what was written.

This chapter used rich qualitative data from nine teachers to build a picture of their perceptions. The three case studies provided more information on how differently schools had interpreted the guidance and on teachers’ perceptions of the LLC AoLE within their respective schools. Whilst this difference meant that some teachers were celebrating the cohesion within their school, others were concerned that vastly different interpretations meant that collaborations between schools was proving

challenging. The transcripts from the interviews were coded to aid reflexive thematic analysis in response to RQ2 and the themes that arose were the legacy of COVID-19, the integrity of the subject disciplines, freedom in curriculum design and assessment. Cross-case analysis focussed on commonalities and tensions. One of the commonalities was pride in their school's approach whereas a stark difference in interpretation of CfW by schools was one obvious tension.

The quantitative part of the chapter considered whether the wider population of LLC teachers shared these viewpoints through a questionnaire. The data from this questionnaire was analysed in terms of the three research questions. What emerged from this data was that the responses mirrored the views of the teachers who had been interviewed. All comments from teachers as part of the questionnaire were coded and analysed thematically. What was significant was that the same themes emerged as well as one additional one, "finding the time" which was considered a significant challenge for teachers. Data sets were analysed using SPSS, and cross tabulation allowed chi-square tests to be performed, some of which showed statistical difference in the data and supported the alternative hypothesis.

From both qualitative and quantitative perspectives, a narrative has emerged about teachers' perceptions of the LLC, its benefits and challenges. Whilst teachers are mostly confident about teaching What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*, many were less secure about some of the pedagogical practices that could support their work. Recommendations have emerged from the data which will be explored in more detail in Chapter 6.

Chapter 5 will summarise all elements of the research; data collected from the case studies and questionnaires will be used to answer the research questions which are based on teachers' perceptions of the LLC Area. It will show that there is much to celebrate in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE, but it is important that schools, the educational consortia and the Welsh government listen to "teachers' vocabulary and discourses" (Priestley et al., 2015, p. 59) so that they understand the

challenges they face. This in turn will allow LLC teachers to have, as expressed by one questionnaire respondent “the opportunity to be creative and to really inspire children.”

Chapter 5: Summary and Reflections

Chapter 5: Summary and Reflections

This research sought to establish Language, Literacy and Communication (LLC) teachers' perceptions of the Area of Learning and Experience (AoLE), the challenges they are facing and their confidence in delivery the LLC curriculum within the context for Curriculum for Wales (CfW) development. Details of curriculum change in Wales were set out as a context for this research in Chapter 2. There is no doubt that CfW “represents a radical change of philosophy and direction for curriculum and assessment policy and practice in Wales” (Donaldson, 2016, p. 10). It is inevitable with the scale of change that teachers have been affected in terms of increased workload and pressure for professional development, especially following the impact of COVID-19. Not only that but the recommendation of *Successful Futures*, (Donaldson, 2015) is that school subjects “remain important, but the report avers that they should serve, and not define, the curriculum” (Donaldson, 2016, p. 20). The problem here is that subjects may lose their distinctiveness in the curriculum organisers, the AoLEs. Added to the challenges of collaborative working between different subjects in the AoLEs have been concerns about the grouping of languages in the LLC AoLE, with potentially conflicting first and second language pedagogy for the teaching of English, Welsh and international languages. Even from the pilot study semi-structured interview, a sense of unease at the grouping was emerging, with Teacher PS stating:

I have reservations about the transition of traditional English and Welsh core subject teaching to a more fundamental linguistic approach. My concern is that this requires changes that traditional English and Welsh teachers are not able or keen to make. (Teacher PS)

CfW recognises the “the fundamental interdependency between the purposes of the curriculum and pedagogy” (Donaldson, 2015, p. 63) and “greater freedom to plan and provide a more relevant curriculum” (p. 89) but this has implications in terms of teacher knowledge amongst other things, with a need for support that will facilitate

implementation of CfW. Added to this, assessment will also pose major challenges to development with CfW's new progression steps and its purpose-driven curriculum. Against this background, this study aimed to understand teachers' perceptions of this grouping of languages in the AoLE as well as Donaldson's recommendation that language teachers should be "exploiting the links between English, Welsh and modern foreign language learning" (Donaldson, 2015, p. 48).

In this chapter, I initially discuss my evolving research identity. The chapter then summarises the findings of the research from three case studies, semi-structured interviews and the questionnaire to answer the research questions that have driven this research. Finally, the chapter considers limitations to this study.

5.1 My research identity

Green (2005) posits that doctoral study "is as much about identity formation as it is about knowledge production" (p. 153). Similarly, for Sun and Trent (2020) a PhD "serves as a rich site where doctoral and individual identities are transformed over time" with an acknowledgement the process is "rarely linear or smooth" (p. 423). Moreover, for Castelló et al. (2021) researcher identity is not straightforward and involves "multiple embedded meanings" (p. 568). McAlpine (2012) conceptualises the way identities evolve during the research as an identity trajectory. Many factors have an impact on this trajectory including the past and present experiences of the researcher, the influence of the supervisory team and the relationships formed as part of the research.

My identity trajectory was initially shaped by most recent experience working in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) as an Initial Teacher Education lecturer. This meant that I had been involved in some research projects, although in a supportive and not a leading role. I had experience, therefore, of analysing survey data and of conducting semi-structured interviews with teachers. Similarly, I had contributed to some academic articles, again in a supportive role. As an evidence-base is vital for

effective teaching at this level, I had read widely for the subjects I taught at HEI level. All these cumulative factors meant that I felt a professional identity as a novice researcher was emerging, however, I had not anticipated how challenging it was “crossing borders between academic and semi-academic worlds” (Swennen et al., 2017, p. 145) into higher education from secondary teaching. Whilst my lecturing and novice researcher role contributed to my changing professional identity, it was the crossing of this boundary from “the semi-academic or practical world of teacher education” (p. 146) when I embarked on my doctorate that was the most edifying but also the most challenging as “border-crossers do not have an easy task as they enter unknown territory where knowledge and skills are expected which they do not yet possess” (ibid).

What complicates the identity trajectory of a researcher who is a teacher educator is that there is a symbiotic relationship between scholarly activity and “the practicum turn” or “practicum curriculum” in teacher education (Mattson et al., 2011, p. ix) as the teacher educator must function “simultaneously as both researcher and practitioner” (Cochran-Smith, 2005, p. 219). Thus, I have been mindful when considering recommendations arising from this research on the need to consider scholarly recommendations as well as practice-based ones. Since the teacher educator’s role is about “working the dialectic” (Cochran-Smith, 2005, p. 219) between scholarly activity and practice, reflective practice is one way for the teacher educator to “maintain a ‘robust’ sense of self-identity” so that there is a constant “awareness of the rules of [this system]” (Ye & Edwards, 2017, p. 873).

Added to the challenges of identity is the fact that there are also conflicts between the need for neutrality and objectivity and having an overriding passion for languages and concern for the demise of international languages in Wales. For Gorrara (2021) even though any researcher who plays an activist or advocate role must “‘unlearn’ the default position of academic training” (p. 134), she acknowledges that it is unlikely that researchers start out as “disinterested observers” as the passion for their field of study inevitably guides their research. For Hua (2020) the way we do research has social significance from the topics we identify, to how we build relationships with the

people we research and to the stance we adopt. She posits that by viewing research as social action this “implies that our research embeds, not leads to, impact” as it a “process of connections and conversations” (p. 207). These social interactions were particularly important for my research identity trajectory, but they also required reflexivity on my part, when I started the semi-structured interviews.

Reflexivity is a useful check in qualitative analysis where the researcher is aware of “the contextual intersecting relationships” (Dodgson, 2019, p. 220) between researcher and participant and questions his or her positionality through “continual internal dialogue and critical self-evaluation” (Berger, 2015, p. 219). I felt that this was the time when the boundaries between practice and scholarship could potentially be the most blurred for me. When talking to teachers, despite a convivial exchange before the interviews, the recording device acted as a barrier, and I was able to maintain my identity as a researcher. However, when I began immersing myself in the data, this is where I did feel there was a blurring of boundaries, and my views were filtered through the lens of being a former teacher – I understood what the LLC teachers were saying from my lived experience as a secondary teacher. I felt a tension here between wanting to remember the teachers’ “FACES and what lies behind them” (Sharratt & Fullan, 2012, p. 2) in the presentation of what they said and maintaining my professional identity and distancing myself from the data as a novice researcher. For Williams (2014), this “tendency to revert to previously held classroom teacher identity and practice” (p. 2) is a common feature of teacher educators. However, by recognising what was happening, I was able to be mindful of the need to maintain my professional identity in ways that respected my role as well as “institutional contexts and personal aspirations” (Boyd et al., 2011, p. 16). It was only through reflective practice that I was able to maintain the criticality needed. As a simple aide-memoire I kept Rolfe’ et al.’s reflective model constantly in mind (2001). The model is derived from reflective practice in nursing and uses three questions: *What? So What? Now What?* In this way, I had to faithfully report ‘*What?*’ the teachers had said but then consider the impact – *So what?* -before considering how their views would shape their delivery of CfW as well as the recommendation, *Now What?* Furthermore, for Akkerman and Bakker (2011) this reflective practice “emphasizes not only comprehension but also the formulation of the distinctive perspectives” (p. 145).

For Mantai (2019) the social aspect is an essential part of doctoral education with students experiencing a “constellation of social relationships” during the doctorate (Sun & Trent, 2020, p. 426). For me, my academic supervisions were a crucial factor in my identity trajectory as “dialogicality” is a “useful theoretical concept” (Akkerman and Bakker, 2011, p. 136) in supporting the boundary crossing of a doctoral student. The academic supervisions were a safe space to help me cross boundaries from teacher-to-teacher educator initially and then, as my confidence grew, from teacher educator to novice researcher. My supervisors were all colleagues, although admittedly in positions of authority, and this helped me feel socially like a peer, whilst still understanding I had a lot to learn academically from their combined research experience as I co-constructed my knowledge with my supervisory team. As “all learning involves boundaries” (Akkerman and Bakker, 2011, p. 132), it was through these supervisions that I learnt the most and I found them useful to help me situate myself in the academic world, thereby crossing a boundary from the semi-academic world of teaching. For Hopwood (2010) “students use other people as tools to work back on themselves” (p. 115) as a process of mediation and I can trace my development after each PhD supervision, where I interrogated, through reflective practice, previously held views.

Whilst being a teacher educator is a constant balancing act between “academic and semi-academic worlds” (Swennen et al., 2017, p. 145), my identity as an early career or novice researcher was easier to track with two factors shaping my research experience, firstly finding my academic voice, and secondly understanding the importance of my agency in my doctoral studies. I had made a conscious effort to embrace any opportunities to be involved in small-scale research projects but the turning point for me was when I was asked to speak at the *Multilingual Education and Cultural Expression: Learning three languages in school* conference in Brussels in September 2018. Not only did this conference allow me to present Wales as a case study in multilingual education to a European audience, but it also gave me the opportunity to find out about other trilingual case studies such as the Basque Country, Republic of Ireland, Fryslân and Finland. This prompted me to research these trilingual

contexts as part of my literature review and sowed the seeds for my recommendations as each country's context was so quite different from Wales. The second factor that impacted on my identity trajectory as a researcher was understanding how to enact my own agency, in contrast to Hopwood's observation that doctoral students are rarely seen as "agentically shaping their own learning, practices or wider social environments" (2010, p. 104). Sun and Trent (2020) consider that considering individual agency as a key construct a doctoral student can develop his or her own identity and therefore not be submissive to "disciplinary cultures, norms and practices" (Hopwood, 2010, p. 104). For me, this agency meant realising when I needed to ask for help, identifying gaps in my own knowledge and reaching out to academics in the field.

If identity is a "central aspect of early career researcher development" (Castelló et al., 2020, p. 568) for any doctoral student then the trajectory of someone who has crossed the boundary from practice to academic life, from secondary teaching to working as a teacher educator is even more complex. My identity has, therefore, shifted throughout this doctorate, and yet, I am aware that crossing boundaries has been enriching and rewarding. For Akkerman and Bakker (2011), four mechanisms of learning occur in boundary crossing which are identification, coordination, reflection, and transformation and I recognise all these stages in my development. Reflective practice has supported me and has enabled me to recognise the strengths I have brought to this research but also the limitations I have. The final transformation stage "requires some degree of confrontation, or a problem that necessitates a rethinking of current practices and relationships" (Williams, 2014, p. 3). In this way, I have been aware of the rethinking needed in assuming an identity as an early career researcher and how to enact this change in recommendations that will be made from the research findings.

Whilst there have been challenges during my research journey, it is important to acknowledge that operating in the "third space" (Williams, 2014, p. 1) of teacher education has given me rewards and benefits. The notion of a third or hybrid space is derived from Bhabha (1994)'s post-colonial theory and was introduced to teacher education by Zeichner (2009). The third space underscores the significance of hybrid

spaces of practice where knowledge communities meet” (Daza et al., 2021. p 2). It has been positive, for example, to have credibility in the field from schools I have worked with, and I have been able to exploit and contextualise my knowledge about teaching practice and pedagogy in this research. Working in this “third space” has helped me develop as a novice researcher so that any recommendations that arise from this research will also understand the context of delivering the LLC curriculum but will also be rooted in academic rigour arising from the dialogic nature of my PhD supervisions and my own reading and research.

Miles et al. (2014) define a conceptual framework, either graphically or in narrative form, as “the main things to be studied—the key factors, variables, or constructs—and the presumed relationships among them” (p. 20). Underpinning this research is a conceptual framework based on Bronfenbrenner’s ecological model (1979, 2005). Bronfenbrenner’s model examines the different spheres of influence, which could have an impact on a child with four environmental systems identified as part of the model: the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem and the macrosystem. The model was adapted to reflect the LLC teachers who are at the heart of this research. Each of the spheres of influence (Figure 1) all have influence on LLC teachers and affect their perceptions. It is important to note that all these spheres of influence also had an impact on my development as a novice researcher:

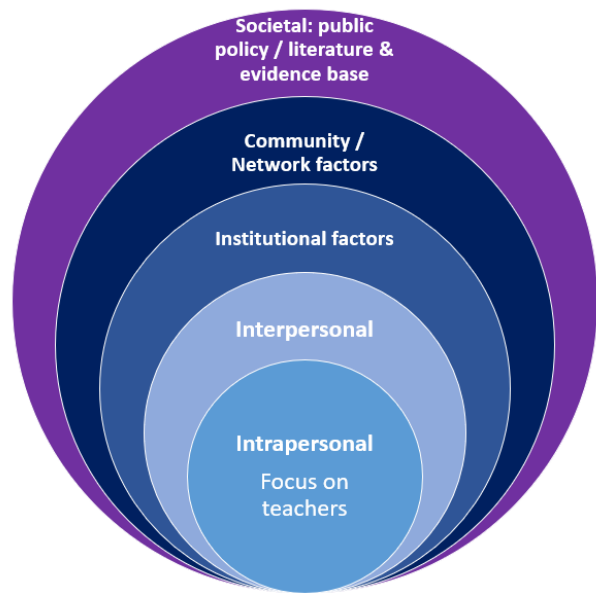


Figure 5-1. Conceptual framework model

In this way, the agency I enacted, and my reflective practice are concerned with the intrapersonal sphere, and the reflections were constant throughout my doctorate. The interpersonal describes the importance of social relationships on my development, in my case the importance of the social-academic interactions as part of my PhD supervisions. Institutional factors also influenced me, from my own teaching, to understanding the process for ethical approval of the research and keeping up to date with my research records. My involvement at the community / network level was also significant for this research – attending local area MFL network meetings meant that I understood teachers’ fears. I also was involved with the regional consortia in multilingual literacy projects and delivering training sessions to MFL teachers. Finally, the societal sphere has had a significant impact on my development, through extensive reading, closely following Welsh Government policy shifts and through seeing trends emerge on educational Twitter.

