

Teachers' attitudes towards implementing multilingual and home
language pedagogies in primary school classrooms

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Abstract

This study sought to explore UK primary teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of activities which utilise and value EAL (English as an Additional Language) pupils' linguistic and cultural knowledge. Whilst research has advocated such use of home languages, it has largely been conducted in highly multilingual classrooms, with researcher involvement and with a focus on outcomes for bilingual children (Kenner, Gregory, Ruby, & Al-Azami, 2008; Kenner, 2009; McGilp, 2014). However, utilising children's linguistic and cultural knowledge could also enhance monolingual pupils' awareness of languages and foster inter-cultural understanding. These are particularly important advantages for highly monolingual contexts that are often overlooked by research in this area.

Conducted in a large UK county with predominantly low numbers of pupils who use EAL, societal divisions and poor representation of diversity in schools in the area have previously received national media attention. Data were collected from electronic questionnaires ($N = 200$) and focus groups ($N = 6$) with practising teachers as well as pre- and post-tests following a quasi-experimental intervention given to trainee teachers about how linguistic diversity can be utilised in their classrooms ($N = 293$).

The data revealed numerous, often conflicting, attitudes held by the teachers that may influence their classroom practice regarding home languages. The role of English as the dominant language in schools and society overarched many other themes within the data, representing perhaps the most substantial obstacle to any future implementation of such practice. However, results from the intervention with trainee teachers demonstrated how even small amounts of input can provide teachers with practical classroom strategies for using home languages.

In sum, the data suggest that without a top-down change, conflicting ideologies and subsequently, monolingual perspectives and practice may endure creating a cycle in which monolingual classrooms produce 'monolingual-minded' teachers and members of society.

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Author's declaration

The work presented in this thesis is original and solely that of the author. All sources are acknowledged throughout the thesis. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, institution.

Chapter 1: Introduction

The UK has an increasingly diverse linguistic landscape. For schools, this means a growing population of pupils who have different linguistic home lives and therefore speak English as an additional language. At the centre of this study is what has been termed as *ignored bilingualism* (Hélot, 2017). That is, the situation whereby children who speak a language other than English at home, never have the opportunity to use these languages in their school lives. While not true for all children, in all schools, the monolingual culture of schooling can fail to reflect the increasingly diverse linguistic communities they are situated within. The question is *why* these schools remain monolingual and particularly in the absence of local support for language maintenance, *could* schools increase their efforts to better represent and utilise pupils' languages. This study therefore sought to assess whether, in teachers' eyes, the languages spoken in schools and communities *could* and *should* be used within primary classrooms.

This chapter aims to provide an overview of the key contextual information as well as the terms and concepts central to this study. Within this, a description of the social and educational context of the area in which the data were collected is also provided. This aims to elucidate the rationale for the selection of this area as well as the importance of educational research of this kind for such areas. Finally, the educational, linguistic and societal rationales for the project will be discussed.

1.1 Children who use English as an Additional Language (EAL)

Currently, approximately one in five (around 770,000) primary school children are learning English as an Additional Language (EAL) (DfE, 2017a). The term EAL encapsulates a wide range of pupils with different linguistic repertoires. For example, these pupils may have very little English, their parents may speak a language other than English to them at home; or they may have very small amounts of cultural and linguistic knowledge (additional to English), perhaps learnt to connect with their family's heritage. English may be or may become the pupils' strongest language but if another language is used within their home environment they are usually registered as having EAL. Schools must therefore respond to a child's language needs as much as they deem necessary.

As well as these linguistic differences between children who use EAL, variation may exist regarding a number of other factors including: social class and economic status, educational background, religion or belief, political affiliation, national, ethnic and cultural

background, cognitive ability more generally as well as their knowledge and experience of the UK and its education system (EAL Nexus, 2014). The child's family and their migration history are also important to note. While one child who uses EAL may be a third generation immigrant, another may have been living in the country for a short time while their parent(s) attends university and another may have arrived to settle permanently in the UK only weeks ago. They may have migrated voluntarily due to economic reasons, or they may be seeking refuge within the UK. As with all children, differences in their educational needs aside from learning EAL, may also exist. For example, they may have dyslexia or a hearing impairment, or they may be "gifted and talented" (EAL Nexus, 2014). A large amount of variability therefore exists in the potential needs and requirements of each child a teacher may come across. This variability should be borne in mind when considering the research discussed in the next chapter. It highlights an important question regarding the replicability and generalisability of research in this area, something which is discussed in further detail within the next chapter.

1.2 What are "home languages" and how is the term used within this project?

The term *home languages* will be used throughout the project to describe any languages used by children outside of their formal education and in particular, language which is shared with members of their family. The use of this language may be minimal and may only be used to communicate with older generations of the family, or it may be extensive and be considered the child's strongest language. Other terms are often used instead of home language, for example, *first language*, *minority language*, *heritage language* and *community language*. For the most part, these terms are interchangeable within the literature. Within this project, *first language* will only be used to refer to the child's strongest language (if this is not English). In the current research context, as later discussed (section 1.7), increases in immigration are more recent and mostly from Eastern European countries, therefore the term *heritage* is not as fitting as its use in other research looking at longer established immigrant communities (e.g. Panjabi and Urdu speakers). Additionally, *minority* is considered less suitable as for some areas, including small areas of the research context, these languages are not a minority in their school, nor their community. In a similar vein, the language may not be a *community* language if the child is an extreme minority speaker, which can be a common phenomenon in university cities, for example. For this reason, *home languages* has been chosen in order to encapsulate language use which is linked to a child's home life in *any* way.

The extent to which home languages are used, or incorporated into learning, by individual schools, is currently dependent on the discretion of each school. As discussed within the next chapter (see section 2.1), educational policy offers no specific guidelines as to how and whether pupils' home languages should be used in the classroom.

Approaches to home language education evident within research and classroom practice can be seen to fall into three categories. Firstly, using home languages may be as a means of helping the EAL children access English; secondly, as a way of celebrating diversity and recognising the pupils' home lives and thirdly, as a way of welcoming or initially integrating the pupils into the classroom (as suggested in Coelho (1998)). Throughout, the verb "use" will be used in conjunction with home languages (e.g. 'teachers' preparedness to use home languages'). It is important to highlight that this is intended as shorthand for *all* use of home languages, including activities or in stories and displays. It is not intended to mean teachers themselves speaking the language, or conducting the lesson in that language, for example.

1.3 An explanation of multilingualism, bilingualism and plurilingualism and how they are used within this project

In essence, the terms multilingualism, bilingualism and plurilingualism all describe the use or knowledge of more than one language. All are used within the literature discussed within the next chapter, though multilingualism is chosen in reference to the current study. Multilingualism denotes the use of two or more languages by groups in society (Blanc, 1999) and within this project, multilingual classrooms and schools are referred to. However, a multilingual area or multilingual school does not necessarily mean that everybody can speak two or more languages. The term is thus used to denote the use of more than one language generally within a school environment, by native or non-native speakers. Due to the often highly monolingual schools that participated in the research, creating a more multilingual environment would also not necessarily mean this involved *speakers* of other languages.

Broadly speaking, bilingualism requires two languages to be spoken by an individual. However, the term bilingual has been used to describe speakers ranging from those with native-like competence in both languages, to those with a minimal knowledge of a second language (Baker, 2011; Cummins & Swain, 1986; Mehmedbegovic, 2011). However, it is rare for a bilingual speaker to have equal skill in both languages (Grosjean, 2008). Variability in a bilingual speaker's linguistic skills in each of their languages is just one way in which the

complexity of researching bilingualism as well as catering for bilingual pupils in educational contexts can be seen. For this reason, and again, due to the highly monolingual nature of the research area, this term has not been adopted to describe the children in the research area.

Finally, plurilingualism is a term which is often used in a European context (e.g. Breidbach, 2003) with the Council of Europe being seen as one of the biggest advocates for plurilingual policies (Flores, 2013). They define plurilingualism and pluricultural competence as follows:

the ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social actor has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures (Coste, Moore, & Zarate, 2009, p. 11).

This term is also used in literature discussed within the next chapter, but as neither children's language proficiency, nor the number of languages they speak is the focus of this study, this term is not used within the rest of the thesis. Instead, children's home languages and linguistic knowledge (of any kind) will be referred to.

1.4 The monolingual norm

Monolingualism, that is, speaking and using *one* language, or more aptly, the *norm* of monolingualism, is central to this study. It is discussed throughout and within the next chapter specifically in terms of its significance for this project and home language education more widely. Here, a brief overview of the monolingual norm or a monolingual mindset will be introduced only.

García (2009a, p. 141) argues that monolingualism, as seen through a "Western scholarly lens", is consistently accepted as the linguistic norm and bilingualism is often viewed as a "double monolingualism". However, throughout the world, bilingual children are the norm. This monolingual, or monoglossic, language ideology, as García (2009a) refers to it, is thereby also adopted in mainstream schools in many places. As will be discussed within the next chapter, education plays a central role in the creation and maintenance of such language norms. As a result, it can often be assumed that if the majority language is to be learnt, the minority (or first) language maintenance should not be made a priority. This contrasts to the learning of *foreign* languages by the dominant group which is seen arguably seen as additive (García, 2009a).

While García (2009a) predominantly refers to a US context, the extent to which such monolingually-minded attitudes exist within a UK context is of great significance to the

current research. Currently, it is arguably *not* the norm to foster a child's bilingualism nor incorporate a child's home language(s) into mainstream learning, the result of which may subsequently lead to the paradox described by Cummins (2005, p. 586) who argues that now we are "faced with the bizarre scenario of schools successfully transforming fluent speakers of foreign languages into monolingual English speakers, at the same time as they struggle, largely unsuccessfully, to transform English monolingual students into foreign language speakers".

Again, it is not monolingualism itself that is central to the current research, nor is this intended to be negative as a concept in itself. Instead, the assumption that monolingualism is and perhaps should be, the norm, is the notion or ideology that is key within this study. Such assumptions are often referred to as a monolingual mindset, the significance of which is demonstrated in this definition:

The greatest impediment to recognising, valuing and utilising our language potential is a persistent monolingual mindset. Such a mindset sees everything in terms of monolingualism being the norm, even though there are more bi- and multilinguals in the world than monolinguals (Clyne, 2005, p. xi).

As explicitly stated by Clyne, such a mindset *may* represent a substantial hurdle to effort to recognise languages (in this case, other than English) and particularly in formal settings. The significance of this hurdle for the current project will be further elucidated within the next chapter (see 2.4.7).

The lack of linguistic diversity in the research area is discussed in more detail in section 1.7 and it is important to acknowledge that while bilingualism may be the norm across the world and in many communities of the UK, within UK primary schools, 80% of children are monolingual English speakers (DfE, 2017a). The UK-specific language context must therefore be considered within any discussion of monolingualism. Rather than demonising monolingualism, the focus of this project is to shed light on multilingualism and how this can be fostered, as well as examining how a monolingual culture may affect language ideologies and ultimately, classroom practice.

1.5 Linguistic and cultural diversity

The definition of diversity given by the Oxford English Dictionary (2017) is "the condition or quality of being diverse, different, or varied; difference, unlikeness". The term diversity is often adopted by institutions and agencies to cover a wide range of differences

(e.g. racial, religious, linguistic), such use is motivated by a desire to address inequalities (Piller, 2016). The term is thus usually considered a positive reference to difference.

Within the national media, diversity, and in this case, linguistic diversity, is usually celebrated as a concept (e.g. “200 languages: Manchester revealed as most linguistically diverse city in Western Europe” (Brown, 2013, August 13). However, linguistic diversity within education appears to receive more mixed coverage from the national press. For example, “Foreign pupils don’t harm grades of English speakers: Findings will reassure parents” (Cassidy, 2015, January 30), a headline taken from the same newspaper only three years later. As Piller (2016) argues, while linguistic diversity may be celebrated, it is also associated with a range of social issues, thus it is often seen as something to be managed or even, on occasion, feared. Attitudes towards linguistic diversity and the potential origins of these will be discussed in reference to the current study within the next chapter (see section 2.4).

The terms linguistic and cultural diversity are used within this study, alongside multilingualism and multiculturalism to refer to the varied linguistic and cultural landscapes of classrooms as well as wider society. While difference and diversity are politically and socially complicated concepts which may evoke different connotations among different individuals, it is important to stress that that the linguistic and cultural education discussed within this project is intended to teach children about differences and similarities that may exist and subsequently, foster positive attitudes towards these.

1.6 Home language and multilingual pedagogies

Throughout, multilingual and home language pedagogies are referred to. The previous sections have provided definitions of home languages and multilingualism as used in this study, here, a discussion of how these might be ‘used’ or demonstrated in classroom activities and practice is provided.

At the centre of such pedagogy is children who use EAL, or in the absence of children who can provide linguistic and cultural information, community members. The use of their *home languages* is the basis of such learning. As explained above, this ‘use’ could entail *any* use, from more formal learning (e.g. see Kenner et al., 2008 in section 2.2.1) using poetry or books, to more informal, ‘everyday’ inclusion, such as the strategies proposed by Conteh (Conteh, 2003, p. 127): ‘show interest and find out about the children’s home languages’, ‘invite children to teach the rest of the class how to greet each other in their

languages, and use this knowledge as part of classroom routines’ and ‘encourage bilingual support staff to take active roles with all the children in the class’, for example. Such pedagogy, broadly speaking, may be termed *linguistically responsive*. This is used by Lucas, Villegas and Freedson-Gonzales (2008) to refer to practice which is sensitive to students’ additional language needs in terms of their access to the curriculum. Within this project, the definition is extended to include a sensitivity to not only children’s needs, but also their knowledge and ultimately, an appreciation of the value and the importance of pupils’ linguistic backgrounds and the multilingual landscape of Britain. This sensitivity and appreciation may be demonstrated through a variety of activities, however. Research detailing examples of such activities being implemented in classrooms is discussed in more detail in section 2.2.

It is important to note that this study is examining *hypothetical* classroom practice, therefore while suggested activities were given to participating teachers and trainee teachers, there is likely to be some variation in their interpretation of the pedagogical concept as a whole. The aim of the study is not to prescribe a way of teaching, but to investigate the *feasibility* of aspects of previously trialled and suggested activities being implemented in mainstream schools. Therefore, while a summary of what such pedagogies may look like can be given, it is important to acknowledge that, in reality, this may constitute different things to different teachers and be operationalised in different ways in different classrooms (depending on a variety of factors, for example, their own linguistic knowledge or classroom demographics).

1.7 The research context

This section provides social and educational contextual information about the area in which the data were collected for the current project. Exact figures are not given in an effort to retain the anonymity of the participants who took part in the research.

The county has almost 400 primary schools in total and around 90,000 primary school-aged children. Around 7,000 of these are registered as having a first language other than English (around 8%) (DfE, 2017a). However, the school census only collects data on pupils’ first languages, therefore these statistics may not necessarily reflect the numbers of pupils who have some home language knowledge, yet consider English to be their first language. In recent years, some areas of the county have experienced a substantial rise in

immigration rates and therefore speakers of languages other than English, while some areas remain almost completely monolingual (DfE, 2017a).

By comparison, in England as a whole, there are over 770,000 (around 20%) primary school pupils whose first language is not English (DfE, 2017a). The lowest numbers of EAL pupils are in Rutland, in the East Midlands, with only 2.8% of primary school children being classed as EAL, whereas the largest numbers of EAL pupils can be seen in Birmingham where there are over 38,000 (42.9%) EAL children. These figures also illustrate how variable numbers of children who use EAL can be as the lowest numbers can be seen in the East Midlands and the highest in the West Midlands.

Almost 15% of primary pupils in the research area are eligible for free school meals (FSM) which is roughly the same as the national average (14%) (DfE, 2017a). However, as this is an average figure it does not depict the variability in this percentage for individual schools, although this variability can be seen in the FSM data for the schools who participated in the focus groups (see section 3.6.1). The proportion of children eligible for FSM is often used as a proxy for socio-economic status in educational research (e.g. Gayton, 2010; Lanvers, Hultgren, & Gayton, 2016; Tinsley & Board, 2016). According to Gorard (2012), if a child is eligible for FSM, this also indicates increased likelihood of a number of other educational issues such as the child achieving poorer academic qualifications or having a special educational need (SEN). Thus, schools with higher numbers of children qualifying for FSM perhaps take such issues into consideration when making pedagogical choices and stipulating school policies.

In terms of diversity in children's ethnic backgrounds, just over 9,000 children (13%) (in state-funded primary schools) are classified as being minority ethnic pupils according to school census data (DfE, 2017a). For England as a whole this proportion is 32%. The research area is therefore far less ethnically diverse than this average. As a result, the teachers in this area perhaps perceive themselves as living and/or working in a fairly homogenous community by comparison.

There are also a number of key contextual issues to highlight. Firstly, social divisions within the area. One area of the county in particular has received national media attention for the divisions within the community which have resulted from increased immigration rates (Cook, 2016). In the only city in the county, immigration rates are also increasing

significantly. Again, community divisions have received media attention within this part of the county, namely, protests regarding the building of a mosque (Norton, 2015).

Issues of representing diversity in educational contexts have also received national media attention within the region. One of the reasons stated by Ofsted for rating a primary school in the area “good”, rather than “outstanding” was that the pupils’ cultural development was believed to be limited by a lack of first-hand experience of the diverse makeup of British society (Ofsted, 2014). This reasoning, and the subsequent backlash, were also reported in the national press (Stanford, 2014, November 22). Such coverage is therefore likely to have heightened schools’ awareness of providing diversity education, particularly in the research area.

1.8 Rationale for the present study

This research is driven by educational, linguistic as well as societal rationales. Educationally speaking, children with EAL (who now account for 20% of all primary school children (DfE, 2017a)) can, in many ways, be seen as being overlooked by the current education system. As previously explained, there is currently no policy for EAL education nor home language use (see section 2.1 for further discussion of policy). Indeed, codes for assessing the English proficiency of EAL learners were only introduced in 2016 (Wright, 2016). Without research examining what *could* be done in schools, it is arguably difficult to begin to ascertain what further changes should be made in order to create more systematic educational experiences for children who use EAL.

Linguistically, what drives this project is the thought that we may be ignoring valuable linguistic resources by failing to help pupils and future members of society to maintain their home languages, the result of which may contribute to the ‘bizarre scenario’ described by Cummins (2005, p.586), whereby we fail to ensure bilingual children remain bilingual but at the same time, in many instances, fail to create successful language learners out of monolingual pupils. While relevant to this project, yet not its focus, foreign language learning (e.g. French) is important to highlight here. As Cummins (2005) states, sometimes, though not always, equipping students with a successful language education can be difficult, particularly at primary level (see Tinsley & Board, 2017). Yet, schools may often ignore the languages that *are* spoken in the class and the wealth of linguistic and cultural information these pupils could provide to an otherwise, on the surface, monolingual classroom.

Finally, in terms of the societal rationales, as Pillar (2016, p. 6) argues: “understanding and addressing linguistic disadvantage must be a central facet of the social justice agenda of our time”. Failure to recognise pupils’ languages may not only lead to what can be seen as linguistic disadvantage, it also may contribute to the dominance of English at the *expense* of other languages and thus, their speakers. Recognising these languages in an official capacity (i.e. at school) also means recognising the value of their speakers in an official capacity, not only in their eyes, but in the eyes of their peers. Fostering positive attitudes towards different languages and their speakers may, in turn, have important consequences for social cohesion, particularly within highly monolingual, homogenous areas.

1.9 Organisation of the thesis

Chapter two contextualises the present study by providing an overview of the current body of research which has examined home language use in primary schools as well as reviewing the current policy and government guidelines on EAL education. Literature from a range of fields is then synthesised thematically in terms of what the educational (e.g. cognitive) benefits to using home languages may be, as well as the potential socio-cultural benefits. These thus represent reasons why teachers *may* wish to use home language pedagogies in their classrooms. Conversely, and again, drawing on a range of different research, the reasons why teachers may *not* feel willing and confident to use home languages are also reviewed. Chapter three presents the methodology and research design, as well as the design of the instruments and training materials used in the study. It also reports on the pilot phase of the project as well as the data collection and analysis for each of the three methodological phases of this project (teachers’ questionnaires, focus groups and the trainee intervention). Chapter four presents the results relating to the first research question, that is, how willing and confident teachers are to implement home language pedagogies. The significance of these findings in terms of their contribution to the current body of literature are also discussed. Chapter five presents and discusses the results relating to the second research question, that is, what factors may influence teachers’ willingness and confidence, and chapter six, the final set of research questions which relate to the potential gains of a training workshop given to trainee teachers in terms of their attitudes towards and preparedness to use home languages. The final chapter, chapter seven, draws together the findings from the three methodological phases and three sets of research questions to discuss the significant as well as overarching themes that were present within

the data. Concluding remarks relating to the limitations of the study, implication for future research, policy and pedagogy are then discussed.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Studies examining the use of home language pedagogies, and particularly teachers' attitudes towards these, are scarce within a UK context. Therefore, this chapter aims to provide an overview of the different areas of research which have contributed to our understanding of what drives teachers' attitudes towards home language activities to date. The structure of this chapter is as follows:

- A contextual overview of current and historical educational policy regarding home languages and pupils who use EAL
- A discussion of research which has implemented activities using pupils' home languages
- Further discussion of:
 - literature relating to the educational, cognitive as well as more tangible, classroom-related factors why teachers may or may not implement home language pedagogies
 - literature relating to the attitudinal and ideological reasons why teachers may or may not implement home language pedagogies
- Finally, how linguistic and cultural diversity can be represented within schools, including the use of home languages, will be explored.

2.1 Home language and EAL educational policies

Before examining current practice regarding EAL education (including the use of home languages), it is important to first consider the guidance that teachers are given in educational policy documents as well as government rhetoric. Conceivably, policy (or lack of) is likely to influence both teachers' current practice as well as their perceptions of the activities and approaches they should and could be implementing with their classrooms.

2.1.1 Educational policy and government rhetoric relating to the inclusion of home languages in the classroom

As there are no current government guidelines which explicitly stipulate how and when home languages could and should be used in mainstream schools, policy changes over time as well as recent government rhetoric regarding home languages will be discussed within this section.

Attitudes towards home languages in policy documents have varied over time from initial advocacy in The Bullock Report (Bullock, 1975), to opposition to their use in the later Swann Report (DfES, 1985). Indeed, it is proposed that these two policy documents are the source of a tension that still exists today between the concepts of diversity and inclusion (Conteh, 2012): celebration of the former being the rationale behind The Bullock Report and concerns for the latter, the Swann Report. The current position of educational policy is summarised by Costley (2014) as having the view that linguistic diversity is a positive attribute and that schools should foster sociocultural understanding through this diversity so that this understanding extends beyond the classroom. How this is interpreted and operationalised is individual schools' responsibility, however.

In terms of attitudes towards home languages in recent government policies, Mehmedbegovic's (2011) study, which analysed a sample of points made by members of the House of Lords and MPs during parliamentary debates, found little evidence of discussion about bilingual education issues (with the exception of the Nuffield Inquiry and the National Languages Strategy). Indeed, a fairly recent discussion from the House of Lords illustrates the lack of coherence in government rhetoric regarding the use of home languages:

Given the multicultural identity and diversity of ethnic backgrounds of people in the United Kingdom at present, there must be hundreds of thousands—perhaps millions—of people, including, I suspect, hundreds of thousands of schoolchildren, who are bilingual. What thought have the Government given to, or what action have they taken on, mobilising this resource by focusing either on recruitment or on some form of potentially creative, if informal, educational process to make sure that we use the resources that our multicultural society has given us? (Hansard 26th January, 2015, c10).

When prompted to answer the question again, the following reply was given: “With regard to which languages pupils may study at primary school, of course they could study their native language but that would probably not pass muster with Ofsted in a broad and balanced curriculum” (Hansard 26th January, 2015, c11)

However, in Mehmedbegovic's (2011) analysis, there was evidence of political support for studying other languages and similarly, a criticism of an over-reliance on the linguistic capital of English. In terms of actions taken by the Government, leading institutions, politicians and lead professionals, Mehmedbegovic (2011) states that there is a completely contrasting picture in terms of bilingualism: high levels of engagement with English-Welsh bilingualism have been demonstrated compared to a low level of engagement with any other form of bilingualism. This lack of coherent policy, and indeed, government

engagement with the use of home languages (in areas other than Wales) may therefore influence, or fail to influence, teachers' attitudes and practice as ultimately, they are free to formulate their own views about where home languages fit in the curriculum.

2.1.2 Educational policy for EAL learners: accessing mainstream education

As there is no current policy regarding the use of home languages specifically, policy relating to EAL education as a whole will be discussed in this section as this is conceivably likely to affect teachers' response to children with EAL and how they deem their practice should be adapted for them.

Dividing EAL educational policy focus into three sections: assimilation, withdrawal and mainstreaming, Costley (2014) documents a change in government attitude which led from a laissez-faire, 'fitting in' attitude, to separate educational provision for EAL children and finally, today's mainstreaming policy. Children with EAL have been mainstreamed since the mid-1980s when their inclusion in mainstream schools was encouraged in order to provide equal access to education regardless of English language ability (Leung, 2005). Pupils thus learn English alongside the National Curriculum work. This remains true today as EAL has no subject status in British primary schools. Ultimately, Costley (2014) argues that the Government's policy towards the teaching of children with EAL can be characterised by a focus on *organisation over content* and the resulting inconsistent policy has largely been driven by local needs (Costley, 2014).