5.2 Discussion of findings and conclusions

For Sharratt & Fullan, (2012) “what matters to most teachers is their children, their humanity – what we have called their FACES and what lies behind them” (p. 2). They posit that schools should always remember the learners’ faces behind the data sets gathered. In this research, it was deemed important to apply this same understanding of teachers’ “humanity” and to remember their “FACES” throughout the data collection. In this way, it was important not to be judgemental, to be appreciative of what teachers went through during the pandemic and to advocate for LLC teachers as they develop and deliver Curriculum for Wales. Analysis of the data from the interviews and questionnaire has been carried out with sensitivity, aiming to answer the research questions with reflections of the strength of feeling of teachers without sensationalising their words.

5.3 Research Questions

5.3.1 RQ 1

For teachers of Welsh, English, and international languages, what are their perceptions of the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE?

Initially data was gathered from semi-structured interviews with LLC teachers from three case study schools. What was immediately apparent was that, even though the schools were geographically close, they had approached CfW in distinct ways. School A, for example, is a pioneer school and as such had started the curriculum reform progress at a much earlier stage. This meant that the LLC teachers appeared much more confident about the LLC and how it operates. School B had tried some thematic projects before the pandemic but had only just started working as an AoLE and therefore not all the teachers seemed confident in their understanding of how this might work. School C could be considered an outlier in terms of its approach to CfW. There was a clear sense of purpose and confidence in their planning, but the LLC teachers were much more vocal about what they perceived to be the limitations of the proposed AoLE organisation, so much so that they had rejected it. In School C, Welsh and international languages are known as ‘Languages’ whereas English is working on its

own and was seen as being much more aligned with other curriculum subjects. This sentiment was echoed by the English teacher in School B and highlighted one of the concerns of the wider LLC population.

All the case study teachers were knowledgeable about the guidance for CfW and the LLC AoLE. This was supported by the questionnaire, where it was clear that teachers perceived themselves to be knowledgeable about the LLC AoLE with 81.8 % respectively agreeing to the statement. It was important, however, to interrogate the data to see if teachers who had been teaching for several years also felt more knowledgeable about the LLC by creating a null hypothesis and using the chi-square test of independence. Details of the test which supported the alternative hypothesis - that years of teacher did affect teachers' perceptions of knowledge - were reported in Chapter 4. This alternative hypothesis was also supported by comments from early career teachers who stated that, as they had been taught about CfW in the PGCE course, they felt more confident than other teaching colleagues. Of the three case studies, teachers from School A appeared the most knowledgeable, possibly because their school had been a curriculum pioneer school and they had been operating as an AoLE for several years with teachers from School B the most anxious about the changes.

The legacy of initiatives aiming to establish links between the main languages taught in Wales may well have impacted on teachers' perceptions. The triple literacy project was developed by CILT Cymru and funded by the Welsh Government from 2002 and had a "strong pedagogic focus" (Laugharne, 2015, p. 246) and initially sought to establish links between Welsh, English and the modern foreign language. By 2011, with the publication of *Supporting triple literacy: Language learning in Key Stage 2 and Key Stage* the remit of triple literacy was much more aligned with the national impetus to improve literacy level at that time. Following the Global Futures plan (2015), *triple literacy* was rebranded as *multilingual literacy* and, as part of the regional consortia work, there were many different training opportunities for teachers, mostly aimed at teachers of modern foreign languages. There had clearly been a level of engagement as, out of the 103 survey respondents, 68.93% stated that they had used

triple / multilingual literacy activities in their teaching which mirrored the semi-structured interviews with 6 out of the 9 teachers interviewed (66.6%) having used *triple / multilingual literacy* activities previously. *Triple literacy* was originally designed so that “Welsh and foreign languages could function in a mutually supportive way” (Llewellyn-Williams & Laugharne, 2014, p. 286). However, this support was not evident in the research as none of those interviewed saw any relevance in what they perceived as *triple literacy* activities and this sentiment was shared with the survey respondents, many of whom commented on not wanting to make arbitrary links between the languages. It may be because the original *triple literacy* project was built on the belief that “knowledge of a second language will improve the prospects of learning further languages” (ibid). Not only that, but one survey respondent mentioned the “lack of *triple literacy* resources” so that even if this was a will to use triple literacy, teachers did not feel that they had the resources to deliver it successfully.

Several teachers, both in the interviews and from the survey, alluded to unsuccessful and tokenistic thematic projects in the LLC, highlighting the challenge of finding a theme that fits with first and second language pedagogy. These unsuccessful projects had been set up in the early days of CfW planning and they clearly had affected teachers’ perceptions of how teaching between the languages could work. Many of these initial projects took a thematic approach. Teacher 6 provided an example of a thematic project which was “very repetitive” and “it turned out to be more of a tick list” so was not deemed successful by teachers or pupils. This viewpoint was shared by one of the survey respondents who stated that “students dislike learning about e.g., holidays in all 3 languages at the same time” because “forcing links is not effective”. Moreover, there is a tension here between the LLC guidance and the fact that how to explore the links as part of a multilingual literacy approach between the languages “remains ill-defined” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 251).

In terms of grouping of the languages in the AoLE, the case study interviewees all perceived some benefit in the grouping, especially between Welsh and international languages. The survey respondents were divided in their opinions with 46.2% disagreeing and 37.4% agreeing with the statement “I have a positive attitude about

the grouping of English, Welsh and International Languages”. One survey respondent felt that the grouping worked more effectively in Welsh-medium schools, although this was not supported by the interviewees or other participants. In each of the case studies, teachers were keen to discuss their view of the “English thing” (Teacher A). The concern that English might dominate the area links to Makarova et al.’s (2021) findings that there are “implicit language hierarchies” (p. 1) in trilingual education systems. The perceived higher status of English as a subject in the AoLE is an example of what Pountain (2021) calls “linguistic imperialism” (p. 73). One of the contributing factors to this perception is the comparative large scale of English departments in English medium schools, as expressed by Teacher 8, describing English as “such a big beast within the school.” Furthermore, the scale of English departments in the three case study schools had impacted on the creation of a unified AoLE staff room or on placing language classrooms near each other. Another of the issues that emerged was that English was felt by some respondents and interviewees to be in the wrong AoLE, seemingly more suited to alignment with History or the Expressive Arts. This may be because the pedagogy to teach L1 differs from the teaching of L2 or because the teaching of literature might work better with these subject areas. Teacher 6 described English as “the foundation of literacy” and several survey respondents expressed their perception that the LLC could take their focus away from literacy. Even though literacy is the remit of all subject departments, this highlights that English as a curriculum subject and literacy have undeniable links in English speaking countries (Limbrick and Aikman, 2005).

School C acknowledged that Welsh and international languages were better suited to being grouped together. One survey respondent proposed a “common framework for MFL and Welsh teaching” as there is more alignment between these subjects in terms of pedagogy. This has been supported by the publication of Conti’s *Sentence Builders* in Welsh (Conti, Viñales, Moc, Maurer, Wall, Swain & Nest, 2021), French (Conti, Vinales & Jezequel, 2021), Spanish (Conti & Viñales, 2021) and German (Conti et al., 2022) which are a tangible demonstration that there is synergy between these departments. Teacher 8 concurred with this view, stating that Welsh and international languages were “completely aligned” in the English-medium context and in their school, both subjects had aligned their schemes of work. However, some teachers

expressed negative views about the Welsh language which links with findings from Makarova et al. (2021) who identified a mostly negative attitude towards the Frisian language in Fryslân. Furthermore, Tinsley (2019) reports that teachers of international languages perceived that they were now in competition with Welsh as a curriculum subject. This may be because as a curriculum subject Welsh has enjoyed a “reversal of fortune” (Collen et al., 2021, p. 8) of late, supported by legislation, which exacerbates the tensions that teachers of international languages might feel in terms of teaching the only non-mandatory languages in the AoLE. Moreover, Kelly (2018) considers that international languages “may not have caught people’s hearts and minds” (p. 239) in Wales in the same way that English and Welsh have. Added to this, some teachers felt that international languages were isolated within the AoLE with one respondent alluding to the need to “unilaterally build on skills within this AOLE” as a teacher of international languages. As a counter argument, Teacher 8 rejoiced in the independence of the international languages department: “we kind of do our thing, you know, we are quite independent in a lot of ways,” and this sentiment was shared by other respondents. Teachers from School A expressed their initial concerns that the AoLE would mean a loss of subject integrity although they acknowledged that the languages were so different that this was unlikely. This perception of the languages’ difference is supported by the fact that, just like in Corsica and Fryslân, “monolingual ideologies” prevail (Makarova et al., 2021, p. 1)

One teacher summed up the views of many participants who considered that pupils were in “different stages of language acquisition.” Whereas a few teachers mentioned the benefit of skill transfer between the languages that this difference could offer, none considered this from a knowledge perspective and the benefit of “building on the metalinguistic understanding of bilingual learners” (Gorrara et al., 2020, p. 250). Even though considerable research has been undertaken into the advantages of being bilingual, there has been much less research into metalinguistic awareness that a taught foreign language can have on L1 (Murphy et al., 2015) or the increased levels of “conscious knowledge of form/meaning relationships in a language” (Alipour, 2014, p. 2641) that can result. It is important to mention the role of grapheme-phoneme correspondences (GPC) as teaching Italian (shallow or transparent GPC) as opposed to French (opaque or deep GPC) would encourage this metalinguistic awareness was

supported by Murphy et al.'s research (2015). In the same way Spanish and Welsh have much more accessible orthographies than English and French and this might impact on how the languages work together in a trilingual context. The fact that teachers did not mention any benefits of crosslinguistic influence reflects the relative lack of research in the context of nations teaching three or more languages. When there is research, its context does not necessarily match that of Wales and there is clearly a need for a firm evidence-base in this area.

An area of contention that arose from the research was English teachers had the power to support the other two languages but there was a need to develop the “grammatical awareness of English teachers” (survey respondent). This focus on grammatical form is considered “a good thing” (Smith & Conti, 2016, p. 78) in the language learning process. Whilst this focus is “an essential aspect of the teaching of Modern Languages” (Pountain, 2021, p. 62), it would seem it is less of an explicit feature in English teaching. For Teacher 6, the problem is that English as a subject is not taught in Wales as French or Spanish would be taught in France or Spain. As a result, Teacher 6 felt that the concept of an LLC AoLE would work more effectively in France or Spain than it does in Wales because there would be a shared grammatical understanding between language teachers. A positive example of encouraging all pupils to notice language as an explicit approach to language teaching (Wenham, 2021) has been the bank of terminology created in School A created to aid pupils working across languages but also supporting teachers' understanding of grammar in the different languages.

Collen et al.'s survey of teachers of international languages showed that they were “concerned about the complex interplay between international languages and English and Welsh” (2021, p. 35). For the teachers of international languages in this research, the main issue appeared to be the lack of parity between the languages in the LLC in terms of status and curriculum allocation. Teachers of Welsh felt threatened by working with the English department, even though their subject is one of the mandatory elements in CFW and so, in theory, there should be no issue, but the legacy of a perceived lower status in the languages might be the issue here. Some teachers railed against a perceived “political agenda to force people to learn Welsh” (survey respondent). For

teachers of international languages, there is a strong sentiment of despair about the lack of parity between the three languages and the dwindling curriculum hours for the subject which mirrors the problems encountered in Corsica, of devoting sufficient curriculum time to the third language. On the other hand, some teachers of international languages, perceived a greater focus on their subject and greater recognition because of the association with English and to a lesser extent, Welsh.

There is a clear emphasis on embracing linguistic diversity in the LLC guidance as it is a reality in Wales. Teacher 3 expressed this diversity succinctly: “in any given class you have a third or maybe even a half of pupils that speak another language” and recognised that this brought in a “different dynamic” to teaching and yet this view was not shared by the survey respondents. For Teacher 8, it is important to teach grammar so that pupils with EAL (English as an Additional Language) can thrive in international language lessons, with the international language supporting work in the other languages. However, there were very few mentions of this linguistic diversity in the data collected from this research and this is mirrored by Hélot’s assertion that the “many languages children speak outside of schools are still rarely viewed as cultural capital or as a learning resource for the students concerned” (Hélot, 2018, p. 118). Tsvietaieva and Pryscheva (2019) recognise that exploiting community languages in this potential “multilingual space” is challenging, especially as research into how the international language operates in this space is relatively “underdeveloped” (p. 433). A potential issue here is that whilst speakers of Welsh might “need to be multilingual” (Gorter & Cenoz, 2011, p. 655) to survive in the society in which they live, in the English-medium context speakers of English, “one of ‘big’ languages” (ibid) have less of an imperative to learn about different languages. This view was supported by one of the survey respondents who commented that teachers of English need “to buy into importance of other languages.”

In summary for RQ1, whilst LLC teachers were knowledgeable about the AoLE, there were many issues with the grouping of languages and one survey respondent’s comment that “departments being bolted together in ways that make no sense logistically but fit in name alone” was a perception shared by several teachers.

However, there was a difference in reaction between the teachers interviewed and the survey respondents who appeared more negative in their response although this is to be expected as, when participants self-administer research, they may “under-report” or “over-report” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 336) thereby introducing bias. Teachers’ perceptions will undoubtedly evolve as they become more familiar with CfW, especially if research is carried out into the benefits of each language on the other but there are some fundamental issues in the grouping of languages that need to be considered at all levels and will form part of the recommendations in Chapter 6.

5.3.2 RQ 2

What challenges are English, Welsh and International Language teachers facing in delivering the LLC AoLE and how will they overcome these challenges?

The data for this question came from the coding of the semi-structured interviews and the qualitative survey questions. Quantitative data from the survey was also used to support findings. It was clear that the case study teachers who were interviewed had all felt the impact of COVID-19 and this was one of the first themes, labelled as “Because of COVID”, to emerge from the coding process. Both teachers and students rose “to unprecedented challenges” during the pandemic and the whole sector “is only beginning to count the cost” (Collen, 2021, p. 5). COVID had impacted on some of the CfW and LLC planning and projects that were set up before the pandemic inevitably lost momentum, but it also had affected teachers’ confidence in planning how to deliver CfW.