The local-led nature of EAL provision suggests that overall practice is likely to be variable depending on locality and this variability is reflected in the educational achievement of EAL pupils, as argued by Leung (2005). Similarly, different areas' perceptions of their "need" for EAL provision may also be variable. Thereby, areas with high proportions of pupils with EAL lead in practice and provision while other areas' perceptions of their needs, or lack of, cause them to have underdeveloped provision in comparison. This can arguably be seen in the body of research discussed later, whereby all home language pedagogies have been implemented in areas with a high proportion of children who use EAL.

National policy, as Costley (2014) argues, has not ventured very far away from the assimilation policy first adopted to address rising immigration levels. Language acquisition and the subsequent ability to participate in mainstream education are listed as priorities by the current government (Overington, 2012). The use of home languages may therefore be

seen by some as contradicting the prioritisation of assimilation, or at least, linguistic assimilation in order to be able to access the curriculum.

It has been argued that by failing to create a specialised pedagogical framework for pupils who use EAL, pedagogies which prioritise EAL-focused language learning are not enforced which subsequently, legitimises a failure to address EAL-specific educational issues (e.g. Franson, 1999; Leung, 2005). Additionally, as the learning of English as an additional language and English as a mother tongue pupils (EMT) have been mainstreamed together, yet EMT pupils already know the language, this current strategy is arguably more advantageous to *their* academic progress (Costley, 2014). Thus, children with EAL may struggle to access the same curriculum, as it is currently stipulated, making them appear problematic in comparison. Pressure to achieve these nationally recognised standards (in English) is therefore likely to be placed on these children and their teachers. Such pressure to follow the same curriculum as the EMT pupils may, in turn, result in the preservation of children's home languages being considered a lesser priority. This is in sharp contrast to the aims of the Bullock Report (1975), which advocated home language use by arguing that schools "should adopt a positive attitude to its pupils' bilingualism and wherever possible should help maintain and deepen their knowledge of their mother tongues." (Bullock, 1975, p. 294).

This being said, it is important to recognise the rationale behind the Swann Report which (ten years later) discouraged the use of home languages. The report's suggestions stemmed from a desire to achieve social equality and therefore aimed to restrict the segregation of pupils. More specifically, a physical segregation, as EAL pupils would usually leave the classroom to undertake specifically-designed lessons. Swann's report aimed to assimilate EAL children, holding the view that the more they shared with the monolingual English-speaking pupils, the more chance they had to succeed in British society (Costley, 2014). The previously referenced tension between diversity and inclusion, shown by these two policy documents, therefore emerges and arguably highlights the difficulty in prescribing an approach to the education of EAL pupils.

Another shift in policy, in the mid-1990's, highlights another fundamental issue for EAL education and educational change more generally. Franson (1999) highlights the effects of a reduction in financial support for EAL teaching, an emphasis on minimising attainment gaps between monolingual (English) and EAL pupils, a reduction in mixed-ability teaching

and a new significance weighted on school performance tables on EAL education. The changing climate of education more generally is therefore also important to consider. For example, it has yet to be explored how the effect of increasing number of academies, or changes to the National Curriculum, all potentially allowing teachers and schools greater freedom in what they choose to teach and assess, will affect EAL education more broadly.

Policy regarding EAL pupils' education, and subsequently, perhaps teachers' knowledge of related practice, therefore appears to be an area which significantly lacks uniformity. Changes in policy over time may have affected teachers' perceptions of expected practice which may have also created an inconsistency in how EAL education is viewed more generally and within this, the place for home languages within the classroom.

2.1.3 The mainstream literacy curriculum: mono-literacy and monolingualism

Educational policies also play a role in determining the extent to which literacy skills in languages other than the dominant language (i.e. English) are encouraged within educational contexts. For example, in England, as Robertson (2006) highlights, very few bilingual learners are encouraged to use their home language skills when learning to read in English.

It is a belief in the importance of the dominant language, or a monolingual bias, Eisenclas, Schalley, & Guillemin (2015) argue, that is the largest obstacle to minority language education. They add that this bias is observable societally and individually and present in, and perpetuated through, most countries' language policies. For example, in England, Robertson argues that the introduction of the National Literacy Strategy (NLS) resulted in the endorsement of a monolingual language perspective only (2006). Policy which asserts the dominance of one language thereby means the decision to educate your children in two, or more, languages, can be potentially very difficult to facilitate (Eisenclas et al., 2015). This often results in the home language being used exclusively at home or within a complementary school, organised separately from their mainstream education. Again, with such emphasis on English in schools, it is conceivable that maintaining a child's home language in any form, perhaps least of all literacy in this language, is likely to be considered separate from schools' responsibilities. The subsequent attitudes towards English as the language taught in schools and the home language, the learning of which is *not* legitimised by schools, are arguably also important to consider. These will be discussed within section 2.4.7.

2.1.4 Variability in policy implementation and local interpretation of policy

As previously discussed, due to a lack of coherent policy regarding home languages and even the provision of EAL education more generally, variable classroom practice is perhaps somewhat inevitable. Using student-teachers, Foley, Sangster, & Anderson (2013) researched how Scottish educational policy regarding pupils who use EAL was being implemented within secondary schools. Their conclusions can be summarised into four main points: firstly, it was not clear who was responsible for the provision for EAL children. Secondly, departmental policies were not easily accessible. Thirdly, there was very little tailored support, or focused attention upon EAL children and finally, they questioned the efficacy of in-service training. Foley et al. (2013, p. 203) subsequently conclude that the provision for EAL learners demonstrated was “patchy at best and non-existent at worst”, thereby highlighting that even within one localised area, teachers’ approaches and practice can be subject to much variation.

The role of context, or geographical location, and its effect on how EAL policy is implemented is further elucidated in Murakami’s (2008) research. Interviews with practising teachers suggested that their pre-service positions continued to affect their approach to EAL education later in their career. Explicitly, those teachers who had trained in areas with *low* numbers of pupils who use EAL, did not consider themselves to have had enough training or experience to equip them for later teaching roles with higher numbers of pupils with EAL. Therefore, variability in teachers’ interpretation of policy and subsequent practice (as highlighted by these studies) may to a certain degree, be attributable to variability in individual educational contexts (e.g. number of EAL pupils) and how policy and the “need” for EAL provision is interpreted.

2.1.5 The provision of home language education in Europe

In the report “Integrating Immigrant Children into Schools in Europe” (EACEA, 2009), educational measures for teaching the language of origin of immigrant pupils is separated into three categories: central-level regulations on the provision of mother tongue tuition, measures to ensure the range of foreign languages taught corresponds more closely with the mother tongue of immigrant pupils and finally, mainly voluntary and private initiatives. While the UK does currently offer language qualifications in some languages which are spoken by immigrant pupils, it largely falls into the final category (EACEA, 2009). An example of the first category is Norway, where schools are obligated to use the child’s home

language in order to support the child whilst also fostering the development of the child's Norwegian. A grant has been provided in order to improve this provision at pre-primary level which includes the recruitment of staff who speak the child's home language (EACEA, 2009). Therefore, whilst home language provision may not always have the immediate goal of the child maintaining that language, if bilingual staff are recruited, it may create a motivation for language maintenance beyond a child's school life (i.e. job availability). Furthermore, examples of skilled professionals who are bilingual are also demonstrated to the children when bilingual staff are recruited.

Home language tuition is organised and funded by the host country's educational system in almost half the countries in Europe (e.g. Italy, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Greece and Romania) (EACEA, 2009). It is reported that in most cases, it is officially recommended that home language tuition is provided to all pupils, irrespective of their immigration status and nationality. Only in five countries, however, is this provided as part of normal schooling (Estonia, Lithuania, Austria, Sweden and Norway). The extent to which the monolingual child would be aware, or even participate in, such provision is not elucidated by the report. Retaining and valuing linguistic diversity is, however, explicitly mentioned within a number of policies from European countries (e.g. Germany, Estonia, Spain, Portugal, Finland and Ireland) (EACEA, 2009).

While the policy and practice reported above demonstrates how official recognition of home languages and provision of home language education is considered feasible within other countries. Differences in immigration patterns and thus, number of language groups, should also be kept in mind. However, putting aside the issue of why such policies are not adopted in the UK as this is not the direct focus of this project, if UK teachers were aware, or made aware of such language policies across other countries, this perhaps has the potential to affect their openness to home language use within their own classrooms.

2.2 Home languages in educational research

Within this section, studies which have either used, or reported the use of home languages in mainstream UK classrooms will be discussed. These studies provide examples of how home languages may be used and why their use may be beneficial. This body of research also shares many similarities in terms of their research aims, methodologies used and educational contexts researched. These similarities and the subsequent questions they leave unanswered are also discussed within this section.

2.2.1 Studies which have used/reported the use of home language pedagogies

There have been only a small number of studies which have either implemented home language pedagogies, or reported teachers' use of such pedagogies within mainstream schools in the UK. Firstly, with the view that research needs to respond to the changing cultural demands of classrooms, bilingual teachers were interviewed about their classroom practice in Conteh's (Conteh, 2007) study. One example from this is an account from one teacher who, despite not knowing the language, allowed the pupil to use her first language in the classroom and used literature from her home country within the lesson. The teacher reported that by doing this, the pupil accessed English more confidently and her status was raised in the eyes of her peers (Conteh, 2007).

Mehmedbegovic's (2008) interviews with head teachers provide examples of other ways in which home languages have reported to have been used in schools in London. For example, one school had a 'welcome' poster as a display of multilingualism, while another school undertook many different multilingual activities, including projects and drama productions (Mehmedbegovic, 2008). These findings again highlight the variability that can exist in classroom practice, even within one geographical area (in this case, London). An important conclusion Mehmedbegovic (2008, 2011) draws is that London is undoubtedly a multilingual city, yet, there a disparity can be seen between research and multicultural rhetoric which advocate the use of home languages, and observable classroom practice.

As well as reports of classroom practice, there have been a small number of studies which have trialled home language pedagogies in mainstream classrooms. One example of this is Kenner et al. (2008) who used a (transliterated) Bengali lullaby and a North American lullaby in order to draw comparisons between the lullaby content and culture. From this, they argue, the second and third generation children were given an opportunity to explore their cultural heritage and bicultural identities. The children were also reported to have accessed the metaphor in the lullabies with more ease: a concept which the children would usually find problematic.

Kenner (2009) also investigated the use of home languages in the classroom through a collaboration between mainstream primary school teachers and community language (e.g. weekend classes) teachers. The teachers planned and produced lessons which included the home languages of pupils in the class. As none of the mainstream teachers had visited the community classes previously, Kenner (2009) reports that through doing so, the teachers

gained a better awareness of not only how to support the bilingual children's language needs, but also a better understanding of their identities. All nine mainstream teachers reported that they continued to use teaching strategies which incorporated several different home languages after the initial collaboration. Importantly, Kenner (2009) also reported, using examples given by the teachers involved, that the children made improvements in their learning (e.g. literacy skills, comprehension skills in English) and their attitudes towards their learning. However, this insight into the children's experiences was limited to the bilingual children only and not their monolingual peers, which is, as later discussed, a commonality of the research in this area.

Researching the effects of producing a multilingual collage with parents and children in Scotland, McGilp (2014) also examined the use of home languages, although in a pre-school rather than primary school. She argues that through this, alongside the multilingual and multicultural stories used as the basis for the collage, home languages were more formally recognised, the learners' experiences were validated and the parents and children were reassured of the value of their bilingualism (McGilp, 2014). McGilp states that the activity would be particularly appropriate for replication in classrooms where a diverse range of languages are spoken. Therefore, the feasibility of repeated success in other contexts, as with Kenner et al.'s (2008; 2009) studies, remains unknown.

Research in this area has also been undertaken with older learners. For example, Ludhra and Jones (2008) provide vignettes from their study which encouraged teachers to plan lessons which were more aware of advanced bilingual learners' needs and as part of this, used the year six pupils' (aged 10-11 years) home language and culture. For example, the students created a school newspaper which published their writing in English, Punjabi, Urdu and Hindi and was given to parents, family, local community members and staff. Ludhra and Jones (2008) describe this activity as being more than a tokenistic way of celebrating linguistic diversity. They also argue that this fostered student-led discussions and decision-making in the pupils' home languages. Weekly creative lessons were also used as opportunity for those pupils who had high levels of proficiency in their home languages to write poetry, for example. On completion of a poem, one student was asked to translate it and examine differences in word order between the two languages, which she discussed afterwards with her teacher. Ludhra and Jones (2008) state the importance of this activity in that it demonstrated to the pupils that both their languages were of equal importance.

Evidence from the pupils' lessons on Shakespeare is also provided by Ludhra and Jones (2008), who argue that texts which are more cognitively demanding can still draw on home language culture. The pupils connected the themes in *Romeo and Juliet* to those of the Bollywood films they were already familiar with, thereby drawing on their previous experiences and knowledge. Ludhra and Jones (2008) argue that teachers need to understand how they will plan for the bilingual members of their class and they stress that enthusiasm for the project was shared by monolingual as well as bilingual teachers. However, their concluding comments highlight another important point: "where teachers feel confident, they will empower pupils to talk in their first languages" (Ludhra & Jones, 2008, p. 68) thereby acknowledging the variability that may exist in teachers' preparedness to undertake such activities. Therefore, while the examples from this study indicate ways in which home languages can be brought into classrooms and celebrated by monolingual teachers as well as bilingual teachers, they also arguably highlight how these were isolated examples of practice. The question of whether these are replicable in other contexts remains unanswered.

Evidence of such practice from countries other than the UK can be difficult to apply to a UK context due to differences in the linguistic makeup of classrooms. For example, within the US, Spanish would be considered a dominant second language. Sourcing resources and trained teachers in Spanish would thus be much easier than for a given language in the UK. An exception to this is a study from the US by Pacheco and Miller (2016) where multilingual pedagogy was trialled despite the teacher not knowing the languages themselves. For example, newspapers were used in order to make predictions about a text in a number of different languages. Pacheco and Miller (2016) reported that the students, despite not speaking the languages (in most cases), were able to find similarities across the different newspapers, such as the use of bold and italicised script. The children who did speak the languages were asked to read headlines which, it is argued, also provided the opportunity for small amounts of language learning and comprehension of the article content. The authors subsequently conclude that such pedagogies have the potential to create language and culture-rich classrooms, where multiple perspectives can be explored and the teachers *and* students can learn about these. While Pacheco and Miller (2016) provide evidence from three different classrooms, these studies are again highly dependent on the individual teachers who implemented the different activities. Thus, again, their replicability remains unestablished, especially within a UK context. These vignettes of

practice do, however, provide examples of how such pedagogy *could* operate in more multilingual classrooms without bilingual teachers.

2.2.2 Monolingual children in home language research from the UK

As well as the question of replicability, another area which has been largely overlooked by the current body of research is that of the monolingual peers' experiences of the activities implemented. Potential advantages to incorporating home languages have almost exclusively been considered in terms of the bilingual (or EAL) children. One exception to this is in Kenner et al.'s (2008, p.99) bilingual poetry study. The lesson was reported to have been "well received" by the monolingual children (and non-Bangla) who "could read out and talk about the language used in the chora through the transliterated and translated version" and who "took an active role in questioning and discussion, fascinated by ideas such as...(examples from the lullaby)". Additionally, it is reported that the Bangla-speaking children were sensitive to their peers who did not share the language.

It is important to recognise that the majority of these observations are reported by the researchers rather than data provided by the children themselves. Kenner et al. (2008, p.99) include one quote from a monolingual class member: "When I spoke a little bit of it from the Bengali writing it made me feel different because it was other people's language – I didn't know it at first – when I started to try it, it made me feel a bit different" (The researchers then confirmed that this was a "positive" feeling). As this was the only quote selected from a monolingual member of the class, it remains difficult to gauge the whole-class experience of this activity, although the researchers do conclude that this session was aimed to promote inclusion, as the children were already hearing Bengali in the playground but had never been given a chance to learn it.

Additionally, the relationship between the monolingual children's experience and the replicability of such activities in mainstream classrooms on a wider-scale has yet to be considered. Conceivably, as many classrooms remain highly monolingual, the learning of the monolingual children during such activities is likely to influence teachers' perceptions as to whether they would implement them in their classroom.

2.2.3 Gaps in our understanding left by the current body of research from the UK

The omission of the experiences of monolingual children within this body of research illustrates another important commonality between the aforementioned studies: the use of home languages has only been considered in majority bi-/multilingual areas. While this provides some justification for this omission of the monolingual children's experiences, it is also perhaps one indication of why current research has yet to influence classroom practice on a wider scale, as concluded by Mehmedbegovic (2008;2011).

As the current body of research has primarily focused on the reported benefits of home language pedagogy to bilingual children, in bilingual communities, the researchers (within the UK) had access to bilingual teachers, teaching assistants, parents and community schools. However, such resources are not available in every school and every community. From a practical perspective, not having these would also make any pedagogy trialled much more difficult to implement in other, less linguistically diverse areas, as training and resources would be needed. This may in turn, affect teachers' willingness to implement such activities and therefore ultimately, affect the likelihood of wider scale implementation.

Additionally, as the contexts researched, and the resources available within these contexts, are not reflective of all schools across the country, the conclusions drawn from studies which use these resources, may not be reflective of the experiences every school may have using home languages. Subsequently, schools and teachers may not perceive the current body of research as applicable to their own contexts, which again, may affect the likelihood of their wider implementation. Furthermore, though each of the aforementioned studies drew positive conclusions from implementing the activities, as each study was undertaken in one, specific context, the advocacy demonstrated by the researchers arguably cannot be extended to beyond these contexts.

The issue of context, or geographical location, of the previous studies has another significant implication: namely, as well as the physical or intellectual resources offered by schools in multilingual areas, there are also important socio-cultural differences between highly multilingual and highly monolingual areas (exemplified in section 2.4.2). The current body of research fails to take into consideration the effect of such societal differences on teachers' perceptions of home language use. Attitudes towards different languages, cultures and people may be locally dictated and therefore may vary from one context to another.

Thus, attitudes as well as physical differences of a particular context arguably must also be considered.

2.2.4 The current body of research regarding the educational use of home languages: A summary

In the previous sections, examples of how home languages may be used in primary classrooms and examples of why teachers and schools may wish to implement these activities have been provided through an overview of the existing research in this area. However, because we are unable to generalise any of the conclusions drawn beyond these specific occasions, there are likely to be many other ways in which home languages may be used and reasons why they may be used. Additionally, as discussed in the previous section, there are also likely to be many reasons why teachers and schools would *not* consider such use of home languages which have previously been overlooked in this body of research. Therefore, throughout sections 2.3 to 2.4.8, thematically grouped issues which may affect mainstream teachers' and schools' preparedness to undertake such activities will be discussed.

2.3 Educational and more tangible factors which may influence teachers' preparedness to use home languages

As educational factors are likely to be the most compelling to educational practitioners, these are first discussed within the following sections. Firstly, in terms of children with EAL, namely, what the potential advantages and disadvantages may be for these children when using home languages in the classroom and fostering their bilingualism. As for throughout this section, the aim of this study is not to assess whether using home languages has any benefits for children with EAL, it is to examine teachers' perceptions of this pedagogical approach, therefore both individual studies as well as overviews of research areas which may affect teachers' attitudes towards using home languages will be provided. Secondly, whole-class language education will be discussed and the potential benefits to adopting a language awareness approach. Finally, the socio-cultural (e.g. "celebrating diversity") reasons why home languages may be used are discussed.

2.3.1 The child using EAL's linguistic knowledge and educational progression

Providing a definitive answer about whether systematically using home languages in a wide range of classrooms is beneficial for children with EAL (or indeed monolingual

children) may be considered unrealistic and unachievable for a number of reasons. No studies to date have aimed to provide such evidence and methodologically this would be incredibly difficult given how different each pupil who 'uses EAL' may be and how different each classroom and teacher may be. Indeed, Murphy and Unthiah's (2015) systematic review of intervention research examining English language and literacy development in children with EAL found only one of 29 to have been conducted in a UK context. They also state the difficulty of explicitly using home languages in targeted interventions due to the wide range of languages spoken by children in the UK. The paucity of research which looks at EAL education more generally, not only home languages research is therefore an important point to highlight. A lack of research, and thus, information stemming from research, being communicated to teachers, are conceivably also likely to affect teachers' knowledge and ultimately, attitudes.

There are, however, current bodies of research which look at the educational disadvantage of pupils with EAL; the potential advantages and disadvantages to being bilingual and the potential gains from being biliterate and using first language knowledge in the classroom. Teachers awareness of such research, or their belief in the potential educational advantages or disadvantages to using home languages are conceivably likely to affect their pedagogical decision regarding home languages. Thus, these topics will be discussed below with a focus on their relevance for this project.

2.3.1.a *Comparing the educational progress of EAL children to monolingual children's*

Reporting on their analysis of the 2013 England National Pupil Database, Strand, Malmberg and Hall (2015), highlight the educational discrepancies that can exist between children with EAL and their monolingual counterparts. For example, at the end of Reception (ages 4 and 5), only 44% of pupils with EAL achieve a good level of development, compared to 54% of monolingual English pupils. However, it was also found that this gap decreases markedly at later ages and that considering individuality within the EAL group (e.g. when these pupils arrived, their ethnicity and their entitlement to free school meals, for example) was of particular importance, rather than a straightforward EAL/monolingual analysis (Strand et al., 2015). For example, pupils who were identified as having a special educational need (SEN) was the biggest factor in predicting whether a child with EAL would be at risk from low attainment scores. Therefore, while an analysis of EAL pupils' attainment must factor such issues, it is nonetheless likely that teachers would be aware of, as well as having

experienced, the potential attainment gaps between pupils with EAL and their monolingual counterparts. As discussed, while this picture may be more complex than it first appears, if teachers themselves are unaware of this, a belief in the need to minimise attainment gaps may dictate their willingness to adopt home language pedagogies. Their belief in whether home languages would help or hinder this effort is a separate issue which will be discussed later within this section.

2.3.1.b *Cognitive advantages and disadvantages to being bilingual*

The potential cognitive effects, both positive and negative, to being bilingual as well as bilingual education is an increasingly large field of research (e.g. Baker (2011)). If schools are to use home language and thus foster a child's bilingualism, they may do so with a belief in the educational advantages to doing so. Similarly, they may refrain from using home languages due to a belief in the potential negative outcomes of this. Again, this section does not aim to provide a definite answer to whether schools should foster bilingualism purely from a cognitive perspective. Instead, a selection of research which holds relevance to this discussion, providing examples of how fostering bilingualism may affect teachers' willingness to encourage home language use, will be explored.

Cognitive disadvantages

There are a number of earlier studies which took a deficit viewpoint regarding bilingualism and cognition (i.e. knowing two languages has cognitive disadvantages). However, the limitations of these earlier studies have been widely discussed (e.g. Baker, 2011; Cummins & Swain, 1986; Grosjean, 2008). Within more recent studies, specific cognitive abilities have been tested under more controlled experimental conditions, although still not without methodological limitations due to the complexity of bilingualism. These have included, for example, an exploration of bilinguals' verbal skills which were compared to monolinguals' in regards to tip-of-the-tongue states (situations where the participant fails to say the word yet feels as though they were 'close' to saying it) (Gollan & Acenas, 2004).

Within this study, it was found that bilinguals had more tip-of-the-tongue states than monolinguals. However, arguably the task would have additional cognitive complexity for bilinguals given that they must select the correct language and the correct word. Processing of bilinguals' written input has also been compared to that of monolinguals.

Using eye-movement tracking, Kaushanskaya and Marian (2007) tested how distracted the bilinguals were by information in the language which was not the target of the experiment. They found that the bilinguals were being distracted by information and that this affected their reaction times, thus indicating that presence of both languages can interfere with the processing of such stimuli. However, as Kaushanskaya and Marian (2007) state, it is important to recognise that Russian words were not used in the practice tests and the delayed responses could therefore have been attributable to the participants' surprise at seeing them. This may be particularly true for those participants who were accustomed to using their languages in separate domains.

While these studies both arguably have some methodological issues, they demonstrate how bilingualism may create additional cognitive demands for speakers, particularly if the speakers are not accustomed to using both their languages within a task. What is not established by these studies is the extent to which these potential effects of bilingualism would disadvantage the speaker outside of these particular experiments. However, evidence to support a deficit view of bilingualism can be found, as demonstrated by these studies. While it is arguably generally acknowledged that being bilingual affords a speaker many advantages (particularly in home languages research e.g. Conteh, 2003; Kenner, 2009; Mehmedbegovic, 2008), due to the lack of absolute clarity within applied linguistics research, teachers may also hold a deficit view of bilingualism, based on research or otherwise.

Cognitive advantages

In experimental conditions, bilinguals have also demonstrated an advantage when completing other cognitive tasks. For example, McLeay (2009), using a task involving the comparison of diagrams depicting knotted and unknotted ropes, found that bilinguals performed these spatial tasks more quickly than monolinguals. The bilingual participants involved were English-Welsh adult balanced bilinguals. They were matched with monolingual participants who had a similar first degree. As McLeay (2009) highlights, the bilinguals are likely to have had a similar linguistic experiences, as it is typical for Welsh-English bilinguals to speak Welsh at home and English at school. However, McLeay (2009) does not mention whether they were matched for any other factors which may affect their ability to conduct such tasks.

In addition, Bialystok and Martin (2004) used a series of nonverbal cognitive tasks in order to compare and explain bilinguals' and monolinguals' performance. Over a series of three studies, they found that despite using different groups of bilinguals, (all matched with comparable monolinguals for socioeconomic status, for example) a bilingual advantage remained observable when the children were asked to sort visual stimuli. However, when asked to sort the stimuli according to a semantic feature, the two groups performed equally. Bialystok and Martin (2004) attribute this bilingual advantage to bilinguals' greater conceptual inhibition.