Another of the codes that emerged from the interviews was that of subject integrity – “Spanish is Spanish, Welsh is Welsh, English is English.” Whilst many teachers expressed the importance of “maintaining the integrity and academic respect of key disciplines as separate subjects at GCSE” (survey respondent), the main concern of the LLC teachers who took part in this research was about how to collaborate with LLC colleagues and how to make effective links between the languages. Teachers from

School A seemed the most positive about collaboration, possibly because they had started the curriculum reform process before the other schools. It was surprising to note, however, that other teachers felt that it was difficult to collaborate with colleagues even though the successful collaboration examples in Finland and Republic of Ireland mentioned in Chapter 2 demonstrate that collaboration can help language teachers “see the bigger picture of educational development” (Moate et al., 2021, p. 11) as well as offering opportunities for innovation and experimentation. The survey showed that whilst 62.37% of teachers had collaborated with LLC colleagues (Q21), 21.5% of respondents revealed that they were not confident in their ability to collaborate with colleagues to create resources, with 15.1% choosing the neutral option (Q14). One survey respondent felt “constrained by collaborating with LLC colleagues”, with another stating that it is challenging to collaborate with the English and Welsh departments “because they are reluctant” and the rivalry between English and the other two languages was summed up by one respondent who felt that it was a challenge “being told how to teach Spanish/Welsh by a Head of English!” Not only that, but Teacher 2 expressed how difficult it was to collaborate with other schools: “there hasn’t been any useful collaboration because we’re at a different stage” and this challenge had emerged from the fact that “the curriculum is so different in every school context” with collaboration only possible “if we’re on the similar level or area of progress.”

Another of the challenges was that the survey respondents felt that the links made between the languages were often “arbitrary” or allowed a “dumbing down” of teaching to occur. Teacher 8 concurred with this viewpoint after collaborative work analysing if there was any synergy in the respective schemes of work: “we were really clutching at straws when we were going through trying to find links.” For School 3, this had been the impetus not to adopt the AoLE structure as suggested, but instead to group Welsh and French together as ‘Languages’. One survey respondent felt that rather than concentrating on links, there should be more focus on the “solid foundations of individual language learning.” One respondent stated a view that was shared by many that the various levels of language proficiency posed a problem: “in year 7 pupils have zero French, some Welsh and are fluent in English. Very difficult to work together as 3 languages without compromising”. An issue here is that this

compromise might be fruitful, in terms of pupils' increased metalinguistic awareness which could even have a beneficial impact on pupils' L1 literacy (Murphy et al., 2015) although more research in this area, in the Welsh context, would be needed.

To overcome this reluctance to collaborate, it would be useful to have planning time, with a recognition of “the additional workload and pressure of collaborating, modifying and implementing new schemes of work” (survey respondent) with teachers still in the shadow of COVID-19. This collaboration time needs to be encouraged by school leadership teams who need to establish a “shared working culture” (Hasell & Björklund, 2021, p. 17) which would allow LLC teachers opportunities to research crosslinguistic influence and create meaningful resources and ultimately “collective efficacy” (Hargreaves & O'Connor, 2018, p. 11) amongst all teachers in the LLC.

Another theme to emerge from the coding process was the freedom inherent in CfW, labelled as “So, there's more freedom”. Whilst for some respondents this freedom was seen as providing exciting challenges – from “opportunities for creativity” to allowing teachers to explore “topics that will spark more interest with pupils”, for others it provoked negative feelings, as expressed by one respondent: “the lack of guidance about the CfW is very worrying and creating significant anxiety and concern among teachers.” The freedom of CfW comes from how it devolves responsibility through its ethos of subsidiarity, allowing teachers the freedom to build a curriculum which reflects their school context. For Newton (2020), this subsidiarity and, by extension the freedom that comes with it, have long term benefits for curriculum sustainability and can “successfully foster teachers' confidence” (p. 223) although not all teachers in the survey or from the interviews shared this confidence.

To overcome the fear of freedom, there is clearly a demand for support to help fill in the knowledge deficit teachers perceive they have. For Hughes and Lewis (2020), whilst teachers appreciated the autonomy they now have, they did not view the scaffolding that published “off-the-peg” materials provided” (p. 298) as a tension to this autonomy. This can be seen in the rising popularity of Conti's resources as they

also provide ‘scaffolding’ for teachers of Welsh and international languages, therefore, resources that are externally produced that link all three languages might relieve some of the burden that teachers are feeling and might help develop their autonomy and increase their confidence.

There was concern expressed by the case study teachers as well as from the survey respondents about assessment and monitoring in the new curriculum. The code label for this concern was “How are we going to measure this?” Some survey respondents felt that the new assessment regime offered the chance “to bring assessment and outcomes into the 21st century.” Most respondents were less positive about assessment because it had not been “ironed out” and therefore teachers “do not 100% understand the end goal.” This was matched by data collected in Section B of the questionnaire on teachers’ confidence levels in monitoring pupil progression and assessing pupils where in both data sets the unease about the new arrangements for progression and assessment can be seen. Whilst most teachers were confident, it was still surprising that 27.8% of teachers stated they were unconfident about progression and 29.0% for assessment.

The GCSE was considered by many teachers to be the end goal of their teaching as “there is a need for clear external reference points in terms of expected levels of student performance at different levels of education” (OECD, 2013, p. 214). Preparing pupils for the GCSE content and assessment techniques used in the examinations were the most important drivers in the creation of their schemes of work. Teacher 3 sums up the role of the GCSE for teachers in planning: “I’ve always got one eye on the GCSE.” However, there is an immediate tension here – as the GCSE could have a strong influence on planning decisions, this might affect teachers embracing the freedom of CfW to find new topics. A view expressed by survey respondents was the fact that GCSEs would have to change – “without fundamentally changing GCSEs, we can’t change anything”. Whilst teachers from Schools A and C expressed concern about summative assessment. School B was the only school to mention formative assessment, even though it is a critical part of CfW. In fact, School B had taken a conscious decision to concentrate initially on formative assessment, as part of what

they called a “responsive teaching” approach, to mitigate the general fear about summative assessment. However, unless schools consider how they will measure pupils’ progress, this fear will remain and potentially increase.

Two other areas of concern emerged from the survey – a lack of time and a lack of professional training. From the thematic analysis of the qualitative comments made by survey respondents, many teachers commented that a lack of time was impacting their curriculum development work. One respondent considered this to be challenge, not to have the time “to create resources and designing the curriculum with AoLE”. Another respondent commented on the fact that the pandemic had generated an increased workload for teachers through additional pressures to rapidly embrace digital technology, which was also having an impact on teachers’ ability to plan effectively. There was also a perception that teachers had not had sufficient training on the LLC. In section B of the questionnaire, the answers to the Professional Learning questions showed that 80.64% of participants considered they would benefit from consortia-led training on the LLC and the same percentage perceiving that collaborating more with LLC colleagues would also be beneficial.

In summary for RQ2, there are several challenges that LLC teachers are facing. Some of these challenges, such as the impact of COVID-19 will inevitably lessen over time. Others such as problems with collaborating, the fear of the autonomy teachers have, and assessment and monitoring fears will need to be addressed by senior leaders at the whole school level. Schools will need to listen to teachers’ concerns and develop ways of supporting them over the coming years. Chapter 6 will detail implications for policy and practice to help mitigate and overcome these challenges.

5.3.3 RQ 3

How confident are English, Welsh and International Language teachers in the pedagogical practices needed to teach elements of What Matters statement 1: Languages connect us?

What Matters statement 1 – *Languages connect us* encourages “learners to recognise similarities between languages and to embrace the differences between them” (Welsh Government, 2021a). Not only does this *What Matters* statement require the teacher to use distinct pedagogical practices, it also necessitates an understanding of the similarities and difference between the three languages. This research question sought to establish LLC teachers’ confidence in using pedagogy concerned with exploiting links between languages.

In terms of teacher confidence in teaching this *What Matters* statement most teachers (60.2%) felt confident. To establish whether the case study teachers were confident in the pedagogical practices needed to teach elements of this statement, they were initially asked how they defined pedagogy and the different definitions are compiled in Table 5.1 below. Teacher 3’s definition is the closest one to the Teaching Schools Council’s (2016) definition of pedagogy, linking “knowledge and its transmission” (p. 8) which is particularly pertinent for language teaching. Whilst there are similarities in the teachers’ definitions, the differences between them demonstrate that, if pedagogy is such a key part of CfW, more work is needed at the societal level in Wales to ensure all practitioners have the same understanding.

TEACHER	PEDAGOGY DEFINITION
Teacher 1	Method of teaching and how we teach things.
Teacher 2	How we teach, so the methods, strategies we use to teach.
Teacher 3	The methodology you use in transferring a skill set or knowledge from the teacher to learners
Teacher 4	The teaching method, the order in which you teach things for best pupil progress.
Teacher 5	The science of teaching.
Teacher 6	The art of teaching, the architecture of teaching
Teacher 7	The science of teaching. It's the theory behind the practice.
Teacher 8	Teaching
Teacher 9	Teaching and learning – both aspects.

Table 5.1. Definitions of pedagogy

Teachers were questioned about their familiarity with the pedagogy that could support the teaching of What Matters statement 1, *Languages connect us*. Teachers were most familiar with etymology (80.24%) and least familiar with traditional *parsing* (35.8%) and CLIL (24.68%). Responses to each of the pedagogical practices are outlined below.

Translanguaging alternates the use of two languages for input and output in the same activity. The learner receives the information in one language and works with that information in another language. The word comes from the Welsh term *trawsieithu* and was first coined by Cen Williams (Lewis, Jones and Baker, 2012) and it describes the pedagogic transfer between the two languages in bilingual education. The inclusion of this term reflects a trend in multilingual education to consider translanguaging as a viable pedagogy and it has been successfully employed in the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC). However, it presupposes that the teacher is equally conversant in the different languages which adds weight to the comments by the teacher of Welsh from School B who viewed it as a useful pedagogical practice but felt that it was harder for other languages to consider using this pedagogy. The teacher of Welsh from School A also had used translanguaging pedagogy, linking this to its inclusion in the GCSE specification. From the survey, 56.79% of respondents had used translanguaging, with 73.5% of teachers stating that they would consider using it, with 68.74% perceiving it to be effective as classroom practice and 67.07% considering it effective to engage pupils. Whilst not all teachers are familiar with translanguaging there is scope for it to be included in LLC pedagogy, however, its use would necessitate additional training for teachers.

Etymology was considered the most effective pedagogical practice overall and it was also the one where teachers were most confident (87.8% stated that they were confident to use it as pedagogy). Not only that but 93.67% of respondents stated that they would consider using it, with 83.96% of teachers perceiving it have the potential to be effective for classroom practice, 75.6% considering it effective for pupil engagement and 86.25% seeing it as effective for making links between languages in

the AoLE. However, it should be noted that, during the analysis of the data from Section 3 of the questionnaire, cross tabulation and the chi-square test of independence were used to see if the languages taught had an impact on teachers' familiarity with the pedagogical practices mentioned. In the case of etymology, teachers of Welsh were much less familiar than expected with the use of etymology with supported the alternative hypothesis as outlined in Chapter 4 and this is why training in exploiting etymology is listed as part of the recommendations in Chapter 6.

Myatt (2018) emphasises the importance of etymology as it “unlocks the territory of the domain” (p. 96) and helps learners move vocabulary from their working memory to their long-term memory. Etymology has the power to support pupils' lexical knowledge in L1 as well as helping learners find links between the languages. Teachers from School A all felt confident in teaching etymology considering it an integral part of their current practice and useful for creating links between languages. Teachers from School B were also confident in teaching etymology although felt its role in language learning was limited and used it more in tutor time as part of the ‘Word of the Day’ initiative. School C teachers were also confident in using etymology in their teaching but on an ad-hoc basis when opportunities arose.

Traditional *parsing* is the deconstructing of a sentence into its component parts and the describing of the syntactic roles of the component parts. It was a popular pedagogical activity until the 1960s, but it has fallen out of favour ever since. In School A all language teachers felt confident in deconstructing sentences or traditional *parsing*. However, what was interesting was what they considered the function of this to be – for teachers of Welsh and international languages traditional *parsing* was a part of grammar teaching but for the teacher of English traditional *parsing* also had the role of identifying figures of speech e.g., similes and metaphors in a text. In School B, their focus was more on functions of language rather than traditional *parsing*. In School C, both the Welsh and French teacher were confident users of traditional *parsing* as a pedagogical practice with the French teacher describing it as “detective work” with the English teacher using it as part of textual analysis. Of the survey respondents, 71.6% had used traditional *parsing*, with 74.68% of teachers saying they

would consider using it. Respondents could see some benefits in using traditional *parsing* pedagogy in classroom practice (69.04% said that they thought it had potential as effective classroom practice) and 65% felt it could be useful in creating links between languages. As with translanguaging, for this to be effective to respond to What Matters statement 1, teachers would need to have a strong understanding of the AoLE languages. It should be added that Conti's approach to language teaching was cited by each of case study school as an excellent way to encourage pupils to construct sentences and was also mentioned by several respondents, citing the "use of Conti's pedagogy for chunking and using sentence builders" as well as "Extensive Processing Instruction (E.P.I.)".

Another of the pedagogical practices included in the survey was Language Awareness (LA) which refers to explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use. Language Awareness came to the fore in 1990s as part of a drive to improve literacy. Even though it is an effective pedagogy which supports the awakening and development of metalinguistic skills and is used in many European countries, it has largely disappeared in the UK. LA is not concerned with learning different languages, as it has "a subordinate role to language learning" (Kelly, 2019, p. 45) but it could support language learning. Language Awareness could also help develop work on citizenship which clearly links to the Four Purposes. It was surprising that none of the case study teachers mentioned LA as a potential pedagogy. In the survey, 72.84% of teachers had used language awareness and 76.32% of teachers considered that it would be useful to establish links between languages. What was interesting is that, in the analysis of the data from Section 3 of the questionnaire, cross tabulation and the chi-square test of independence were used to see if the languages taught had an impact on teachers' familiarity with the pedagogical practices mentioned. In the case of Language Awareness, the alternative hypothesis was accepted with English teachers much less familiar with Language Awareness than expected from a normal distribution point of view. This would suggest that there are opportunities to promote this pedagogical practice through professional development.

Content and Language Integrated learning (CLIL) received the lowest scores from teachers, with only 21.95% having used it as pedagogy. CLIL is an approach where students learn a subject and a second language at the same time. It is what happens in international lessons at A level (Smith & Conti, 2016). CLIL is extremely popular as a pedagogical practice across Europe as it takes a holistic “value-added” approach where pupils gain content knowledge as well as improve their language skills (Mehisto et al., 2009, p. 27). The survey respondents did not appear to embrace CLIL as a potential pedagogy although it has the potential to help pupils to learn across the languages as the effective practice of *Keilisuihkussa* [language showering] in Finland shows.

5.4 Limitations of this study

As “all studies have limitations” (Ross & Zaidi, 2019), it is important to present “weaknesses within the study that may influence outcomes and conclusions of the research” to ensure “transparency of both the research and the researchers” (p. 261). For Price and Murnan (2004), these limitations represent “the systematic bias that the researcher could not control” (p. 66). One such limitation, which was out of my control, was that only one set of the case studies interviews, Case Study A, was carried out face to face. For Case Study B, face to face interviews were planned but then had to be cancelled and for Case Study C, it was requested that the interviews took place online via Microsoft Teams by the school. For Schools 2 and 3, this decision reflected a whole school policy to reduce school visitors in the wake of the pandemic. Whilst the internal validity of the data collection was not affected because I already knew, in a professional capacity, 8 out of the 9 teachers. It did mean, however, that the first time I had met Teacher 6 was online which may have given rise to trust issues for the interviewee.

Another limitation is that participation in the questionnaire was voluntary so teachers who responded were more engaged in the subject of the LLC AoLE and this could cause potential bias in the sample. Analysis of the demographic questions, however, revealed that all ages were represented, as were the years of teaching, the predominant

female teaching force was replicated, albeit with fewer men, 13.59%, reflecting the 34% of male teachers in 2021/22 in Wales (Stats Wales, 2021) and there was a distribution of languages taught. Overall, the sample was broad and did not appear to be biased on a particular type of teacher.