The studies, such as these, which have analysed the potential cognitive advantages to bilingualism, have therefore focused on nonverbal cognitive tasks. Rather than completing one specific task, researchers have also analysed 'divergent' thinking and more specifically, creativity. For example, in a study conducted by Kharkhurin (2010), a standard divergent thinking test and picture naming test was administered to 103 Russian –English bilinguals and 47 monolingual students. Results from the picture naming test showed that bilinguals' scores were significantly lower than monolinguals', in either language. This particular test indicates that the bilinguals were less able to use their vocabulary successfully. For the second test, examining creative thinking, monolinguals again showed an advantage for verbal creativity but bilinguals scored higher results for nonverbal creativity. As Kharkhurin (2010) highlights, these findings are in line with previous studies which have indicated this verbal nonverbal asymmetry and can be attributed to bilinguals' non-standard perspectives as a result of their bilingual and bicultural experiences.

Therefore, again differences in performance between monolinguals and bilinguals can be seen for cognitive tasks in experimental tasks, yet their real-world relevance remains largely unestablished. However, such studies contribute to a wider field of research which indicates a bilingual advantage that may positively influence teachers' perceptions of fostering children's bilingualism if they are aware of it.

Studies reporting a link between bilingualism and linguistic awareness

While the educational relevance of the studies above may be questioned, the evidence that bilingualism can improve a person's awareness of the linguistic features of languages presented within this section would arguably be a more compelling rationale for fostering bilingualism in schools. The presence of knowledge about language (KAL) in the

primary school curriculum is discussed in more detail in terms of the potential whole-class benefits to using home languages (see section 2.3.2).

Earlier studies in this area looked at how a bilingual, who has experienced vocabulary in both languages, can differ in their analysis of language. For example, how a bilingual connects sounds to meaning and concepts and their flexibility in their use of language (Ben-Zeev, 1977; Ianco-Worrall, 1972). Ianco-Worrall (1972) looked at how children perceive words and concepts by asking them whether names could be changed (i.e. could you call a cow 'dog' and a dog 'cow'?). It was found that monolingual children were much less willing to allow names to be changed whereas bilinguals tended to see language as being more arbitrary: names and objects were separate, the advantage of which is conceivable in a language learning context.

The extent to which bilinguals are aware of their language use has also been researched more recently. Bialystok (1988) analysed linguistic knowledge, how this knowledge is structured and explained, as well as participants' control of linguistic processing. An analysis of children with varying levels of bilingualism, yet matched for socio-economic factors, was carried out using three tasks. Overall, the results indicated that the fully bilingual group scored the highest on metalinguistic performance. However, for those tasks which required higher levels of linguistic processing, the fully and partially bilingual group scored similar results. For the other tasks which required high levels of analysis of knowledge, the partially bilingual group scored roughly the same as the monolingual group. Therefore, on the whole, the fully bilingual group did outperform the other groups, whereas the partially bilingual group's performance was not always predictable, sometimes scoring more similar to the fully bilinguals and for other tests, closer to monolinguals. However, without the support of mainstream education, children's bilingualism may only remain partial, or may be lost, which in turn, may prevent them from accessing such advantages to bilingualism.

2.3.1.c ***Fostering biliteracy in children with EAL***

The previous conclusions primarily relate to the development of bilingualism in terms of spoken language. However, there is a growing body of research which has also looked at the effects of developing a child's literacy in both their languages. As Eisenclas, Schalley, & Guillemin (2015) highlight, exposure to a language can result in aural skill, whereas literacy must be taught. Therefore, educationally speaking, while speaking in home

languages can be “allowed” by schools, literacy in home language requires substantially more input. This perhaps initially makes the likelihood of schools fostering biliteracy less likely than more informal uses of home languages.

Sneddon and Patel (Sneddon & Patel, 2003) found the bilingual children they researched had storytelling skills but were not being read to in their home languages. As a result of this, the children were more familiar with more colloquial dialect rather than more traditional, formal language. When encouraged to read in their home languages, they were found to have a “high level of motivation and pride in their achievements” (Sneddon, 2008, p. 79). However, as with much of the research discussed regarding home language use in schools, some bias may have occurred in that those involved were likely to have an interest in the success of the project and may have helped to foster these positive feelings amongst the children. Following two of the same (Albanian) children, in a later study, the children’s management of their two languages when translating written texts was analysed (Sneddon, 2012). Despite having little opportunity to explicitly learn about Albanian grammar, the girls were reported to have gained a good overall grammatical competence and were able to discuss differences between the languages. For example, in Albanian, the definite article is used as a suffix on the noun (“I think when you say THE computer, instead of saying THE, you just say kompjuterin”) (Sneddon, 2012, p. 444). As with the previous study, the specific research context may have played a role in determining the reportedly successful outcome. For example, the children’s school was over 80% bilingual and the school had independently developed strategies to promote home languages.

As explained by one of the volunteer Urdu teachers in Robertson’s (2006) study, being literate in two languages may also have socio-cultural benefits for children, including, in her experience: enabling them to speak to people in Pakistan; educating the children in the language and literature of the country; showing a respect for the family background and enabling them to engage with the media of their (or their parents’/grandparents’) home country. In regards to the cognitive benefits of literacy in two languages, Robertson (2006) found that overall, children learning to read in both languages and attending complementary classes, experienced a positive effect on their learning. She found it helped the children to have a more analytic approach to languages as they saw literacies as systems and they were less likely to be confused by unexplained differences.

Robertson (2006) also argues that the current English literacy system is 'monolingualising' bilingual children and rejecting their prior knowledge and experiences. Examples are provided of how the bilingual children's achievements and knowledge was not being recognised. For example, the teacher referred to starting on the left as starting 'at the beginning' which arguably shows an insensitivity to other literacies (Robertson, 2006). However, this is only one example, from one classroom.

Thus, research in this area suggests that translation between languages can help children to better understand their two languages and build their metalinguistic knowledge, providing they are already familiar with the languages (Sneddon, 2012). Secondly, from a socio-cultural perspective, children are able to gain an awareness of their own, or a different culture and languages through the use of stories (Kenner, Al-Azami, Gregory, & Ruby, 2008; Robertson, 2006). Engaging with bilingual texts was also reported to have brought the children researched great enjoyment and personal pride (Sneddon, 2008) which, in turn, may also help to develop their bilingual identity and their confidence to explore this, as reported in Kenner et al. (2008).

However, the extent to which the current body of research demonstrates how encouraging biliteracy could work in mainstream classrooms is arguably questionable. As Robertson (2006) discusses, it is important to recognise that there are time and content constraints on teachers' ability to diverge from the current curriculum and national literacy strategy and the subsequent expectations placed upon them and the children. For example, Robertson (2006) highlights the use of 'properly' which demonstrates how the children were already aware of 'being correct' according to a particular system. Promoting other forms of literacy would require a significant change in such views as the prestige associated with currently endorsed literacy practices are likely to be embedded within education and society more widely. Additionally, as with the studies regarding home language use more generally, issues such as the tangible benefits for monolingual children are yet to be fully explored and all the studies have heavily relied on a specific educational context where there is a bilingual majority. It is therefore difficult to ascertain the extent to which teachers, schools or even policymakers would be influenced by the findings.

2.3.1.d ***Allowing flexible language use (translanguaging)***

Instead of the use of home languages within planned activities or reading, this section discusses the broader concept of "allowing" home language use, or ungoverned

home language use. Conteh (2003) reports the two main obstacles to this named by teachers as being: how does the teacher know what the children are talking about and that they are on task? And how would they begin to assess the children in their first language? The first of these perhaps has roots in the issue of teacher control, as found to be prominent within the dialogue of the interviewed practitioners in Mehmedbegovic's (2008, 2011) research. While not the direct focus of any study to date, research suggests that pupils' home language use may be confined to certain classroom "purposes" (e.g. Cajkler & Hall, 2012b; Tinsley & Board, 2016). For example, data from the newly qualified teachers ($N = 72$) surveyed in Cajkler and Hall (2012) found that providing academic support and behaviour management were two prominent ways in which languages were used by the respondents. Teaching French and answering the register in different languages were also commonly mentioned. Additionally, data from the Language Trends survey (2016) as well as Bailey and Marsden (2017) suggests that teachers would seek out home language resources if they felt they were *needed*. The teachers in both studies did not elaborate what this need was but we can perhaps infer it would be help in accessing the lesson content only. To provide a broader picture, the Language Trends data (from 556 schools) also reports that in schools with a high proportion of children using EAL, almost 25% reported providing no opportunity for home language use in the classroom (the same question was not reported in the most recent survey (2017)). Therefore, a more flexible use of home languages, that is, one that is not subject to any "rules" and the child is free to use both their languages to aid their learning process, is likely to be seen as a substantial change to the linguistic behaviour of current classrooms.

Furthermore, due to the multilingual nature of England's linguistic landscape, adopting a bilingual approach, where any language could be used at any time is likely to be considered unfeasible in most schools, particularly if the teacher does not share any of these languages. Bilingual strategies such as code-switching (Poplack, 2001), or translanguaging (García & Wei, 2014), where speakers use both (or all of) their languages within their discourse, would therefore be difficult to implement within most mainstream primary schools. Both these linguistic phenomena represent substantial research areas in their own right and particularly translanguaging within recent years (e.g. Kleyn, 2016; MacSwan, 2017; Velasco & García, 2014). For this reason, and as they are not the focus of this project, further discussion of their meaning and classroom application will not be provided within this section. However, research which has employed such strategies may inform this discussion in terms of providing evidence of how such flexible use of languages may benefit

bilingual pupils and how, without the freedom to use home languages, language ideologies and hierarchies may subsequently be conveyed and reinforced.

Such hierarchies, where English is prioritised over other languages, may be demonstrated, for example, when language choice is dictated within a classroom. Though a vastly different context, Arthur's (1996) study provided evidence of this from schools in Botswana. However, as Arthur (1996) explains, this was enforced as a result of the country's language policy that English must be used in classrooms. The 'official' role of English will be discussed later in terms of its prioritisation for educational progress. However, its dominance within schools may also restrict the likelihood of more general use of home language and the likelihood of such use being considered acceptable, thus also arguably further cementing its dominance in this cyclical nature. Conteh's (2007) interview data corroborates this as the bilingual teachers, who shared the same language as their pupils, still saw English as the default language of communication.

While the importance of pupils' access to English cannot be ignored, Arthur (1996) warns that preventing pupils from using their first languages can inhibit their oral participation in lessons and their critical engagement with the curriculum. She therefore suggests that pupils' participation should be prioritised over their language choice. Indeed, participants in Brooks-Lewis's (2009) study (within an EFL context) were reported to have expressed such a preference as they felt able to be more involved in the lesson through the use of their first language. Feelings of alienation and stress were also reported to have been reduced. However, concerns over accessing the target language were also expressed by the participants, according to Brooks-Lewis (2009). The social and emotional aspects of allowing home language as well the purely educational and cognitive gains may therefore also be a compelling rationale for their inclusion. In terms of a more pedagogical rationale, it has been found that using two languages enables students to make better progress with tasks. Again, this research comes from a foreign language learning classroom. Within Swain and Lapkin's (2000) study, the students used their strongest language to help make progress with their task and manage its completion; to help search for vocabulary items and for interpersonal interaction during the task. They therefore found that using their first language had important cognitive and social functions which aided their successful completion of the task in their second language. Swain and Lapkin (2000) subsequently conclude that in this context, first language use should not be prohibited but used as a tool to support second

language learning. However, it is important to recognise that no language measures were taken in this study.

In a similar vein, using evidence from complementary schools (where children with EAL may go to learn their home language), Martin, Bhatt, Bhojani & Creese (2006) demonstrate how the use of two languages, used together, spontaneously, can be used to accomplish the lesson goals. In the classrooms observed, the children were free to speak in Gujarati or English; translation was encouraged; code-switching was common and cultural discussion was involved in most activities. Within such schools, it is reported, both languages are used together and spontaneously in order to accomplish the lesson goals, a discourse pattern which appears to be unproblematic and uncontested (Martin, Bhatt, Bhojani, & Creese, 2004). Also reporting data from a complementary school setting, through an analysis of interactions between children and their teacher in Chinese and English, Wei (2014) found that the pupils were able to bring together their knowledge and experiences (e.g. current affairs in China) of the social world. The children were able to learn contextual information about their languages and thus develop their awareness of their own sociocultural identities.

However, unlike most mainstream primary schools, complementary schools have a language (other than English) majority. This issue of number, or majority and minority emerges as a key consideration within much of the existing research as no two classrooms are the same. Conclusions drawn from this one language-specific context may therefore fail to influence the practice of another.