As only three case studies were created, the emergent data is limited with its accuracy only applicable to the case studies concerned. The study would have benefitted from a greater number of schools with which to build the case studies, from different areas in Wales and also widening the remit to include Welsh-medium schools. It should be noted, however, that case study methodology does allow a glimpse of “real people in real situations” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 376) and it also allows theory building, rather than theory testing (Yin, 2018) which was important for this research. The questionnaire was used to triangulate and check the validity of the data from the case studies to see if the wider population of LLC teachers shared the views expressed by the case study teachers which mitigated any issues.

5.5 Summary

In this chapter I outlined my identity trajectory as a novice researcher as I crossed boundaries from secondary teacher to teacher educator and from teacher educator to researcher. Reflective practice and the support of my supervisory team have helped me develop my skills and knowledge as well as maintaining the professional distance needed as a researcher. I also examined how I identified this area of research, from a simple thought that ‘just like in Welsh’ would have helped pupils build on their schemas and understand more readily the French grammar they were being taught.

This research sought to establish teachers’ perceptions of the LLC and their understanding of the challenges that they face in the new AoLE structure. It also considered how teachers would be teaching What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us* and whether they were confident in the pedagogical practices needed. What was interesting was that there was alignment between Teacher PS’s views from the

pilot study with views of the case study teachers and with the wider LLC teacher population who took part in the survey. All teachers shared the same enthusiasm for parts of CfW and the same concerns for the LLC AoLE.

Teachers felt positive about the Four Purposes and were knowledgeable about curriculum development. Some teachers considered that the LLC AoLE offered them opportunities, but most teachers felt these benefits were overcome by the challenges they were facing. COVID-19 had left a damaging legacy as LLC teachers had lost the impetus they had established before the pandemic. The pandemic had also given them an opportunity to reflect on early LLC projects and, where these had been thematic, these were deemed to be unsuccessful. A recurring theme was that English as a curriculum subject was in the wrong AoLE and there appeared to be tensions between teachers of English and the other languages because of the differences between first and second language pedagogy.

Teachers were confident about some of the pedagogical practices needed to teach What Matters statement 1, but there clearly were professional development needs identified. This professional development could help change teachers' mindsets by providing them with strategies and resources so that they would feel more confident in their knowledge of links between languages and how to transfer this knowledge to learners.

The greatest concern was that LLC teachers seemed to be fearful of collaborating with their LLC colleagues. The pandemic appeared to have affected teachers' collaborative endeavours and their desire to find common ground. There is clearly work to be done here at a whole school level to offer LLC teachers time to work together. Effective collaboration between the LLC teachers could transform their experience and could improve their confidence levels in the pedagogical practices needed. Schools such as School A where teachers have been collaborating effectively could be used as role models to show other schools what can be achieved. The successful collaboration models in Republic of Ireland and Finland - *talkoo(t)* in Finnish and *meitheal* in Irish which both express the idea of a communal way of working for the common good -

could inspire LLC teachers in Wales to create meaningful links between their colleagues and between the AoLE languages. In this way, effective collaboration between LLC teachers would not only help their professional development, but it could also help their pupils see the connections between languages.

Chapter 6: Concluding Discussion

Chapter 6: Concluding Discussion

The context for this research has been the “once in very generation” (Taylor & Power, 2020, p. 178) curriculum reform in Wales following the publication of Donaldson’s seminal work *Successful Futures* in 2015. Whilst not all the reforms in Curriculum for Wales have been radical, the organisation of the curriculum into areas, and in particular the Languages, Literacy and Communication area, has had significant implications for teachers of Welsh, English and international languages. Not only has collaboration been difficult between these teachers in terms of the conflicting pedagogy of first, second and third language acquisition but also, the curriculum guidance promotes the need to make links between the languages and the pedagogy needed to make these links is not familiar to many teachers. Past triple literacy and multilingual initiatives in Wales had some success but many teachers felt that the links between the languages were too arbitrary to be effective.

This study was inspired both by Donaldson’s *Successful Futures* (2015), with its encouragement for “exploiting the links between English, Welsh and modern foreign language learning” (p. 48) as well as an observed French lesson which had the potential to improve pupils’ understanding of the grammatical concept being taught if links had been made to pupils’ grammatical understanding of Welsh. When I started on this research, as outlined in Chapter 5: Summary, I saw my role more as a secondary teacher, wanting to root this research in pedagogy and the ‘practicum’ of teaching. However, as I became more confident in my role as a researcher, I decided instead to take a step back from teaching to consider teachers’ perceptions of the curriculum changes. This decision was consolidated by my involvement in *multilingual literacy* initiatives, led by the regional consortia, where I could see the tensions between the different teachers and the challenge of collaborating with colleagues and finding a common ground.

My previous career as a teacher and PGCE tutor of modern foreign languages meant that, whilst I have not adopted an autoethnographic approach in this study, it is inevitable that my research has been framed by my knowledge and experience, as well

as my concern at the perilous state of the “the ‘Big 3’ of French, German and Spanish” (Collen et al, 2021, p. 12) in Wales. In Chapter 1: Introduction, I suggested that my background may have been a limitation of the research and in Chapter 5: Summary, I discuss in detail the boundary crossing that was inevitable moving from teacher to university tutor to researcher. I now recognise that my knowledge and experience could be considered a positive attribute in that I understand the challenges that language teachers in Wales are facing and any recommendations that are made are cognisant of the context in which these teachers are working. My career has been guided by my belief in “the transformative potential of multilingualism” (Gorrara, 2021, p. 133) and this thesis has allowed me to advocate for the language teachers I interviewed and surveyed.

I also ensured, through the process of reflexivity, that I was aware of “the contextual intersecting relationships” (Dodgson, 2019, p. 220) between researcher and participant and I constantly questioned my positionality through “continual internal dialogue and critical self-evaluation” (Berger, 2015, p. 219). Even though I was sympathetic to the teachers I interviewed, I made sure that I did not “revert to previously held classroom teacher identity and practice” (Williams, 2014, p. 2), through reflective practice, thereby maintaining a professional distance needed for the research.

Supporting this research was a conceptual framework which is described in detail in Chapter 1: Introduction. This framework encouraged me to consider what was important, to examine relationships between different concepts and, to identify what data was collected (Robson and McCartan, 2016). The conceptual framework used an ecological model which considered the spheres of influence which affect a teacher’s perceptions aligned with Priestley et al.’s Sites of Curriculum Making (2021).

This following chapter will first present an overview of my findings bringing together the conclusions drawn from this research. Implications for the Languages, Literacy

and Communication area will be discussed, along with recommendations for policy and practice. Finally, this chapter will address future research in the field.

6.1 Key findings

This mixed methods study established three case studies of three secondary English-medium schools in South Wales. Geographically close, these schools not only have a vastly different socio-economic context, but they also have a vastly different approach to Curriculum for Wales, in keeping with the nation's emphasis on subsidiarity and teacher agency. From each LLC area in each of the schools, teachers of English, Welsh and international languages were interviewed. These interviews were then cross-validated by survey data obtained from a questionnaire sent to the wider LLC population in Wales. What was the most interesting is that the perceptions and concerns of the case study teachers were replicated by the survey respondents from the wider research population of LLC teachers all over Wales.

One of the initial concerns about the grouping of languages in the LLC area was that each language as a separate subject would lose its own identity. Whilst this may have been an issue for the Humanities area, for example, where "it's much more blurred" as "when pupils came to do their options they didn't know what History and Geography were", in reality the individual languages will always keep their distinct identity, as "there's no doubt Spanish is Spanish, Welsh is Welsh and English is English and you can't change that" (Teacher 3). Moreover, the marked difference between the languages is what has affected collaboration the most, with Teacher 4 with viewing the languages as "three very different disciplines in the same AoLE." The main challenge is the disconnect between first and second language pedagogy so that collaborations are often limited or as Teacher 6 described it a "tick list" with repetitive and reductive links made between the languages. Added to these differences in the languages arising from first and second language pedagogy is the status or perceived status of each language in Curriculum for Wales. Even though Welsh and English enjoy the status of mandatory subjects, there still a perception of the issue of "the English thing" (Teacher 1) where English as a curriculum subject is perceived as

dominating the area because of its curriculum time allocation as well as international languages suffering in terms of curriculum allocation as a non-mandatory subject.

Collaboration between the teachers was seen by some teachers as a positive outcome from the LLC area, providing teachers with CPD and quality assurance opportunities across the languages. Threats to collaboration arose from the geographical location of the subject classrooms within the school and not having a shared common room area. Teacher 1 corroborated that the fact that subjects were so dispersed within the school layout contributed to “the divide”. Furthermore, COVID-19 had also affected many collaborative projects with much of the initial enthusiasm lost, compounded by meetings where teachers had to socially distance which was understandably not conducive for communication.

In terms of What Matters Statement 1: *Languages Connect Us* some survey respondents felt that there were considerable benefits in exploring explicit language links in terms of learning, as summarised by one teacher, stating that these links allowed “teachers of languages to collaborate on effective pedagogy and hone/improve their skills.” Whilst most teachers were confident about collaborating with LLC colleagues to create resources, there were a considerable number who were not confident, and this is of concern.

6.2 Implications for policy and practice

It is clear from the findings of this study that change is needed in both policy and practice. Therefore, I propose the following logical recommendations which have been informed by analysis of the data collected and supported by the Literature Review in Chapter 2:

6.2.1 Carry out collaborative Welsh context-specific research into language transfer and crosslinguistic influence.

Many of the teacher survey respondents regarded the LLC area in a negative way, with one teacher considering it as a “detriment to reading, oracy and writing skills through lost hours in English” and another teacher commenting that “links are often superficial and forced”. This reflected the sentiment of the modern foreign language teachers interviewed as part of the 2016/7 British Council report, *Language Trends Wales* (Tinsley & Board, 2017), with over 60% stating that learning Welsh and English offered little or no preparation for the acquiring of a third language. It may be that teachers’ lack of confidence in previous *triple literacy* activities may be based on a lack of a firm evidence base. It is vital therefore that research be carried out to see which parts of the transfer between the languages are beneficial to pupils and teachers.

This research needs to be context-specific to Wales as the interplay between the languages is different in other countries which have a trilingual education, where pupils have greater familiarity of the third language than they do in Wales. In Fryslân, for example, bilingual pupils of Frisian and Dutch have a much greater knowledge of English than their Welsh counterparts, described as “a second (or third) language rather than a foreign language” (Gorter et al., 2008, p. 192). It should be noted, however, that the three languages taught in Fryslân are all related, and all belong to the West Germanic branch of Germanic languages (Cenoz and Gorter, 2011) and so this might explain pupils’ confidence in all three languages.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, “language contact” (Campbell and Poser 2008, p. 10) where languages may have been influenced by the Roman invasion of Britain, for example, can be used to explain language similarities between Welsh and French and Spanish. Furthermore, in Wales, in most schools the languages that are taught are Indo-European, descending from “the ancestor” (Ringe, 2017, p. 5) language, Proto-Indo-European, which suggests there are ancestral links between the languages taught. These links are stronger for certain language groupings, often presented as branches on a tree. Sundberg’s infographic explains the tree metaphor by illustrating the

relationships between languages effectively (Sundberg, 2014), with larger foliage reflecting the relative size of the different languages. In this way, English and German are more closely related as Germanic languages, Welsh is grouped with other Celtic languages on its own branch and French and Spanish are grouped under Romance languages (Figure 6.1). On the tree, French, as a Romance language and Germanic languages are more closely related than Celtic and Ibero-Romance languages, whereas Ibero-Romance and Celtic languages might have more links; although it should be noted that all these languages share commonality as European languages. Understanding that related languages might be easier for pupils to navigate could impact the choice of which international language to teach and help understand the limitations of crosslinguistic work.

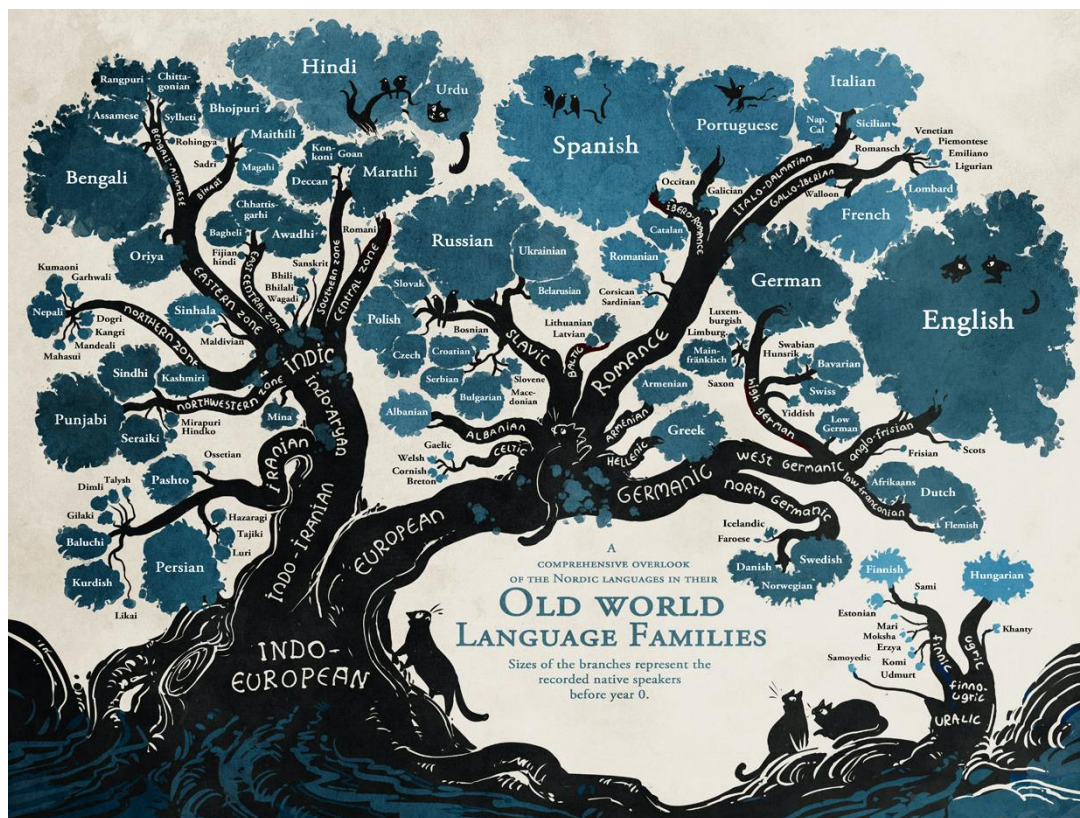


Figure 6-1. Language Tree infographic

Not only that but new research building on Murphy et al.’s (2015) work on orthography in the Welsh context could also inform the choice of international language taught as “orthographies place different demands on children’s language and literacy skills” (Llaurado and Dockrell, 2020, p. 2). The orthography of a language, therefore, has the potential to impact its readability and accessibility, with languages

such as Welsh and Spanish being termed *shallow* or *transparent*, German considered *semi-transparent* and English and French *deep* or *opaque*. Differing orthographies could have an impact, for example, on assessing bilingual pupils' literacy skills (Thomas et al., 2022) and on how pronunciation is taught to English speaking pupils who are learning Spanish (Rafat & Perry, 2019). This information could also be used to inform the choice of international language. Spanish with its shallow orthography and proximity to Welsh on the Indo-European language tree might be a more obvious choice than French, for example. Research into the impact of orthographies in the language learning process in Wales would support both the selection of languages taught and the pedagogy needed to maximise beneficial crosslinguistic transfer.