Although these examples of reported effective first language use predominantly refer to language learning tasks specifically, for EAL children who are newer to English, arguably most activities they undertake will be language learning activities to some degree. The contexts remain significantly different from a mainstream primary one, nonetheless. Such research is therefore perhaps less likely to reach primary teachers and thus influence their practice. Ultimately, there is very little evidence of teachers' language policies in the UK. Teachers may have adopted such language policies in their classrooms where the children are free to use the language of their choice and may have a belief in the benefits of doing so but equally, they may consider this inappropriate or impractical with their classroom environment, as also explored within section.

Cummins: The importance of first language (L1) for second language acquisition

Cummins (1979) has argued that in order to develop a cognitively and academically beneficial form of bilingualism, there must be existing, developed L1 skills. His “developmental interdependence hypothesis” states that a bilingual child’s L2 competence is related to the child’s L1 competence at the time when their intensive exposure to L2 begins. If we apply this to a UK educational context, it would suggest that it is important to consider the EAL child’s L1 ability when they first arrive at school, as in most cases, this is when the most substantial exposure to English is likely to happen. Cummins’s (1979) proposed that for those children who have less well developed L1 skills, the exposure to the second language is likely to inhibit the progression of their L1. Furthermore, he argues that this will, in turn, limit the child’s progress in their L2. Crucially, he argues that this may contribute to why minority language speakers may be educationally underachieving.

The hypothesis proposed is that while certain aspects of languages may operate separately, and may be learnt separately (e.g. pronunciation), there is an underlying proficiency that is the basis for all language learning, or a “common underlying proficiency” (Cummins, 2007, p. 232). It is also argued that this common underlying proficiency is important for literacy-related skills (Cummins, 2001). Illustrating this, Thomas and Collier (2001) found immigrant students’ proficiency in their L1 (at their arrival in the US) to be the best predictor of their academic progress in English. Additionally, Cummins (2001) argues that in order to benefit from the different types of cross-lingual transfer that may operate when learning a second language, students must be made aware of the differences between their languages. Therefore, teachers would need to help students develop learning strategies that work across both their languages.

2.3.1.e ***Summary: The potential influence of home language use on children’s educational (and cognitive) progression***

The studies discussed above vary in the methodology they have undertaken to draw their conclusions and this must be taken into consideration when looking at their findings together. For example, the studies first discussed were conducted within experimental conditions and therefore any variables which may influence the findings could be controlled. However, the real-world, educational significance of these studies is difficult to ascertain for this reason. The converse can be seen regarding the studies undertaken in classrooms

where issues such as selection bias mean the conclusions drawn must be considered with this potential lack of replicability in mind.

However, as the studies within this section have elucidated, there may be tangible educational benefits to allowing home language use and fostering home languages within primary classrooms. This is, conceivably, a potentially compelling rationale for their use. However, as Young (2014, pp. 157–158) highlights: “whether teachers are aware or unaware, informed, uninformed, or misinformed about plurilingual learning, the beliefs they hold, rooted in the ideologies they construct, will inevitably influence the language policies which they adopt at school and consequently impact on children’s learning.” Therefore, it is perhaps not so much the findings of the studies above which are central this project, rather, teachers’ interpretations and awareness of such research.

2.3.2 Developing all students’ language awareness

Various definitions exist for the concept of language awareness. The Association for Language Awareness (n.d.) defines it as ‘explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use’, for example. Broader definitions focusing on the awareness aspect also exist. For example, Carter (2003) describes a heightened sensitivity, or consciousness to the intricacies of language, for example, its different forms and constructs. Arguably, both these definitions offer a fairly brief explanation and leave the question of what language awareness might look like in the classroom unanswered. Within this section, examples of how home language and multilingual pedagogies may foster children’s language awareness are provided, alongside a synthesis of research which has implemented or evaluated language awareness programmes in schools. Increasing language learning, discussion about language and the general presence of languages in the classrooms is thus likely to affect pupils’ language awareness. Not only this, introducing focused language awareness activities or discussions can also act as a bridge between the different strands of language learning we currently see in schools (Hawkins, 1984) (i.e. literacy skills, English as an additional language and modern foreign languages) and therefore has the potential to benefit both monolingual pupils and bilingual pupils by increasing their sensitivity to language (Tulasiewicz, 2007).

The aims of a language awareness approach may include: encouraging pupils to be inquisitive about language and how it works; laying the foundations for further study into language use (e.g. children’s language development); promoting linguistic diversity by

openly discussing differences between languages and developing greater awareness of world languages (Hawkins, 1984). Hawkins first presented this pedagogy in a time of less linguistic and cultural diversity in English schools and arguably the latter aim is now even more compelling.

Previously, syntheses of language awareness education have solely looked at the potential academic gains to be made (e.g. Brumfit, 1995). However, more recent studies have implemented language awareness programmes which aim to heighten enthusiasm for language, develop linguistic skills as well as encourage inter-cultural understanding. Within the rest of this section, an analysis of a number of these projects will be presented.

2.3.2.a *The “Discovering Language” project*

This project is an example of a “sensitisation” or “encounter” programme of language learning which prioritises the development of an understanding of languages more generally, over building language competence in one language (Barton, Bragg, & Serratrice, 2009). It provided pupils with exposure to five languages throughout years 5 and 6, in seven state primary schools. This project is the only recent example of an externally evaluated multilingual language awareness pedagogy. The evaluation consisted of interviews with head teachers and pupils and a questionnaire completed by pupils and parents.

Firstly, in regards to the pupils’ experiences, in a questionnaire given after the programme, the pupils reported enjoying the lessons and being more motivated to learn languages. However, these conclusions were not drawn from large majorities, with 41% of pupils ‘not sure’ whether they had enjoyed the lessons (Barton et al., 2009, p. 152). Secondly, teachers reported their pupils to have more positive attitudes towards other cultures and that the programme had helped to reduce stereotypical views. Teachers and head teachers also supported the programme, preferring the inclusion of several languages over just one. However, as Barton et al. (2009) comment, there may be some issues of selection bias in that schools who were open to adopting a multilingual approach to language learning were more likely to select to take part from the outset.

It is thus difficult to draw clear conclusions about the effect of this approach on the children’s experiences of language learning as the questionnaire results reported marginal results in favour of it. Additionally, without summative assessment data, no conclusions could be drawn as to whether the pupils’ knowledge about language and skills to learn

language had been improved. This being said, the project provided teachers with materials and methods that could be used with very little language knowledge which the practitioners reacted positively to. There is arguably no question that it could be replicated within a variety of classrooms if the materials were made available.

With a view to extending the benefits of this programme, one head teacher suggested a more flexible use of the programme so that schools could incorporate languages already spoken within their classrooms. Incorporating the linguistic resources already present in the classroom is explored by other projects discussed in this section, although a language awareness approach which exclusively uses children's language knowledge is yet to be formally researched.

2.3.2.b *The "Thinking through Languages" project*

This curriculum development pilot aimed to explore languages from a multilingual perspective and subsequently promote social cohesion (Jones, Barnes, & Hunt, 2005). This year-long project ran in both purely Anglophone schools and multi-cultural schools. While some schools used online resources, others were able to draw from the multilingual resources within the community itself. Jones et al. (2005) argue that using the languages of pupils within the classroom reduces the detrimental effects (both cognitive and self-esteem development) of ignoring a child's first language.

The activities piloted included: identifying languages (how many languages could you name in an airport); comparing languages (audio recordings); analysing how languages work (deducing the genre of a text; linking headlines to articles) and translation tasks using online tools. The project also included 'language encounters' which involved meeting a native speaker of a particular language; a song or other small activity involving a target language; a souvenir or piece of work to take home or a question session. While Jones et al. (2005) report the project was successful, this conclusion was drawn from feedback from head teachers as well as the researchers' own conclusions as no formal evaluation was undertaken and the teachers themselves were not asked to feedback.

2.3.2.c *The Fabula Project*

The Fabula Project, funded by the European Commission, provided pupils with a multimedia element to their language education. Bilingual multimedia storybooks were used

in primary schools in South Wales and subsequently evaluated (interviews and observation) within both Welsh- and English-medium settings. Unlike other language awareness programmes, a number of tasks were included which involved a comparison of the pupils' first and second languages, although the aptness of this to this particular context is important to recognise as there would have been only one shared second language. The children were given the choice as to which language they chose to read the text in or do the corresponding activities in. Children were reported to have observed differences between the two languages such as: if you translate a sentence from one to the other, it may not have the same number of words (Edwards, Monaghan, & Knight, 2000). The computer software also offered support for the children's first language development and in particular, reading difficulties, as audio files for the English text were also available. This focus on accessing the potential benefits of creating links between languages appears to be unique to this project.

2.3.2.d *Language Awareness programmes outside the UK*

Language Awareness pedagogy has also been trialled in countries outside the UK. For example, a case-study of a school in Alsace, France, is proved by Young and Helot (2003) who cite the need for education to better represent pupils' backgrounds as the primary rationale for this. They claim that while French education has long recognised the importance of foreign languages within primary school education, emphasis has remained on foreign language learning rather than utilising pupils' differing linguistic backgrounds (Young & Helot, 2003). They argue that all languages spoken by pupils should be used within the classroom thereby invalidating misconceptions about bilingualism. Namely, that such misconceptions are restricting people's (including teachers') willingness to embrace multilingualism through fear it may hinder children's acquisition of French.

The data they report on was taken from a case study of a small rural primary school in Alsace. 37% of pupils were non-native French speakers. The language and cultural awareness project was developed by the school in response to a series of racist incidents in the school. It aimed therefore, to not only sensitise the children to other languages but also to build their tolerance. Parents and local residents were used as a "human bridge" to represent a certain country or language they have specialist knowledge about (Young & Helot, 2003, p.241). Activities undertaken in the three years of the project included: bilingual books, food tasting and exploration, songs, geography and history lessons, dressing

up in traditional costumes, talking about lifestyles and living conditions and simple linguistic exercises including how to introduce yourself and greet people.

Based on their observations and interviews, Young and Helot (2003) report that this project helped to improve relationships within the local community and mitigate the gap (linguistic and cultural) that existed between children's school lives and homes lives. The parents' participation for example, was reported to have given them insight into the experience of immigrants as well as their children. The teachers were also reported to have benefited from the project by: feeling a mutual respect between parents and teachers; gaining insight into the kind of difficulties children face when starting a school in which the language and values are different from those at their home and linguistically, they gained experience in different scripts, sounds and writing styles.

However, again, it is difficult to quantify the success of the project as no measures of the children's language awareness were taken, although the authors do illustrate the children's increased awareness, using examples such as "Is it difficult for a Chinese person to learn French" (Young & Helot, 2003, p.242). Importantly, the authors state that any language can be used as the basis for such educational practices and therefore this approach offers schools the flexibility to design language awareness curricula that are tailored to their particular interests and needs.

2.3.2.e ***Educating pupils about multilingualism***

As demonstrated within some of the above studies, language awareness programmes may not always have the sole aim of developing fluency in a language, or *learning* the language. The inclusion of multiple languages and information about languages can also serve to broaden children's awareness of languages and linguistics in a more general sense. For example, Lanvers et al. (2016) report findings from an intervention aimed at raising students' awareness English as a global language, the cognitive benefits to multilingualism as well as global multilingualism. After the intervention, a significant difference in students' attitudes towards valuing multilingualism as well as the cognitive benefits to multilingualism was seen. An increase in curiosity towards world languages was also reported from the qualitative data collected.

As Tochon (2009) argues, at the root of such education is the concept that no languages are "foreign" within today's world, instead, all languages are world languages.

Through such learning, pupils are afforded the opportunity to experience the mind and context of another culture which, in turn, may increase sensitivity towards cultural differences (Trimnell, 2005). Thus, teaching *about* multilingualism may impart not only linguistic knowledge, but also an increased awareness of the global world, the differences within this and can therefore provide pupils with intercultural understanding as well as social justice education (Osborn, 2006).

2.3.2.f ***Taking a language awareness approach: A summary***

The benefits of a language awareness approach to language learning can first be considered from a linguistic perspective. As demonstrated by the “Discovering Languages” programme, amongst others, more than one language can be included within the curriculum. Therefore, instead of limiting pupils to one language, where this choice may be influenced by external factors (for example, local secondary school feed, teacher knowledge, or school tradition), the pupils can instead, gain a knowledge of different language systems and an overview of several languages which may help to inform their future language learning pursuits.

The linguistic landscape of England and the resulting complexity of choosing a language to learn can also be seen as a rationale for the inclusion of a language awareness approach. The paradoxical situation whereby more and more languages are being spoken within England, yet the use of English as a global language (or lingua franca) is also rising, complicates the role of language learning in education, particularly in regards to motivation for learning languages. Interventions aimed at addressing language learning motivation found pupils’ perceptions of the relevance of languages to have been formed prior to the age at which the intervention was trialled (ages 13-14), for example (Taylor & Marsden, 2014). Other research projects looking at motivation have identified negative attitudes towards language learning to have begun at the beginning of secondary school (Graham, Courtney, Tonkyn, & Marinis, 2016). This suggests that language learning programmes at primary level may play a key role in fostering long-lasting positive attitudes towards language learning and thus perhaps, other languages. There is currently no evidence to suggest that adopting a language awareness approach which responds to the languages in the classroom, based on such programmes as those discussed above, would solve the issue of which language to learn in terms of motivating pupils. However, responding to local

languages may have other benefits, for children with EAL and monolingual children, as illustrated by the studies discussed above.