This research could also help align the trends in multilingualism so that it might feed into LPP in Wales, in terms of language practices and the language choices speakers make, language beliefs or ideologies or what people think about language" (Liu, 2018, p. 15) and language management or "what people *try to do* to language" (King & Logan-Terry, 2008, p. 6, emphasis in original). Moreover, by adopting an ethnographic approach to LPP this could ensure that all voices are heard (Hornberger et al., 2018) and in this case, LLC teachers so that LPP builds on their needs. Additionally, it could provide insight into multilingualism and cognition and build on the notion of the "bilingual advantage" (Antoniou, 2019, p. 396). Tsimpli et al.'s (2020) comment on the scarcity of research on multilingualism and cognitive effects, "possibly due to the assumption that multilingualism is cumulative bilingualism" (p. 1) would also support this subfield being a focus of research in Wales.

A collaborative research endeavour would be a useful way of involving HEIs and LLC school practitioners which would support the National strategy for educational research and enquiry (NSERE) (Welsh Government, 2021e) in Wales and build on The National Professional Enquiry Project (NPEP) which was launched by the Welsh Government as a collaborative project in 2018 and "has benefitted from sustained government funding" (Evans et al., 2022, p. 174) to help build a body of knowledge that is Welsh context-specific. Evans et al. (2022) argue that the bringing together of universities, regional consortia, schools and government for NPEP "has had a

galvanising effect” (p. 177) on collaboration and the same could apply for LLC research to enhance the understanding of how third language acquisition works and could work in Wales and of the potential benefits of crosslinguistic influence between the languages. Rooting this research in Wales would seem fitting at a time of curriculum reform which is based on local research with the caveat that this might offer “a potentially insular lens” (Beauchamp et al., 2022, p. 1) and that supra level research perspectives might also be needed. Overall, this research has the potential to make teachers more confident in the grouping of languages in the LLC area, as well as an awareness of the limitations and how to best exploit the links between the languages.

6.2.2 Create a pedagogical centre of excellence for LLC

One of the recommendations from Furlong’s (2015) review of ITE in Wales was that “Wiserd Education be extended to include a pedagogical dimension linked to a network of five centres of pedagogical excellence across Wales” (p. 39) This has not been realised to date although the Welsh Government’s plans for National Research Centres (Welsh Government, 2021h) could have a pedagogical focus. This study has shown from the data that this would be an excellent support to teachers, existing as an actual building or as a notional organisation. There is clearly a need for a mutual understanding of pedagogy amongst teachers in Wales at a general level - of the nine teachers interviewed for example, each gave a different definition of the term *pedagogy*. This need justifies professional development centred on subject knowledge and pedagogy, despite 2013 TALIS (Teaching and Learning International Survey) data which revealed that professional development was “deemed to be high quality” (OECD, 2017, p. 1) when it concentrated on curriculum rather than pedagogical or subject knowledge. It may also be the case that the teachers from the other countries interviewed (30 countries in total) had a much clearer and consistent understanding of pedagogy.

Moreover, whilst the notion of *excellence* in this context could also be considered a “high-stakes decision” (Humes & Priestley, 2021, p. 194) as it was for Scotland’s

Curriculum for Excellence, the term could motivate and make Wales sector-leading in pedagogical understanding. An LLC centre of pedagogical excellence would ensure consistency across Wales and would provide opportunities to disseminate good practice, even though the pedagogy needed for each school context would inevitably be slightly different.

Furthermore, one of the assumptions at the start of this thesis was that the radical changes in the guidance for the LLC AoLE content across languages would need different pedagogical practices, which has been corroborated by the data analysis from the semi-structured interviews and questionnaire where there were gaps in knowledge of some of the pedagogical practices needed to address What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*. Teachers of English, for example, were less likely to be confident in Language Awareness and teachers of Welsh were less likely to be confident in etymology and so a pedagogical centre could offer professional development for these teachers. Most teachers were familiar with traditional *parsing* (71.6%) but as D'Angelo & Sorace (2022) assert, to gain metalinguistic awareness (MLA), “it is required for learners to focus on grammatical form, i.e., to break down languages into its constituent parts” (p. 3563). It would seem imperative, therefore, that teachers of English, Welsh and international languages receive training in this practice. Additionally, very few teachers had used CLIL methods in their teaching (21.95%) but there are opportunities to build on this, especially for short bursts of exposure in Welsh and international language classrooms, which would fit well with translanguaging within the classroom environment where two languages (L1 and L2) are used interchangeably. Whittaker & McCabe et al.'s (2020) longitudinal study of CLIL history students in Spain would be useful here to present supra level examples of where CLIL has worked effectively in terms of an improvement in subject knowledge and language skills in the language of instruction.

All the potential pedagogical practices presented in Chapter 2 could support What Matters statement 1 and, it was clear from the survey data that teachers were not completely familiar with these. There are opportunities to develop skills in the different languages which could be effective in acquiring other languages. In this way,

encouraging pupils to understand the importance in cohesion and coherence in textual analysis in English lesson as their L1 could support them in the challenge of understanding texts in Welsh or the modern foreign language. Not only that for Sierens et al., (2018) if schools want to raise their learners' performance in languages, they need to focus on improving the quality of language teaching which they viewed as the "crucial leverage" (p. 78) which would also support the aim of the pedagogical centre.

Much of the original *triple literacy* initiative was "predicated upon the idea of teaching collaboratively, planning across departments and classes and using similar terminology" and the work had a "strong pedagogic focus" (Laugharne, 2015, p. 246). It would be useful, therefore, to revisit the original *triple literacy* document, *Making the Link – Language learning 5 – 14* (2003) to examine potential LLC pedagogy. As part of the regional consortia Global Futures remit, teachers of international languages recognised the value in exchanging "good practice with pedagogical approaches and to promote languages more widely" (Welsh Government, 2022e, p. 33). Moreover, for teachers of international languages, there were significant contributions to their understanding of this pedagogy from input by the MFL Mentoring project, Routes into Languages Cymru and the Open University professional learning programme which made teachers feel "supported and valued" (Welsh Government, 2022e, p. 43). The role of the regional consortia should also be highlighted here as also contributing significantly to teachers' knowledge. It would make sense, therefore, to build on this pedagogy, but with an evidence-base underpinning it. Whilst the pedagogical practices outlined in Chapter 2 have the potential to support teachers, there are opportunities to create other dynamic practices that build "bridges instead of walls" (Ballinger 2015, p. 37) between languages. It is this drive to find a pedagogy that is principled, without being eclectic, which serves both bilingual and SLA pedagogy and which "builds bridges" between Welsh, English and the international language, encouraging multi-directional crosslinguistic influence.

The Teaching Schools Council's (2016) description of pedagogy linking "knowledge and its transmission" (p. 8) is a useful consideration here. It is important, therefore that the LLC pedagogical centre of excellence adopt a dichotomous approach for

teachers so that they are trained in the knowledge as well as the pedagogy in how to deliver this knowledge to their pupils. An example of how this would work is using translanguaging in LLC teaching. Teachers would be given a firm evidence base for translanguaging with supra level examples of where it is used successfully around the world as well as an understanding of how the term has evolved semantically from the Welsh *trawsieithu* [translanguaging]. The next part of the training would involve practical examples of how translanguaging could be used in the classroom so that it becomes a familiar pedagogical practice.

The quantitative data analysis arising from the teacher survey showed that, in terms of professional learning questions, participants overwhelmingly considered that they would benefit from LLC training (Figure 4.28). Undoubtedly new pedagogy has put pressure on teachers, exemplified by one respondent: “If there are elements like translanguaging I’m not confident in, I have to learn a lot when I’m not confident” and allocating time for this professional learning is a challenge for all teachers. In this way, when professional learning or CPD is initiated by teachers rather than a mandate, “it is typically in response to a need perceived by teachers themselves for additional knowledge or skills in a particular area of their practice” (Hayes, 2019, p. 155). It follows that any CPD opportunities should listen to teachers’ voices and be “responsive to the professed needs of teachers” (p. 166).

To be successful, any professional learning provided in the pedagogical centre should be a “shared enterprise” (OECD, 2017, p. 156), thus involving teachers in the decision making and should be carried out over an extended period. This desire for longer term training was demonstrated by one survey who commented that “a day here or an afternoon here barely scratches the surface of preparation needed”. Borg (2022) recommends a distributed model of teacher development, for example one day a week over several weeks, so that practitioners can experiment with innovative ideas in the classroom.

The OECD report (2017), *How can professional development enhance teachers' classroom practices?* based on TALIS (Teaching and Learning International Survey) 2013 data showed that professional development that concentrated on curriculum knowledge was considered most beneficial to practitioners. In the context of CfW, this would mean situating all content within the overall curriculum guidance, so that every activity is checked for its relevance to the Four Purposes and more specifically to the *What Matters* statements in the LLC guidance. Furthermore, a pedagogical centre of excellence would also provide opportunities to make provision coherent as “lack of consistency between schools and across Wales with such a level of freedom” was considered a challenge by one survey respondent.

A pedagogical centre of excellence for LLC could also provide meaningful opportunities for LLC teachers to collaborate. What emerged from this study was that many teachers did not feel able to collaborate with their LLC colleagues, with one survey respondent expressing a common theme of feeling “constrained by collaborating with LLC colleagues”. The positive examples of Finland and Ireland were presented in Chapter 2: Literature Review where both languages have a special term to denote a collaborative mindset, namely *talkoo(t)* in Finnish, and *meitheal* in Irish, which both express the idea of a communal way of working for the common good. These supra-level examples of excellent practice might be useful in guiding and encouraging teachers to adopt a collaborative mindset. Researchers from the University of Jyväskylä (2021) posit that this openness to collaboration allows teachers to see “the bigger picture of educational development” (p. 11) as well as encouraging innovation, supported by TALIS 2108 data which found that that teacher collaboration led to greater innovation in the classroom and higher levels of self-efficacy and job satisfaction among teacher (OECD, 2020). For Borg (2015), teacher collaboration is one of the key features for effective CPD. Moreover, an LLC pedagogical centre might provide a neutral space for teachers to collaborate with colleagues from their own school and with other teachers from all over Wales.

However, Borg's (2022) words of caution should be noted – that any input that is centralised, especially in areas where teacher autonomy is “an emergent concept” (p.

147) may stunt rather than promote autonomy. It could be argued, however, that LLC teachers are under significant pressure, with the encouragement to be autonomous putting “a weight of responsibility on schools and teachers” (Gatley, 2020, p. 205). Rather than encourage autonomy initially, there are significant gaps in teacher knowledge of new pedagogy, for example of how to use translanguaging in the classroom. Even though in other countries, translanguaging is a useful pedagogical practice for combining languages (Garcia & Wei, 2014; Ebe et al., 2021), its use is very sporadic in Wales. Thus, it would seem imperative to build a body of knowledge first before promoting autonomy. Not only that but there are diverse ways of fostering autonomy, from providing content requested by teachers to making any training voluntary. However, Borg (2022) states that just because a course is mandated, it does not necessarily affect teacher motivation and admits that “while the principles of self-determination and voluntarism remain desirable” (p. 148) it might thwart education reform if certain courses are not compulsory. This research concurs with this statement and considers that courses in LLC pedagogy should be compulsory for all LLC teachers as each of the LLC languages have the potential to “illuminate each other” (Kohn, 2019, p. 215) providing that we do not encourage individual languages in Wales to “outshine each other” (ibid).

6.2.3 Curate a shared LLC knowledge-base for student teachers of Welsh, English and modern foreign languages in ITE

To encourage LLC teachers to collaborate, it is vital that this is a key consideration at the start of a teacher’s career. In many ways, ITE providers act as pedagogical centres where they centralise the provision and then student teachers adapt this content to suit the context of their school. Freeman et al., (2019) discuss two views of teacher education, in the context of English teaching: one is about “packaging” information, and the other is about “curating” (p. 14) the knowledge-base that student teachers need. It is this “curating” for the profession that is most interesting in this context.

Freeman (2016) chartered the evolving ideas of knowledge in language teaching and with his fourth-generation category, building on Shulman’s PCK, he subdivides

subject-matter knowledge into common content knowledge and specialised content knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge into specialised knowledge of language acquisition and more practical language teaching and assessment methods, (Freeman et al., 2019). Currently for a secondary PGCE in Wales, each subject (Welsh, English and modern foreign languages) shares its own knowledge-base, acting as “solitudes” (Cummins, 2008, p. 65) or to what Günther-van der Meij et al., (2020) term “language separation ideologies” (p. 98), with few if any opportunities to collaborate as an AoLE. For Günther-van der Meij et al. (2020) “teachers often struggle with the practical implementation of multilingual approaches” (p. 77) in part owing to the ideology of separating languages (Pulinx et al., 2017) and this is particularly challenging for early career teachers. Furthermore, they are then expected to know how to collaborate and what to collaborate on with their AoLE language colleagues without any explicit instruction. It should be noted that the wide remit of the term *international languages* to include classical languages, community languages and BSL is very problematic for ITE provision and, in reality, the focus will have to be on the “the ‘Big 3’ of French, German and Spanish” (Collen et al, 2021, p. 12).

My recommendation would be to fill this gap and develop a specialised content knowledge-base for What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*, which would have commonality for Welsh, English and MFL subject disciplines and would help create early career teachers who would act as ambassadors and even advocates for CfW. Whilst it is unreasonable for language teachers in Wales to be proficient in all the languages taught in Wales, they should be encouraged to develop a sensibility for the other languages and have knowledge of the different orthographies and the implications for crosslinguistic influence. According to Pulinx et al. (2017) teachers have the potential to bring about “more open and inclusive language policies in education” (p. 553) if they receive the training in “practice-orientated and experimental approaches” (p. 554). This is exemplified by the holistic multilingual education model used in Friesland which supports teachers and “maps the possibilities for them to engage with languages which they do not share with their pupils” (Günther-van der Meij et al., 2020, p. 79). In Wales, it would seem that “changing the mindset of language teachers” (Anderson & Macleroy, 2021, p. 173) is crucial, helping them move beyond the consideration of languages as “self-contained systems” (p. 174) and

instilling in them a potential activism which encourages liminality and the mediation between languages (Phipps, 2021).

As part of this knowledge-base, a focus on grammatical form, considered “a good thing” (Smith & Conti, 2016, p. 78) in the language learning process, would be useful for all the language disciplines in ITE. One survey respondent felt that it was imperative to “develop the grammatical awareness of English teachers” but as Teacher 4 stated in the semi-structured case study interview, “in English language we don't teach those aspects of the language. The children can speak the language”. What is important, however, is the emphasis on awareness so that teachers of Welsh and English are aware of the different grammatical forms in say French and Spanish and vice versa, which should help create more consistency in grammar teaching. Whereas pedagogy may be context-specific, a centralised system for grammar or for grammatical metalanguage, as exemplified by the work carried out in Case Study School A would be useful for teachers, aid collaboration and more importantly would support learners so that they could transfer their knowledge from one language to another.

6.2.4 Audit and monitor the status of international languages in schools

Secondary schools in Wales should be surveyed to check time allocation for international languages in the curriculum. What emerged from the thematic analysis from the interviews and qualitative questions on the questionnaire was dissatisfaction with the allocation of hours to international languages. One teacher expressed this frustration: “*Caiff dwy iaith eu cyfri'n bynciau craidd ac un yn bwnc anghraidd, hyn yn golygu nad oes cysondeb o ran oriau cyswllt, cydnabyddiaeth arweinwyr pwnc*” [Two languages are counted as core subjects and one as a non-core subject, this means that there is no consistency in terms of contact hours, recognition of subject leaders]. Many teachers of international languages surveyed and questioned expressed that they were happy with the increased status for their language, being grouped with such high-profile languages. However, many felt that international languages should be “given the same standing in schools as English and Welsh” (survey respondent). I would concur with this sentiment. Whilst it would be

extremely unlikely, if not desirable, that international languages be made mandatory, more curriculum time should be allocated to allow for a degree of parity with the other languages and this should be audited to ensure consistency.

Time allocation for international languages, however, is part of a much wider concern for the subject in secondary schools in Wales. From my personal experience, I found that when visiting secondary schools international languages have become increasingly marginalised during the CfW rollout. Moreover, the evaluation of the Global Futures project to improve and promote international languages in Wales concluded that, whilst there had been a positive contribution in some areas, the Global Futures project has “has had a limited influence on the systemic issues that are linked to the decline in take-up of IL in the secondary phase, such as narrow options choices and lack of progression opportunities” (Welsh Government, 2022e, p. 7). It is these “systemic issues” that are of concern and have contributed to a decline in international languages in Wales because Global Futures “does not place requirements on schools to deliver or increase IL provision” (ibid). Contrasting with this, the results of a practitioner survey of senior school leaders in Wales indicated that they have “very strong levels of commitment to the curriculum reforms” (Welsh Government, 2021f, p, 4) and yet international languages, as a documented part of the LLC AoLE, are often neglected. To ensure consistency throughout Wales and to safeguard international languages on the curriculum, senior leadership teams should be consulted, and schools should be monitored more frequently than the British Council Language Trends annual survey to assess the situation.

6.2.5 Provide LLC teachers with a roadmap for future changes to the GCSE

The vagueness about CfW assessment processes and future developments was an issue for the LLC teachers interviewed and surveyed as well as the fact that teachers felt that they were “preparing for qualifications that maybe do not align with the curriculum” (survey respondent). The case study interviewees demonstrated the importance of the GCSE as a goal for teachers’ planning. Teacher 3 expressed the role of the GCSE: “I’ve always got one eye on the GCSE...so our assessments will look like mini-GCSE

assessments, guaranteed.” The issue here is there is a disconnect between CFW and the current GCSE and so, since teachers will still look to the GCSE it could impact CfW implementation, as shown by one survey respondent, “without fundamentally changing GCSEs, we can't change anything”.

Even though the details will not have been decided, having an idea of the end goal will alleviate some the stress teachers are feeling. It will also allow for a curriculum that has monitoring as assessment processes which are not “tokenistic and surface-level” (Tittley et al., 2020, p. 311) and which align with the LLC guidance. There are opportunities here to consider other forms of language assessment from modular or portfolio-type assessments. Whilst is important that there is “alignment between the principles which have guided the development of the new curriculum” and the GCSE (Tittley et al., 2020, p. 305), it would appear vital to provide teachers with a roadmap for future assessment changes.

6.3 Directions for future research

The timely nature of this study at the start of the CfW implementation is one of its key strengths. Whilst teachers’ perceptions may change over time, it was important to document their feelings towards the LLC area at the start of this process. It was also important to consider recommendations which could make a difference to LLC teachers. For Gartziaarena et al., (2023) “more studies researching areas where a minority language coexists with a majority or/and an international language are needed to gain a deeper understanding of the hidden and significant views teachers hold in such multilingual contexts” (p. 2) and thus this confirms the relevance of this study. Moving forward, it would be extremely useful to adopt an iterative research design in which would build on this study, monitoring LLC teachers’ perceptions over time. Iteration is not based on repetition but is rather “a deeply reflexive process” and “is key to sparking insight and developing meaning” (Srivastava and Hopwood 2009, p. 76). The reflexive iterative process here would involve revisiting the data but through

the focus of new insights, thereby refining the focus. This would allow teachers to be supported through the curriculum reform process, with changing support based on the data collected. It would also be interesting to carry out the same research structure with other curriculum areas to find commonality.

6.4 Further dissemination

At the time of writing, two journal articles are currently in preparation, one of which takes a broader look at differing views on pedagogy emerging from the case studies and the other on whether research into orthographies should impact the choice of international language. I have delivered a presentation on my findings at a postgraduate conference, and it is also intended that the results of the study be presented at national educational conferences. By attending these educational research conferences, I will be able to disseminate the results those who have academic, pedagogical and policy-based interest in the area. To spread the findings further, teachers who indicated that they would like to know the results at the end of the survey will be sent an overview of the results ([Appendix I](#)).

6.5 Concluding remarks

This thesis sought to explore the assumptions that LLC teachers are having significant issues with teaching What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*. The underpinning assumptions were that the transfer between the languages taught in Wales is beneficial to pupils and teachers and multilingual learning is not a “zero-sum game” (Jenkins, 2020, para. 9) and that exploiting this benefit requires new or different pedagogy. The results of the data collection supported these assumptions, in that it showed that teachers had been experiencing challenges with the LLC area and that many were not familiar with the pedagogical practices needed to teach What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us*. As outlined in the recommendations in this chapter, more research is needed to establish whether the crosslinguistic influence between the languages is beneficial. This thesis has also offered insightful contributions to the field of pedagogy in general, with the twelve pedagogical

principles a key part of CfW, with an interesting point raised that every case study teacher gave a different definition of pedagogy which shows there is a need for clarification in how Wales considers pedagogy.

Finally, on a personal note, the seeds for this research started in a classroom observation where I observed a lesson that could potentially have had different outcomes if the student teacher had made links to pupils' prior language knowledge. Even a simple link such as 'just like in Welsh' would have helped pupils build on their schemas and potentially unlock the new French grammar they were being taught. I often think that those pupils were let down by the ITE education that that student teacher had been given, where I was the PGCE tutor. I had not explicitly taught strategies for exploiting crosslinguistic influence. That lesson was a turning point for me as an ITE tutor and I hope that the results of this study when disseminated will similarly have an impact on ITE tutors and teachers of English, Welsh and international languages.

In conclusion, a different way of teaching is needed to meet the demands of What Matters statement 1: *Languages connect us* with the understanding that "a different way of teaching does not come without a cost" (Chalmers and Murphy, 2022, p. 82) whether that be monetary from training or new resources or from the effort needed to embrace a new approach. For Chalmers and Murphy (2022), the work in translanguaging promotes social justice and so there are benefits beyond language work which could be realised. Not only that but this pedagogy could also support the use of community languages in the classroom as "Welsh young people are done a disservice by overlooking the inherent multilingualism of their (school) communities" (Jenkins, 2020, para. 9).

Baroness Coussins' questions to the House of Lords in 2018 exemplified the mood at the time before Brexit and in many ways these question mirror the current language situation. Addressing the House of Lords, she spoke of her distress at the fact that "language teaching and learning in our schools and universities are in deep crisis (Hansard, 2GC). She asserted the need for "home-grown linguists" rather than on

importing language skills. She stated that, whilst not everyone needs to be a linguist, “the soft power advantage in the 21st century belongs to the multilingual citizen and nation” (Hansard, 3GC).

This study has concentrated on teachers’ voices but has been mindful in the data analysis not to forget teachers’ “FACES and what lies behind them” (Sharratt & Fullan, 2012:2). The research has been based on respect and an understanding that language teaching is a “highly skilled profession, which is both academic and practical” (Molway, 2022, p. 136). Teachers need, therefore, both academic support in terms of a body of research to inform and support their work and training in pedagogical practices to empower them. With this knowledge and support, LLC teachers will be better placed to continue to “ignite learners’ curiosity and enthusiasm” (Welsh Government, 2021c, para. 3), to contribute to an “education system that is a source of national pride and public confidence” (Welsh Government, 2017a, p. 3) and to unlock the joy of learning multiple languages.

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Glossary

GLOSSARY

Cognate	A word that has the same linguistic derivation as another.
Comprehensible input	Krashen's theory (1981, 2003) which specifies if learners are exposed to a significant input of language tailored to their needs, they will understand it.
Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)	The umbrella term describing both learning another (content) subject such as physics or geography through the medium of a foreign language and learning a foreign language by studying a content-based subject.
Crosslinguistic	Of or relating to languages of different families and types
Crosslinguistic influence	The influence that knowledge of one language has on an individual's learning or use of another language.
Cymraeg 2050	Campaign to increase the number of speakers in Wales to one million by 2050.
Etymology	The origin of a word and the historical development of its meaning.
<i>Global Futures plan</i>	A plan to improve and promote modern foreign languages in Wales.

Immersion pedagogy	A form of bilingual education that provides students with at least half of their subject-matter instruction through the medium of a language that they are learning as a second language (L2).
Language Awareness	Explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use.
Metalinguistic Awareness	The ability to consciously reflect on the nature of language.
Mother Tongue +2 strategy	The European Union strategy of learning a third language, also known as the <i>Barcelona Objective</i> , resulting from a meeting of the European Council [EC] in March 2002 in Barcelona.
Multilingual	The knowledge and use of a number of languages or the presence of several languages within a given society. The learner may have varying proficiencies in these languages and use them in different context with different people.
PPP	An approach to second language teaching which includes presentation, practice, and production.
Plurilingual	The knowledge, use and connection made between a number of languages. Learners may have varying proficiencies in these languages, from passive knowledge or single word understanding to advanced fluency. The learner is able to make connections between languages, appreciate their interrelation and practise using them individually or together.
Target language	The language learners are studying, and also the individual items of language that they want to learn, or the teacher wants them to learn.
Translanguaging	A pedagogical process of utilising more than one language within a classroom lesson or a description of the way bilinguals use their linguistic resources to make sense of and interact with the world around them.
Triple literacy	Triple literacy is the concept that the teaching and learning of L1, L2) and a foreign language should be coordinated, so that pupils can compare the languages they are learning, and use each to support the learning of the other. In Wales, it

involves teaching Welsh, English and a modern foreign language.

Universal Grammar

A theory in linguistics credited to Noam Chomsky that suggests that the ability to learn grammar is built into the human brain from birth regardless of language.

Appendices

Appendices

Appendix A - Ethics Application

Appendices

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College of Science Intranet - Project Ethics

APPLICATION FOR ETHICAL APPROVAL OF PROJECTS INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

RESEARCH CANNOT COMMENCE UNTIL ETHICAL APPROVAL HAS BEEN OBTAINED

Please note form is opened as read-only.

Reference Number: STAFF_EDUC_146336_070421134853_1

Status: Approved Proposal :[College Ethics Committee DECISION Details](#)

Submitted By: Sian Brooks

Submitted Date: 23 Jun 2021

1. TITLE OF PROJECT

PhD: Making pedagogical links between languages: exploring how teachers respond to the interdisciplinary challenges in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE

2. APPLICANT NAME(S)

Sian Brooks

3. PROPOSED START DATE

3/9/21

4. DURATION (months)

3 years

5. OBJECTIVES

Briefly state what the project is designed to achieve.

The research is part of my PhD and aims to consider the implications for languages teachers of teaching the new curriculum for Wales. The research questions are as follows:

1. How are MFL, Welsh and Welsh teachers in English medium schools in Wales responding to interdisciplinary challenges inherent in the Languages, Literacy and Communication Area of Learning and Experience?

6. LOCATION OF STUDY

6.1. List the country and location(s) where the data will be collected

The research will take place (remotely in the first instance with a possibility of an onsite visit, Covid restrictions allowing) with teachers from 3 schools (or cases) in South Wales who are part of SUSP (Swansea University Schools Partnership).

6.2. Identify the person(s) who will be present to supervise the research at that location

The research is being conducted as part of my PhD which will be supervised by Professor Alma Harris.

6.3. Is the research being led by another UK institute? If yes, then the ethics review procedure of the lead institution should apply. Please provide name and main contact details of the partner institute and attach any ethical approval permits to the application

No

7. STUDY DESIGN

7.1. Outline the study design (e.g. cross-section, longitudinal, intervention, RCT, questionnaire etc.)

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In each of the 3 secondary schools, the case study will involve semi-structured interviews with English, Welsh and MFL teachers from each of the three schools. The qualitative data collected from these interviews will be contextualised with semi-structured interviews with Curriculum leads in the four educational consortia in Wales as well as a questionnaire which aims to contextualise the interview data with 'the state of the nation' look at teachers' perceptions in Wales as a whole. This methodology could be seen as having a "very flexible and open-

7.2. State the number and characteristics of study participants

* From each of the 3 Case study English medium schools, 3 Secondary teachers will be interviewed from Welsh, English and Modern languages departments.

7.3. State the inclusion criteria for participants

In each of the 3 English medium schools, the participants will be qualified teachers of English, Welsh and Modern Languages (French or Spanish).

7.4. State the exclusion criteria for participants and identify any requirements for health screening

None - all individuals who meet the inclusion criteria will be included.

7.5. Is the research being undertaken in the NHS? Is it healthcare research? **Yes/No - if Yes, please explain and contact researchgovernance@swansea.ac.uk for further advice and guidance.**

Please note that any Healthcare research has to be undertaken in accordance with the Healthcare Research Authority guidelines <https://www.hra.nhs.uk>

No

7.6. Will the study involve vulnerable populations (i.e. children, elderly, those with cognitive impairment or in unequal relationships, disabled, clinical, etc.) or people who are unable to give informed consent? **Yes/No - if Yes, please read the relevant policies included in the [Research Integrity Policy Framework](#) and provide evidence of how any issues arising within the policies may have been addressed.**

Researchers are expected to undertake the online training on Safeguarding by contacting the Research Integrity Manager researchintegrity@swansea.ac.uk

(Please note that people with learning disabilities fall under The Mental Capacity Act 2005 and must be reviewed by the NHS; other vulnerable groups may not require NHS review but will typically require Disclosure & Barring Service (DBS) clearance (formerly CRB checks) - Evidence for this will be required. Please consult the University DBS guidance in the [Research Integrity Policy Framework](#)

No

7.7. Will parental/coach/teacher consent be required? **Yes/No - If Yes, please specify which and how this will be obtained and recorded**

No

7.8. Is this pedagogic research? **Yes/No - If Yes, please see [guidelines](#) and highlight any associated ethical risks and how these will be mitigated for**

No

7.9. Are there any requirements/commitments expected of participants (e.g. time, exertion level)?

Participants will be asked to complete the questionnaire (10 questions maximum) with an expected time of 15-20 minutes. The interviews will last for 30-40 minutes.

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8.1. Briefly outline how and from where will participants be recruited

Is there any possibility of coercion? Are there any 'power' relationships where the participants are known to the researcher either personally or professionally? Have these relationships been recognised and steps taken to avoid or taken into account?

Having been a practising teacher and ITE tutor in 3 establishments in South Wales, I might be known by participants. However, the potential power relationship will be mitigated in this research by the fact that a) the emphasis is on teachers' own perceptions and b) because of the nature of the new curriculum which gives decision making for curriculum design to teachers, the power relationship roles will be reversed. Questions will be open-ended, where possible, so that they do not seem intimidating.