Additionally, drawing from experience of teaching in multilingual EFL classrooms rather than empirical evidence, Auerbach (1993) argues that a wide range of languages being spoken can be an advantage as students learn for themselves about the functions and consequences of using their first language when other language groups are present. It can therefore be argued that this helps to prepare pupils for the multilingual society they may live in, in certain areas of the UK. Furthering this, the monolingual pupils may become sensitised to language learners and non-native speakers which again, prepares them for future social encounters, but may also give them empathy and understanding within their own foreign language learning.

Furthermore, with rising numbers of pupils who use EAL in schools, it is likely to become increasingly difficult to perceive language learning as something which happens in one dedicated lesson as pupils with EAL may need language support throughout the day. Language awareness, or responding to language issues as and when and drawing on these, can allow language learning to happen organically throughout the day. The addition of more cross-curricular language learning may help to aid this process. In favour of this, McCarthy (1997) exemplifies the Irish context of language learning, where pupils learn three languages. He argues that cross-curricular language development allows pupils to connect existing knowledge about language with new knowledge. The adoption of language awareness pedagogy can therefore link with the literacy curriculum and help pupils to create bridges between their L1 knowledge and their L2 or L3 knowledge. Moreover, allowing language learning to move beyond the confines of a dedicated lesson may also have implications for the status of a given language. As discussed above, and argued in Young and Helot (2003), when a school dedicates time to a language, they legitimise this language creating a sense of official acceptance.

Traditional modern foreign language learning was introduced in the primary curriculum only recently in 2014 and subsequent evaluations of this curriculum change have shown many teachers and schools still to be struggling with this provision (Tinsley & Board, 2017). It is important to acknowledge, however, that prior to this curriculum change (between 2002 and 2010), many initiatives were implemented by the Training Development Agency and the teaching of languages at primary level was widespread. It is reported that in

2002, around a quarter of primary schools were teaching a language and the 2012 Language Trends survey (the earliest to document primary language teaching) showed that 97% of (604) primary schools offered pupils the opportunity to learn languages in class time (Tinsley & Board, 2012). Indeed, in 2005, the Department for Education issued a Framework for Languages for Key Stage Two (ages 7-11) (DCSF, 2005). However, without clarity regarding curriculum decisions about primary language teaching, this did not continue to grow. This is demonstrated by the 2013/14 Language Trends survey whereby 17/29 schools who reported they do not teach a language, had previously taught one (Board & Tinsley, 2014). While the proportion of schools teaching a language remained high in this survey (90% taught a language to pupils ages 7-11), the potential for this figure to be higher than the national average due to self-selection bias must also be acknowledged. Thus, the waning of momentum for primary language teaching prior to the 2014 curriculum change is likely to have resulted in a paucity of training materials and resources which, in turn, may have affected current teachers' preparedness to teach languages. For this reason, it is conceivable that teachers may currently see a language awareness approach as being easier and more appropriate for a primary context.

However, teachers may also see the inclusion of different languages, including those in the classroom, as being at odds with the 2014 curriculum stipulation and thus outside of their duty as a teacher. The role of the curriculum in establishing what *should* be learnt is a much wider issue which will be returned to later within this chapter (section 2.4.7.b) but its relevance here is important to highlight. Adopting a language awareness approach that responds to classroom languages may of course sit beside more traditional language learning, yet as its place in the curriculum is not established, this is likely to affect teachers' willingness to consider it and the potential educational benefits it may offer.

2.3.3 The potential socio-cultural benefits for the whole class

Potential socio-cultural benefits to using home languages have been briefly explored within this chapter previously when referenced by researchers of the study being discussed. However, within this section, these will be the explicit focus.

2.3.3.a *Celebrating diversity*

The concept of "celebrating diversity" is defined by King (2004, p. 71) as the "democratic ethic that all students, regardless of their sociocultural backgrounds, should be

educated equitably". The desire to celebrate diversity, or teach children about diversity is one of the reasons why the use of home languages may be encouraged by teachers and schools.

It is difficult to ascertain the extent to which linguistic, cultural and societal diversity are currently represented within all mainstream classrooms. K. Hall, Ozerk, Zulfiqar & Tan (2012) argue, for example, that while educational policy promotes principles of integration, tolerance and a respect for diversity, observable practice suggests that this rhetoric does not continue into the classroom. They claim "in reality, mainstream schooling, at best neglects, and at worst, denies cultural and linguistic diversity" (Hall et al., 2012, p. 414).

The effect of differences in number of ethnic minority students, or pupils with EAL more generally, on teachers' and schools' perceptions of their need to reflect diversity, again factors into this section of the discussion. This was shown by the Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review Group (Maylor, Read, Mendick, Ross, & Rollock, 2007), for example, who looked at how diversity is promoted across the UK curriculum at all ages. Three predominantly White schools and three multi-ethnic schools were chosen as cases studies and two days were spent in each school. Amongst the findings were that the National Curriculum had a Eurocentric approach which fails to value cultural and ethnic diversity. This was found to be particularly true when schools had lower numbers of minority ethnic pupils and therefore did not see diversity as a priority (Maylor et al., 2007). Their report therefore concluded that more help is needed for teachers in predominantly white areas. This suggests a paradoxical situation exists whereby those schools which are multicultural are providing more effective diversity education, yet those schools which are monocultural may be failing to provide this, when these are likely to be the pupils who most require additional input from schools. The same paradox may therefore be observable in terms of home languages in that highly monolingual schools may feel they do not *need* to make a change to their practice, yet by doing this, they reinforce the monolingualism of their school and are unable to access the potential socio-cultural benefits (as well as educational) of drawing on home languages. When, in a highly monolingual context, it could be argued that the provision of linguistic diversity education is *more* of a priority.

Additionally, the Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review Group found that when diversity was addressed, it was a narrow definition which saw diversity as only relating to minority ethnic groups and their cultures, therefore White British pupils were reported to

feel reluctant to discuss their heritage in lessons. Specific issues relating to teachers' knowledge were also addressed and whether initial teacher training (henceforth ITT) is successfully equipping teachers with the knowledge they require. Alongside this, it was reported that many teachers may feel subjects such as Maths and Science do not allow for discussions about diversity and different geographical contexts (Maylor et al., 2007). It can subsequently be questioned to what extent teaching training institutions and professional development training are providing effective training for teachers which may in turn, affect observable practice.

2.3.3.b *Achieving effective diversity education*

Knight (1994) highlights the importance of teachers and schools analysing their own culture in order to help support pupils with their cultural development. However, as King (2004) argues, successfully representing diversity can be problematic in practice for those teachers who have little experience with diversity themselves. This may be particularly true within a UK context, as data gathered by the Department for Education suggests that UK teachers do not reflect the increasingly diverse nature of mainstream primary schools. In January 2010, 94% of teachers were recorded in the white ethnic groups (DfE, 2010). Furthermore, Nieto (2000) argues that the same is true for most teacher trainers who may also have had little experience with diversity and who are more likely to reflect their students' backgrounds: i.e. white, middle-class, monolingual. Thus, teachers' own lack of experience with diversity may limit their ability to both provide effective diversity education as well to recognise the importance of doing so.

In order to combat this cycle, Knight (1994) argues that teachers should be prepared to learn about their pupils' home cultures by talking to parents and doing their own research in the local community. However, currently, these strategies would depend on the initiative and the intent of individual teachers as there is no top-down pressure to do so. This intent, of course, may never develop without initially raising teachers' awareness of diversity. For this reason, Nieto (2000) also argues that all teacher training courses, and all trainees, no matter what their subject, should be given diversity training, though, crucially, they currently are not explicitly required to do so.

In order to provide effective diversity education, Conteh (2003) proposes the following three actions: firstly, recognising the importance of interaction in supporting the children's thinking and learning; secondly, acknowledging the positive cognitive effects of

bilingualism and thirdly, understanding how culture can provide all children with equal opportunities. She locates the cause of neglect for diversity education as being the pressures on teachers. She states that these lead them to deliver lessons which are not flexible to their pupils' own experiences and teachers feel they have no time to listen to children's experiences. The result of which, Conteh (2003, p. 122) states, is that "the 'valuing and respecting' gets squeezed into the corners". Thus, firstly, in order for the three actions proposed by Conteh (2003) to be implemented, teachers themselves would have to be educated on the potential benefits described. Secondly, the curriculum would have to give teachers the freedom and the space to be able to implement these actions.

Additionally, while a pupil's language may be a more obvious difference they hold compared to their peers, the differences in their cultural background may not be as easy to recognise (as argued by Conteh (2003)). In her explanation of "pragmatic biculturalism", Knight (1994) highlights how for bicultural pupils, their home culture may be vastly different from the culture of mainstream schooling and it is therefore important to allow bicultural pupils to feel confident in their "public culture" as well as their home culture which, she states, is more than surface features such as food and festivals (Knight, 1994, p. 103).

Achieving successful representation of diversity is therefore one way in which home languages may feature in mainstream primary practice, and is strongly advocated by the researchers whose work was included in this section. However, if, as Hall et al. (2012) and Conteh (2003) argue, teachers are not currently representing diversity, and furthermore, may not be aware of how to do so, this demonstrates a significant obstacle to the potential use of home language pedagogies. This socio-cultural, or even social justice, rationale for home language education is arguably a compelling one, yet crucially, the practicalities of how to successfully represent diversity may be largely unknown by teachers and teacher educators.

2.3.4 Physical and contextual factors

As previously discussed, the position of researchers in this area, tends to be one of advocacy, and perhaps for this reason, very little attention has been paid to the replicability of trialled activities in other contexts. This replicability may depend on language attitudes, as explored in the previous section, yet it also may be considered unfeasible due to more physical, contextual factors.

Potential barriers to implementing home languages may result from a variety of factors, yet these are arguably more apparent in less linguistically diverse contexts, as demonstrated in previous research undertaken by Bailey and Marsden (2017). Within this study, a small number of practising teachers were observed and interviewed ($N = 7$), and questionnaires were collected from a wider sample of teachers ($N = 55$) who were all teaching within a highly monolingual context. An awareness of this monolingualism was demonstrated by the teachers in that they expressed concerns over assigning a disproportionate amount of time to catering to children's (with EAL) needs in comparison to their monolingual pupils' (Bailey & Marsden, 2017).

Additionally, in such highly monolingual contexts, there are likely to be barriers which both potentially prevent a child from accessing home language provision but also affect the 'presence' of a home language felt in a community, subsequently restricting its influence on local education. Eisenclas et al. (2015) list some of these more physical obstacles bilingual children may face to the development of their first language literacy skills, namely: parents may not have the confidence or skills to facilitate this development; geographical isolation may make complementary/Saturday schools unfeasible and there may be a need for better resources and trained teachers, especially within some communities where immigration rates are lower. While these factors may, on the one hand, physically restrict an EAL child from accessing first language education, they can also be seen as reasons why schools may neglect, or even ignore, home languages. Or, teachers wishing to source resources may also encounter the same obstacles.

There are also issues, specific to the 'typical' experiences of teaching a child with EAL, which may affect teachers' willingness to adapt their classroom routines, activities and pedagogies. For example, the lack of predictability: for the most part, teachers do not know how many EAL children they will have each year; which home languages their pupils will speak nor their level of proficiency in their home language and in English. In multicultural areas, this is conceivably much easier to predict, but in areas which are experiencing increasing levels of immigration, or which are relatively new to receiving immigrants, this is a likely to be a much more substantial concern for teachers.

This was explored in Costley's (2014) research, where the belief that immigration in general was a temporary phenomenon and once migrant's objectives had been achieved in England (i.e. employment), the children would return to 'their' country, was expressed by

teachers. Costley (2014) also argues that it is for this reason that the education system failed to respond quickly to the needs of new immigrant arrivals in the early stages of rises in immigration.

2.3.5 Teachers' linguistic confidence ability

Teachers' lack of linguistic knowledge and furthermore, confidence may represent a significant hurdle to the potential implementation of multilingual/home language pedagogies as although the teacher would not necessarily be required to *provide* language input, they may feel they need additional language knowledge in order to implement such an approach.

Research by the Department for Education and Skills showed that most teachers' linguistic knowledge was limited to basic language (DfES, 2004). Furthermore, it is estimated that in order to implement the training required to raise teachers' linguistic knowledge sufficiently, substantial funding would be necessary (Jones et al. 2005). Teachers' own perceptions also corroborate these findings as research has shown that teachers do not feel confident in their linguistic ability when implementing foreign language learning pedagogy (Barton, A Bragg, J Serratrice, 2009; DfES, 2004). The teachers interviewed in Legg's (2013) study also explicitly expressed that in order to improve their confidence levels, more language training and access to better resources would be necessary.