8.2. Will financial/in kind payments be offered to participants?

Yes/No - If Yes please specify the type and kind of payment with reasons

No

8.3. Is the intention to share research findings with participants?

Yes/No - If Yes, please advise how risks will be managed? Is there a risk of harm to the participants by sharing the research findings?

No

8.4. Will research participants be used as co-researchers (e.g., where participants lead/facilitate group discussions rather than the researcher?)

Yes/No - If yes, then kindly provide details of how consent will be obtained and authorship for future publications agreed

No

9. DATA COLLECTION

9.1. Briefly describe the type of data that will be collected

The questionnaire data will be downloaded from the online platform in form of a spreadsheet, with all participants having been assigned a pseudonym.

Two types of data will be collected from the interviews - sound files and my interview notes.

9.2. Briefly describe how the data will be collected

All data collected will be anonymised and confidential and I will comply with the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). The questionnaire data will be downloaded from the online platform in form of a spreadsheet, with all participants having been assigned a pseudonym. This file will be stored on my password protected laptop. The data will be stored until the end of my PhD (earliest date for submission will be September 2022) + 3 years.

9.3. Will the collection of data be undertaken by Swansea University staff or students? **Yes/No - if No, please explain who is responsible for data collection and give details (organisation, relevant experience/training)**

Yes

9.4. Briefly describe how you propose to ensure participant confidentiality and anonymity. If anonymity is not to be preserved explain why not

For the questionnaire, by using an online survey platform, all responses will be anonymous. While my supervisor and I will be aware of the participants as they will have given their informed consent, it will be impossible to link data sets to individual participants. The list of participants will be kept confidential.

For the interviews, all participants will be assigned pseudonyms in order to protect their identity. These

9.5. Will the research involve respondents to the Internet or other visual / vocal methods where they may be identified (e.g. IP address)

For the questionnaire, while the survey will be accessed through an online platform, all sensitive data that could be used to identify a particular respondent will only be accessible to the survey platform provider who have their own policies on the protection and confidentiality.

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9.6. Will participants be given information on the study and consent forms? **Yes/No - If yes, how do you plan to obtain informed consent. If No please justify.**

Please note Consent forms should contain the details of the PI and an alternative contact. A contact for making complaints should also be included in the consent form or use researchintegrity@swansea.ac.uk as the default email address.

Yes - see attached participant information sheet and consent forms for more information.

9.7. Have participants been given notice to permit making an informed decision? Are eligibility criteria clearly set out?

Yes - teachers will be given 1 month before making an informed decision.

For the semi-structured interviews, these will be carried out at a time that suits the teachers and in consideration of pressure points for teachers e.g. avoiding the first few weeks of the school year. They will also be given 1 months notice so that they can make an informed decision about participating.

9.8. Will the research involve the sharing of data of confidential information beyond initial consent? **Yes/No - If Yes please explain**

No

9.9. Will the information be collected from participants without their knowledge and consent at the time? (e.g. secondary use or re-use of social media content; covert observation/photos of people in non-public places, etc.). **Yes/No If Yes, please justify:**

No

9.10. Will any substance be administered to participants? **Yes/No - if Yes, please explain:**

(Please note that substances falling under the auspices of the Medicines for Human Use (Clinical Trials) Regulations 2004 and will require additional review by the NHS) <https://www.nhs.uk/medicines/#T>

No

9.11. Will tissue samples (including blood) be obtained from participants? **Yes/No - if Yes, please explain:**

(Please note that collection of tissue samples would fall under the terms of the Human Tissue Act 2004. Please contact researchgovernance@swansea.ac.uk for further information and guidance.) <https://www.hta.gov.uk/policies/list-materials-considered-be-relevant-material-under-human-tissue-act-2004>

No

9.12. Will the study discuss or collect sensitive information (e.g. terrorism; sexual activity; drug use, criminal activity) **Yes/No - If Yes, please explain:**

A list of terrorist groups is available here: (<https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/proscribed-terror-groups-or-organisations--2>) **If yes, then the PREVENT Lead for the University to be notified. Please consult University Prevent Policy**

No

9.13. Will the research involve the collection of administrative or secure data that requires permission before use? **Yes/No - if Yes, please explain:**

Please contact dataprotection@swansea.ac.uk with any further queries.

No

9.14. Will the research involve accessing potentially dangerous and/or illegal internet sites? **Yes/No - If Yes, please explain below and contact the University Information Security Manager.**

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<https://staff.swansea.ac.uk/it-services/infosec/>

No

10. STORAGE AND DISPOSAL OF DATA and SAMPLES

10.1. Briefly describe the procedures to be undertaken for the storage and disposal of data and samples

All digital data will be stored on my password protected laptop. The data will be stored until the end of my PhD (earliest date for submission will be September 2022) + 3 years. It will then be disposed of.

The interview sound files will be stored on my password protected laptop. The data will be stored until the end of my PhD (earliest date for submission will be September 2022) + 3 years. It will then be disposed of.

10.2. Who will have the responsibility for the storage and disposal of data and/or samples?

I will have responsibility for storage and disposal of data.

10.3. For how long will the data and/or samples be retained after completion of the study? (normally 5 years, or end of award)

End of my Phd (earliest submission September 2022) + 3 years

11. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

11.1. Are there any potential physical risks or discomforts to the participants in the study? **Yes/No – if Yes, please explain**

Yes - participants in the interviews may feel embarrassed if they are not well-informed about the new curriculum. However, this will be mitigated against by open-ended questions and reassurance from me as the interviewer that is their perceptions which are important.

11.2. Are there any potential physical risks or discomforts to the researcher(s) conducting the study? **Yes/No – if Yes, please explain**

No

12. OTHER ETHICAL ISSUES OF CONCERNS

If none, then please state 'none'

None

13. APPLICATION CHECK LIST

Tick as appropriate below.

	Yes	No	N/A
Have you included a Participant Information Sheet for participants in the study?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Have you included a Parental/Guardian Information Sheet for parents/guardians?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Have you included a Participant Consent (or Assent) Form for participants in the study?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Have you included a Parental/Guardian Consent Form for parents/guardians?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
For collaborative projects carried by outside organisations , have you included details of ethics permits?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

14. DECLARATION

Please read the following declarations carefully and provide details below of any ways in which your project deviates from these.

I certify the answers to the questions given above are true and accurate to the best of my ability

I have ensured that there will be no active deception of participants.

https://science.swansea.ac.uk/intranet/safety/forms/ethics/humansubjectsforms/STAFF_EDUC_146336_070421134853_1/edit

5/6

Appendix B – Ethical Approval

06/07/2021

College of Science Intranet - Project Ethics

College Ethics Committee/AWERB Group DECISION on Ethical Review

Application Details

Project Title: PhD: Making pedagogical links between languages: exploring how teachers respond to the interdisciplinary challenges in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE

Applicant Name: Sian Brooks

Submitted by: Sian Brooks

Full application details can be found in [College Human Subjects Ethics Application](#) .

Having examined the information included in the above application with Reference No. STAFF_EDUC_146336_070421134853_1, this Committee has decided to:

Approve this application

with the following reputation risk to the University

Low Risk Moderate Risk High Risk

Any amendments to approved proposals should be emailed to College Ethics Committee for review: COAHresearchethics@swansea.ac.uk

Reject this application and allow for resubmission provided the ethical issues raised by the College Ethics Committee/AWERB Group below are addressed

Return for minor amendment/clarification (please resubmit using the 'Resubmit minor amendment' option for a quick turnaround for approval)

Comments:

The COAH ethics committee have reviewed your application which has been approved, however please see comment below regarding reference to COAH (06/07/2021)

***** REVIEWER 1 - 02/07/2021 Recommendation: APPROVED (Low Risk)*****

The online application and relevant documents attached (Info sheet and consent forms) are in good order overall. However, all references to 'the College of Arts and Humanities Research Ethics Committee' should be replaced with 'Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences'.

***** REVIEWER 2 - 05/07/2021 Recommendation: APPROVED (Low Risk)*****

This is a well put together application and the forms look GDPR compliant.

Last Updated Date: 6 Jul 2021

Appendix C - Interview Participant Information Sheet

INTERVIEW PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

(Version 1.1, Date: 26/06/2021)

Project Title:

Making pedagogical links between languages: exploring how teachers respond to the interdisciplinary challenges in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE

You are being invited to take part in some research. Before you decide whether to participate, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please read the following information carefully.

Contact Details:

Sian Brooks (Email deleted), Department of Education, Swansea University

Professor Tom Crick, PhD supervisor (Email deleted) Department of Education, Swansea University

What is the purpose of the research?

I am conducting research into how MFL, Welsh and English teachers in Secondary school in Wales are responding to the interdisciplinary challenges of the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE (Area of Learning and Experience) in the new curriculum. This research is part of my PhD. My research aims to investigate how MFL, Welsh and Welsh teachers in English medium schools in Wales are responding to interdisciplinary challenges inherent in the Languages, Literacy and Communication Area of Learning and Experience. The research also aims to investigate whether there are pedagogical interventions, which can support making links between languages and, the effectiveness of these interventions in terms of teachers' perceptions and pupils' engagement and learning.

Your participation in this study will take approximately 30 -40 minutes. The research will be carried out and data collected by Siân Brooks, School of Education and Childhood Studies, Swansea University. My PhD Supervisor is Professor Tom Crick, Swansea University. The research has been approved by the College Research Ethics Committee.

What happens if I agree to take part?

You will be interviewed in order to establish your perceptions of the Languages, Literacy and Communication in the new curriculum.

Are there any risks associated with taking part?

Participating in the research is not anticipated to cause you any disadvantages or discomfort. The research has been approved by the College of Arts and Humanities Research Ethics Committee. There are no significant risks associated with participation.

Data Protection and Confidentiality

Your data will be processed in accordance with the Data Protection Act 2018 and the General Data

Protection Regulation (GDPR). All information collected about you will be kept strictly confidential. All paper records will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the School of Education. Your consent information will be kept separately from your responses to minimise risk in the event of a data breach. Please note that, as the data is being collected online, once the data has been submitted online you will be unable to withdraw your information.

I will take responsibility for data destruction, and all collected identifiable data will be destroyed 3 years after the completion of my PhD.

What will happen to the information I provide?

An analysis of the information will form part of my PhD. Note that all information presented in any reports or publications will be anonymous and unidentifiable.

Is participation voluntary and what if I wish to later withdraw?

Your participation is entirely voluntary – you do not have to participate if you do not want to. If you

decide to participate, but later wish to withdraw from the study, then you are free to withdraw at any

time, without giving a reason and without penalty.

Data Protection Privacy Notice

The data controller for this project will be Swansea University. The University Data Protection Officer provides oversight of university activities involving the processing of personal data and can be contacted at the Vice Chancellors Office:

dataprotection@swanseauniversity.com.ac.uk.

Your data will be processed in accordance with the Data Protection Act 2018 and the General Data Protection Regulation 2016 (GDPR).

What are your rights?

You have a right to access your personal information, to object to the processing of your personal information, to rectify, to erase, to restrict and to port your personal information. Please visit the University Data Protection webpages for further information in relation to your rights. Any requests or objections should be made in writing to the University Data Protection Officer:-University Compliance Officer (FOI/DP)Vice-Chancellor's Office

Swansea University, Singleton Park, Swansea, SA2
8PPEmail:dataprotection@swansea.ac.uk

Data Protection and Confidentiality

8. What if I have any questions?

If you have any further questions please do not hesitate to contact: *Emails deleted*

Appendix D - Participant Consent Form

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

(Version 1.1, Date: 15 /12/2021)

Project Title:

Making pedagogical links between languages: exploring how teachers respond to the interdisciplinary challenges in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE

Contact Details:

Emails deleted

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet dated **15/12/2021** (version number 1.1) for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, without my medical care or legal rights being affected.

3. I understand that sections of any of data obtained may be looked at by responsible individuals from Swansea University or from regulatory authorities where it is relevant to my taking part in research. I give permission for these individuals to have access to these records.

4. I agree to take part in the above study.

_____	_____	

Name of Participant	Date	Signature
_____	_____	

Researcher	Date	Signature

Personal data collected on this form will be processed in line with the General Data Protection Regulation 2016 and the Data Protection Act 2018. Further information about how your data is managed is available on the [University Research Privacy Notice](https://www.swansea.ac.uk/about-us/compliance/data-protection/research-privacy-notice/).

<https://www.swansea.ac.uk/about-us/compliance/data-protection/research-privacy-notice/>

Appendix E - SSI Interview Schedule

SSI – INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

MAKING PEDAGOGICAL LINKS BETWEEN LANGUAGES: EXPLORING HOW TEACHERS RESPOND TO THE CHALLENGES IN THE LLC AoLE

As part of my PhD, I am conducting research to better understand how teachers of English, Welsh and International Languages are responding to the challenges and opportunities of the Languages, Literacy and Communication (LLC) Area of Learning and Experience (AoLE), with a particular focus on pedagogical links between languages, as part of Curriculum for Wales (CfW).

Part A

1. Which language /s do you teach?
2. When did you start working as part of the LLC AoLE?
3. What are your thoughts about the grouping of English, Welsh, and International Languages in the LLC AoLE?
4. How would you summarise the key changes in Curriculum for Wales? How did you come to know about these changes?
5. How would you summarise the key changes in how your subject is taught in LLC? How did you come to know about these changes?

Part B

6. Of the 4 'What Matters' statements, which do you consider to be the most relevant for the language /s you teach?
7. Of the 4 'What Matters' statements, which do you consider to be the most challenging for the language /s you teach?
8. Tell me about how you will monitor pupil progress in the LLC AoLE.
9. Tell me about how you will assess pupil progress in the LLC AoLE.
10. Tell me about positive aspects of the LLC AoLE.
11. Tell me about any concerns you have about the LLC AoLE.

Part C

12. How would you define 'pedagogy'?
 13. How would you explain 'pedagogical links between languages'?
 14. What pedagogical links have you already made between languages in your teaching? Can you expand on this?
 15. Are there potential pedagogical links between languages that could be made? Tell me about these.
- **Further comments**
 - **Demographic questions: gender / age / years of teaching / teacher training**

Appendix F - Reflective Journal (example)

<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; margin: 10px auto; width: 80%;"><h1 style="margin: 0;">REFLECTIVE JOURNAL</h1><p style="margin: 0;">The Pilot Study interview was carried out in School PS. The school was chosen because of its previous involvement in multilingual literacy projects.</p></div>	
<h3>PERSONAL REFLEXIVITY</h3> <hr style="width: 20%; margin-left: 0;"/> <p>It was immediately apparent that Teacher PS shared the same values as me as well as the same passion for modern foreign languages. This meant that there was an immediate rapport in the interview and I found myself agreeing with what was said. However, I realise that practising reflexivity is important for me not to be too influenced by finding someone with similar beliefs and also recognising the importance of acknowledging in my thesis where my own feelings intersect with the research.</p>	<h3>WHAT?</h3> <hr style="width: 20%; margin-left: 0;"/> <p>After receiving ethical approval from UWTSD, I organised a pilot study interview with the aim of formulating questions and understanding the dynamic of a semi-structured interview. The interview took place during a non-contact period for Teacher PS, in a separate office so that there were no interruptions. The semi-structured interview was planned to last 30 minutes.</p>
<h3>FUNCTIONAL REFLEXIVITY</h3> <hr style="width: 20%; margin-left: 0;"/> <p>I felt that I need to make a greater distinction between informal chat before the interview and the more formal interview. My instincts were to maintain a convivial atmosphere throughout and, on reflection, this meant that I was presenting more of a teaching colleague and less like a researcher.</p> <p>By preparing a script in advance for the start of the interview, it will inevitably appear more formal at the start which could have a positive impact.</p>	<h3>SO WHAT?</h3> <hr style="width: 20%; margin-left: 0;"/> <p>It was useful to find out the pitfalls in carrying out interviews with people you know. I realised that it takes planning to go from informal chat to the more formal interview itself. I tried to take notes but it was difficult to do so and I realised the importance of immediately writing up notes afterwards so that they would be fresh in my mind. The interview was closer to an hour which, in retrospect was too long for the teacher and I will ensure that I keep to 30 minutes. Not only will this mean that I am not putting too much pressure on the teachers, it also meant that we are less likely to stray from the main points. I transcribed the interview by hand which was time consuming but did allow me to make sense of the data. Transcribing the interview was very time consuming so I will consider using MS Teams as this will allow a transcript to be created.</p>

THEMATIC REFLEXIVITY

In the thematic analysis I carried out, I felt that my role as a Teacher Educator was extremely useful as I was able to immediately understand the context and challenges of the language departments working together.

NOW WHAT?

To overcome nerves at the beginning of the interview, I will ensure to have a script to describe my research.

For full interviews, I will need prompt sheets for *What Matters* statements (as they are not immediately obvious) and a brief definition of the pedagogical practices. I will also need an outline question sheet so that I have a consistent approach to all case study interviews. The separate office was an excellent location to avoid interruptions and so I will ensure to request this when organising the full interviews.

Appendix G – Social Media Survey Invitation



If you teach English, Welsh and/or International Languages in Wales and have 10-15 minutes to spare, we would love to hear from you....

We are seeking your views regarding the opportunities and challenges in the Languages, Literacy and Communication AoLE.

Your responses are anonymous, and the project has ethical approval. Please follow the link to participate:

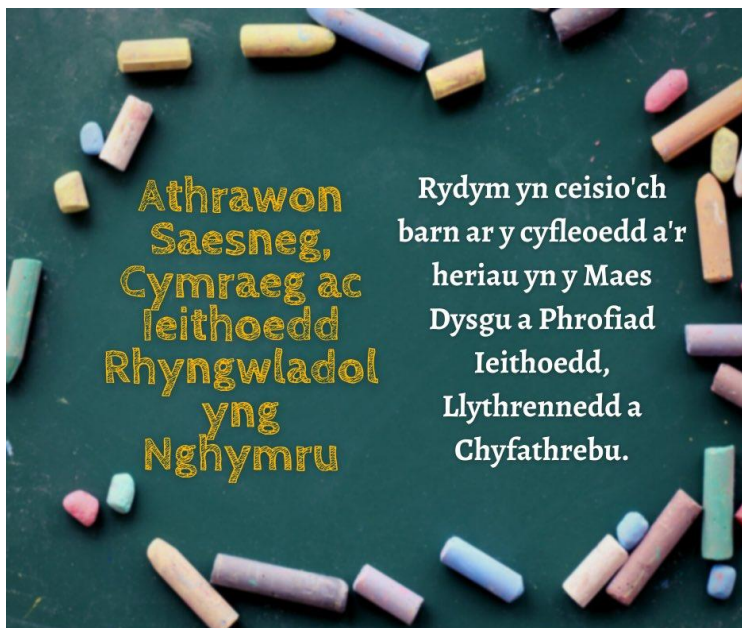
https://swanseachhs.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_5Ao3tUrnAJqU0dM

Os ydych yn addysgu Saesneg, Cymraeg a/neu Ieithoedd Rhyngwladol yng Nghymru ac mae gennych 10-15 munud rhydd, hoffem glywed gennych.

Rydym yn ceisio'ch barn ar y cyfleoedd a'r heriau yn y Maes Dysgu a Phrofiad Ieithoedd, Llythrennedd a Mae'ch ymatebion yn ddiennw ac mae gan y prosiect gymeradwyaeth foesebol.

Dilynwch y ddolen ganlynol i gymryd rhan:

https://swanseachhs.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_5Ao3tUrnAJqU0dM



Appendix H - Questionnaire

LLC Questionnaire (English medium version)

MAKING PEDAGOGICAL LINKS BETWEEN LANGUAGES: EXPLORING HOW TEACHERS RESPOND TO THE CHALLENGES IN THE LLC AoLE.

What is the purpose of the research?

As part of my PhD, I am conducting research to better understand how teachers of English, Welsh and International Languages are responding to the challenges and opportunities of the Languages, Literacy and Communication (LLC) Area of Learning and Experience (AoLE), with a particular focus on pedagogical links between languages, as part of Curriculum for Wales (CfW).

Your participation in this study will take approximately 10-15 minutes.

Who is carrying out the research?

The principal investigator for this project is Mrs Sian Brooks, under the doctoral supervision of Prof Tom Crick and Dr Cathryn Knight and (School of Education, Swansea University). This data collection and research project has been approved by the College of Arts & Humanities Research Ethics Committee at Swansea University.

What happens if I agree to take part?

You will complete a short online survey; you will be asked about your educational roles and responsibilities, and your experience of making pedagogical links between languages and your attitude towards the LLC. The survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

Data protection and confidentiality

Your data will be processed in accordance with the UK's Data Protection Act 2018 and the General Data Protection Regulations (GDPR). Data collection is taking place through a secure online survey platform and all data will be stored on password-protected devices. Data will only be viewed by the named research team. The survey is being conducted via the Qualtrics survey software. You can find the relevant cookie policy here: <https://www.qualtrics.com/cookie-statement/>

Is participation voluntary?

Your participation is entirely voluntary – you do not have to participate if you do not want to.

What if I have other questions?

If you have any questions about this study, please contact us:
(Emails deleted)

Thank you for taking the time to take part in this research.

Section A: Background Information

Q1 First language

- *English*
- *Welsh*
- *Other*

Q2 Language/s taught

- *English*
- *Welsh*
- *French*
- *Spanish*
- *German*
- *Other*

Q3 Used triple literacy / multilingual literacy

Yes / Unsure / No

Q4 Departmental position of responsibility

Yes / No

Q5 Age

- *18-24*
- *25-34*
- *35-44*
- *45-54*
- *55-64*
- *65+*

Q6 Years of teaching

- *0-5*
- *6-10*
- *11-15*
- *16-20*
- *21+ years*

Q7 Gender

- *Male*
- *Female*
- *Non-binary / third gender*
- *Gender-fluid*
- *Other*

Q8 Teacher training in Wales

Yes / No

Q9 Pioneer School

Yes / Unsure / No

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Q10 Main language of school

- *Welsh*
- *English*
- *Welsh and English*
- *Other*

Q11 Regional consortia

- *GWE*
- *Partneriaeth (ERW)*
- *CSC / CCD*
- *EAS / GCA*

SECTION B: Teachers' response to LLC

Q12 **Knowledge:** to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

1. I know a lot about Curriculum for Wales
2. I know a lot about the Four Purposes
3. I know a lot about the AoLEs (Areas of Learning and Experience)
4. I know a lot about LLC (Languages, Literacy and Communication)

Q13 **Attitude:** to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

1. I have a positive attitude about teaching the 'What Matters' statements.
2. I have a positive attitude about the grouping of English, Welsh and international languages in the LLC.
3. I have a positive attitude about progression in the LLC
4. I have a positive attitude about assessment in the LLC

Q14 **Confidence:** to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

1=Unconfident 2=Moderately unconfident 3=Neither confident nor unconfident 4= Moderately confident 5=Very confident

1. I am confident in my ability to collaborate with other AoLE colleagues to create language resources.
2. I am confident in my ability to include the Four Purposes in my language teaching. I have a positive attitude about progression in the LLC
3. I am confident in my ability to teach 'What Matters 1' statement - *Languages connect us.*
4. I am confident in my ability to teach 'What Matters 2' statement - *Understanding languages is key to understanding the world around us.*
5. I am confident in my ability to teach 'What Matters 3' statement - *Expressing ourselves through languages is key to communication.*
6. I am confident in my ability to teach 'What Matters 4' statement - *Literature fires imagination and inspires creativity.*

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7. I am confident in my ability to monitor pupil progression in LLC.
8. I am confident in my ability to assess my pupils in LLC.

Q15 – Q23 Professional Learning

Q15 I have attended consortium led CPD regarding CfW.

Yes / No / Unsure

Q16 I would benefit from consortium led CPD regarding CfW.

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

Q17 I have attended consortium led CPD regarding LLC.

Yes / No / Unsure

Q18 I would benefit from consortium led CPD regarding LLC.

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

Q19 I have attended school led CPD regarding CfW.

Yes / No / Unsure

Q20 I would benefit from school led CPD regarding CfW.

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

Q21 I have collaborated with LLC AoLE colleagues to prepare for CfW.

Yes / No / Unsure

Q22 I would benefit from collaborating more with LLC AoLE colleagues to prepare for CfW.

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

Q23 I have been preparing personally to teach CfW.

Yes / No / Unsure

Q24 Any comments

Section C: Pedagogical Practices

Q25 How familiar are you with the following pedagogical practices?

1=Unfamiliar 2=Moderately unfamiliar 3=Neither unfamiliar nor familiar 4= Moderately Familiar 5=Familiar

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Translanguaging |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Etymology• Parsing• Language Awareness• CLIL |

Q26 **Translanguaging** alternates the use of two languages for input and output in the same activity. The learner receives the information in one language and works with that information in another language. To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

I have used **translanguaging** in my teaching

Yes / Unsure / No

I would consider using **translanguaging** in my teaching.

Yes / Unsure / No

Q27 Translanguaging (continued).

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

- I feel that **translanguaging** is or has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice as part of classroom teaching.
- I feel that **translanguaging** has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice for pupil engagement.
- I feel that **translanguaging** could support making links between the AoLE languages.

Q28 Etymology is the origin and history of word or words. To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

I have used **etymology** in my teaching.

Yes / Unsure / No

I would consider using **etymology** in my teaching.

Yes / Unsure / No

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Q29 Etymology (continued)

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

- I feel that **etymology** is or has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice as part of classroom teaching.
- I feel that **etymology** has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice for pupil engagement.
- I feel that **etymology** could support making links between the AoLE languages.

Q30 **Traditional 'parsing'** is the deconstructing of a sentence into its component parts and the describing of the syntactic roles of the component parts. To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

I have used **traditional 'parsing'** in my teaching.

Yes / Unsure / No

I would consider using **traditional 'parsing'** in my teaching.

Yes / Unsure / No

Q31 Parsing (continued)

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

- I feel that **traditional 'parsing'** is or has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice as part of classroom teaching.
- I feel that **traditional 'parsing'** has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice for pupil engagement.
- I feel that **traditional 'parsing'** could support making links between the AoLE languages.

Q32 **Language Awareness (LA)** refers to explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception language learning, language teaching and language use. To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

I have used **Language Awareness** in my teaching.

Yes / Unsure / No

I would consider using **Language Awareness** in my teaching.

Yes / Unsure / No

Q33 Language Awareness (continued)

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

- I feel that **Language Awareness** is or has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice as part of classroom teaching.
- I feel that **Language Awareness** has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice for pupil engagement.

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- I feel that **Language Awareness** could support making links between the AoLE languages.

Q34 **Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)** is an approach where students learn a subject and a second language at the same time. To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

I have used **CLIL** in my teaching.
Yes / Unsure / No

I would consider using **CLIL** in my teaching.
Yes / Unsure / No

Q35 CLIL (continued)

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither agree nor disagree 4= Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree

- I feel that **CLIL** is or has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice as part of classroom teaching.
- I feel that **CLIL** has the potential to be an effective language pedagogical practice for pupil engagement.
- I feel that **CLIL** could support making links between the AoLE languages.

Q36 Any comments

Section D: Your thoughts

Q37 Biggest opportunity of CfW

Q38 Biggest challenge of CfW

Q39 Biggest opportunity of LLC

Q40 Biggest challenge of LLC

Q41 Other pedagogical practices

Q42 Any comments



Appendix I – Summary of results sent to participants

Key findings

Quantitative data summary

125 LLC teachers answered the questionnaire from all over Wales. Main findings were as follows:

- **Teacher knowledge of Curriculum for Wales (CfW).** Whilst 81.8 % of teachers were knowledgeable about the LLC AoLE, teachers with departmental responsibility were more likely to be knowledgeable and teachers with 21+ years of teaching were more likely to know less about the LLC. Similarly, those that had been teaching for 16-20 years were less likely to feel confident in monitoring pupils' progression with the new progression steps.
- **Pedagogical practices.** In terms of familiarity with different pedagogical practices, teachers who had previously used triple / multilingual literacy, were more likely to be familiar with translanguaging and Language Awareness. Etymology was considered the most effective pedagogical practice overall and it was also the one where teachers were most confident (87.8% stated that they were confident to use it as pedagogy). Not only that but 93.67% of respondents stated that they would consider using it, with 83.96% of teachers perceiving it have the potential to be effective for classroom practice, 75.6% considering it effective for pupil engagement and 86.25% seeing it as effective for making links between languages in the AoLE. However, teachers of Welsh were more likely to be unfamiliar with etymology as a pedagogical practice.

- **Teacher confidence.** Whilst 62.37% of teachers had collaborated with LLC colleagues, 21.5% of respondents revealed that they were not confident in their ability to collaborate with colleagues to create resources. In terms of teacher confidence in teaching the *What Matters* statements, most teachers (60.2%) felt confident.
- **Teacher attitudes.** For teacher attitudes to the *What Matters* statements, 49.2% of teachers had a positive attitude. Regarding the grouping of English, Welsh and International Languages in the LLC AoLE, opinions were divided with 46.2% disagreeing and 37.4% agreeing with the statement “I have a positive attitude about the grouping of English, Welsh and International Languages”. As for attitudes towards progression, 46.7% of teachers had a positive attitude whereas 30.1% of teachers had a positive attitude towards assessment in CfW.

Qualitative data summary

This data came from case study interviews and the qualitative elements on the questionnaire. Key themes that emerged from the qualitative data were as follows:

- COVID-19 had had a significant impact on teacher readiness for CfW and had impacted on some of the CfW and LLC planning. Projects that were set up before the pandemic inevitably lost momentum, and it also had affected teachers’ confidence in planning how to deliver CfW.
- Whilst teachers of international languages felt that the AoLE gave their subject more recognition, it was felt overall that there was a lack of parity between languages in the AoLE, especially in terms of curriculum allocation.
- Collaboration or the challenges of collaboration, however, was a recurring topic with teachers frustrated at working with the different languages. Several teachers felt that the difference between first and second language pedagogy was an issue here and that for English teachers’ perspective the focus on LLC collaboration was working.
- Whilst for some teachers, the freedom to choose curriculum content was a positive feature, others felt concerned about the lack of guidance and consistency.
- Not knowing how the new assessment protocols were going to work was seen as a challenge as well as not knowing how the GCSEs would change. This mirrored the quantitative data analysis with 58.1% of teachers confident in progression and 55.9% of teachers confident in assessment.

Thank you for taking part in this research,

Siân Brooks,

Education and Childhood Studies

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