Researching newly qualified teachers' (henceforth NQTs) language capabilities in a multilingual British city, Cajkler and Hall (2012) found that up to a third of new teachers and 15% of trainees used a heritage (home) language. In terms of foreign languages, while 83% of the NQT's had a foreign language qualification, only one (of 73) had a foreign language undergraduate degree. Of the 103 trainees surveyed in total: 18% had no language qualifications whatsoever. When analysing whether the trainees used their language capabilities, Cajkler and Hall (2012, p. 23) highlight a particularly interesting and "not untypical" observation: one NQT who was multilingual was not teaching a foreign language in her school, yet one teacher with "school-boy French" was teaching French to his year 4 class. 38% of the NQTs said that they never used other languages in the classroom. Home languages (e.g. Gujarati), specifically, were used (when known) by the NQTs to speak to the children with EAL, particularly those who needed translations and for behavioural purposes. One trainee highlighted the role of bilingual TA's in minimising their need to use, or know about, their pupils' home languages: "I have learned very little about the children's

languages ... I found myself focusing on the children's fluency in English ... It was too easy to rely on my TA to cater for the children's native languages" (Cajkler & Hall, 2012, p. 28). However, as previously discussed, not all schools have access to bilingual teaching assistants. Cajkler and Hall (2012) subsequently conclude that teachers' language capabilities and language use are not necessarily related. Instead, other factors appear to be at play in determining whether (trainee) teachers use their linguistic skills in the classroom. They state that while many teachers may not have language skills, it is important to explore the language capabilities of those that do and furthermore, to ascertain to what extent these capabilities can be utilised in increasingly multilingual classrooms.

While teachers' linguistic capabilities may not necessarily dictate their classroom practice, their *perceptions* of their linguistic ability and ultimately, their confidence to use other languages, might. Teachers' perceptions of using their own home language (if they have one) may also be linked to the issues discussed in the previous chapter. Namely, they may not see it as being appropriate for 'formal' learning. It can thus be deduced that the same perception is held of children using their home languages. In addition, Young and Helot (2003) claim that most French primary school teachers would have limited knowledge of the concept of 'language awareness'. ITT, as in England, focuses on promoting the French language (or indeed, English in England) as the standard language and equipping teachers with the knowledge and experience to help all children access the curriculum through this language. Therefore, again, teachers' preparedness to use languages other than the dominant language (i.e. English), while potentially improved, or reduced by the more tangible factors discussed within these sections, arguably cannot be considered in isolation from the ideological factors discussed in section 2.4.

2.3.6 Teachers' know-how

As providing home language education, in any form, is not currently stipulated by educational policy, teachers' knowledge to provide such education is likely to be dependent on their own personal interests and experiences. The feasibility of implementing the training, resources and curricula required to provide such education is therefore an important consideration. The curriculum developed by the EUCIM-TE Comenius project (Roth & Duarte, 2011) demonstrates how this may be possible. The project, founded due to a concern in the underachievement of migrant pupils, aimed to develop a common curriculum at European level to help integrate families of a migrant background and to

improve overall school performance of these children. This project created a curriculum which “acknowledges the home languages as a resource and a filter for learning another language knowledge, and looked for a way of teaching languages in a more efficient way” with the intention that it will “increasingly contribute to the reduction of educational inequality” and “provide better and more appropriate educator and teacher training to deal with all students, in particular with pupils with a migration background” (Roth & Duarte, 2011, p. 16). While it is recognised that the provision of extensive bilingual instruction would be unfeasible, it is argued within the proposed approach that home languages should be seen as resources to be drawn upon by staff to promote learning in various ways (Roth, Duarte, Broader, & Stokmans, 2010).

The role of teacher training *institutions* in equipping teachers with the knowledge and skills to adopt home language pedagogies is also important to consider. In order to do this, for example, Nieto (2000) (referring to institutions in the U.S) suggests that teacher training institutions should give priority to candidates who are fluent in at least one second language and who have experience with pupils from a diverse range of backgrounds. She also argues that if teacher training institutions are to effectively follow through with rhetoric concerning the value of cultural diversity, they must allow their trainees to learn a second language, or to become multicultural in their outlook. Similarly, García (2008) referring to a U.S. context, suggests that all teachers should be bilingual in order to equip themselves to teach in multilingual classrooms. Calls have also been made for teacher education which is “linguistically responsive” with the incorporation of “a small set of understandings and practices”, including a knowledge of pupils’ linguistic and academic backgrounds (Lucas et al., 2008, p. 370).

When considering these arguments and initiatives, it is again important to recognise the context, and more specifically geographical context. The extent to which García’s (2008) recommendations can be prescribed in a UK context, with variable numbers of children using EAL from region to region, arguably remains questionable. With such variable numbers, a nationwide prescription of teachers’ linguistic capabilities may be difficult to enforce.

Murakami’s (2008) previously referenced study, researching variability in teachers’ preparedness to teach EAL pupils, further highlights the significance of context. The location of teachers’ pre-service positions was found to affect the teachers’ future approach towards

pupils with EAL. Additionally, as Cajkler and Hall (2012, p. 16) highlight, trainee teachers already face many demands throughout their ITT programme: “nationally determined professional standards, demonstrations of classroom competence in two, often three, schools, and written assignments”. Therefore, learning a second language, or learning to become “linguistically responsive” teachers, would have to compete for priority in an already demanding programme.

It is reported that trainees also feel their training does not successfully equip them to respond to EAL learners. Within the most recent national survey of newly qualified teachers (NQTs), NQTs ($N = 1,915$) were asked to score (from 1-10) how well their training had prepared them for certain aspects of their role as teachers (Pye, Stobart, & Lindley, 2016). Teaching pupils with EAL received the highest proportion of scores from 1-3 (23%) and the lowest proportion of the highest scores (9-10) (11%). While this question is likely to have been interpreted as describing academic support for pupils with EAL, in which, the role of home languages may not have been considered by trainees, it does highlight the paucity of training within this area of teaching more generally. In terms of teaching pupils from ethnic backgrounds, related to the concept of linguistic and cultural diversity in this project, only 47% of primary-trained NQTs reporting feeling well prepared to teach these pupils.

Little wide scale investigation of teacher’ perceptions of their own preparedness to use home languages has been conducted so far. However, in a survey of 55 primary teachers, Bailey and Marsden (2017) were able to draw some conclusions regarding teachers’ training. For example, almost half of the respondents had received no training whatsoever regarding EAL education. Second to this, almost 30% has received only lecture-based training rather than a specifically-designed placement, for example. Those who had undertaken a placement (7 teachers) had all attended the same institution, thereby highlighting the variable experiences trainee teachers may have as a result of the institution they attend.

As well as geographical location, variability in training may result from course pathway. Particularly perhaps, as a result of the increase in school-based training with recent years which is likely to make training more localised (Hodgson, 2014). According to the latest NQT survey, 73% of trainees are training within an ITT institution and the remaining 27% are training on a school-based route (what are known as *school-direct* or *teach first*). As reported in Hodgson (2014), concerns have been raised over sustaining

trainees' subject knowledge within a school-based route, although, as this move towards school-based training only began in 2013, it is arguably difficult to draw any conclusions regarding this.

In sum, from the existing body of research discussed above as well as a consideration of the current teachers' standards which do not offer guidance specifically relating to trainees' linguistic knowledge or knowledge of home language education necessarily, it can thus be concluded that currently, trainee teachers are likely to receive little input regarding home languages during their training. Furthermore, the input trainees do receive is likely to vary from institution to institution due to the lack of current guidelines.

2.4 Attitudinal and ideological factors which may influence teachers' preparedness to use home languages

As well as the societal, political and educational issues discussed within the previous sections, much of the existing research examining home language pedagogies neglects to consider the individual, attitudinal differences that may influence teachers' perceptions of home language use. This section first discusses this oversight and subsequently explores the potential roots of attitudes about home languages held by teachers and how these may affect classroom practice.

2.4.1 The problem of social desirability bias

Before considering different origins to attitudes and perceptions of value, it is first important to acknowledge a potential source of bias within this area. While attitudes expressed in the research in this area may originate from personal experiences, or beliefs, the potential for social desirability bias, that is, "the tendency to respond to questions in a socially acceptable direction" (Spector, 2004, p. 1045) should not be overlooked. The socially desirable, or "politically correct" position is arguably that of multiculturalism being a positive, additive aspect of society. Pressure to conform to this view or to reflect these values may influence both research participants and researchers themselves.

In terms of participants, socially desirable viewpoints were evident in Mehmedbegovic's data, for example, despite none of the interview prompts specifically referencing multiculturalism, statements such as "Britain has benefited hugely from multiculturalism" were given (Mehmedbegovic, 2011, p. 110). Additionally, in terms of the

existing body of research discussed in section 2.2.1, these have arguably been approached from an existing position of advocacy and endorsement for the activities trialled. Perhaps for this reason, reasons why the activities may not have been successful or may not be implemented beyond that study have yet to be considered. The failure to consider teachers' attitudes is one way in which this bias can perhaps be seen.

2.4.2 Teachers' attitudes towards home languages in the classroom

Despite the aforementioned potential for social desirability bias, practitioners in Mehmedbegovic's (2011; 2008) interview data, did not demonstrate unanimous advocacy for the use of home languages in mainstream classrooms. Instead, the views given can be considered as forming a spectrum of attitudes, ranging from: a belief in home languages causing children confusion, to head teachers not knowing their opinions and never having thought about it, to using the home language only as a transitional phase while the child's English improves (Mehmedbegovic, 2011). It appears therefore, that rather than "politically correct"-led responses, these practitioners were focused instead on the perceived educational, or cognitive value of home languages.

The linguistic background of teachers, or the linguistic make-up of a school may influence attitudes towards using home languages in the classroom. For example, the bilingual complementary school teacher whose interview data is used by Conteh (2012), used her shared bilingualism as a means of identifying with the pupils. This, she claims, resulted in improved behaviour and changed the pupils' attitude towards her. This viewpoint contrasts with another teacher interviewed who commented that "we only allow them to speak English, to avoid any confusion and conflicts" (Conteh, 2012, p. 113). However, similar views were also exhibited by an Urdu/Punjabi-speaking teacher in Conteh's (Conteh, 2007) study, who asserted the importance of using English as "we teach in English". The second of these quotes comes from a teacher in a highly multilingual school. Therefore, the current body of research, while indicating the presence of conflicting attitudes regarding home languages, fails to provide any pattern as to what causes these differences.

Mehmedbegovic (2008) argues that current classroom practice and teachers' views on what they should teaching are dictated by values and attitudes attached to bilingualism, rather than research and pedagogical theory. Rather than stating that schools have a role in ensuring language maintenance, the participating practitioners were unanimous in their agreement that it is a family's and a speaker's choice if they wish to speak their language at

home (Mehmedbegovic, 2008). These opinions, Mehmedbegovic summarises, stem from a belief in an individual's personal liberties and freedom to make their own decisions. The head teachers interviewed also corroborated this view that at home, language choice is a person's right (Mehmedbegovic, 2008). However, a spectrum of views regarding the role of education in this decision was evident: at one end, schooling should be in English only and at the other, a more inclusive approach that asserts the importance of home languages in the classroom. Mehmedbegovic hypothesises that this difference in views may be attributable to the different knowledge and expertise practitioners have which thereby causes differing interpretations of policy.

2.4.3 Attitudes towards EAL pupils

While the previous section highlighted the significance of attitudes towards languages, it is perhaps not only the language a pupil speaks which is of relevance. Inextricable from a discussion about perceptions of language use, is the issue of attitudes towards pupils who use EAL more generally. Due to issues such as social desirability (section 2.4.1), it is difficult to explicitly research negative perceptions of pupils, thus throughout this section, studies which highlight the significance of teachers' prejudgements and perceptions (both positive and negative), rather than evidence of these, will be discussed.

2.4.3.a Positive perceptions

Research from a UK context has shown teachers to demonstrate positive attitudes towards certain pupils who use EAL. Specifically, the eight teachers interviewed by Flynn (2013), reported their Polish pupils to have a strong work ethic, increased cognitive ability, increased motivation levels as well as being rewarding to teach. However, Flynn (2013) also found variation between the teachers' experiences of migration. For example, she notes how perhaps counterintuitively, more awareness of the difficulty of starting a new school was exhibited by a less experienced teacher (years teaching) than one who had been teaching for significantly longer, and who had therefore encountered more pupils. This suggests that it is important to account for individual differences when examining teachers' attitudes, rather than those which are perhaps more calculable, or may seem more intuitive (such as time teaching). This example, drawn from only a small number of teachers' experiences, also arguably highlights the importance of unpicking teachers' attitudes and what may be forming them, yet the extent to which this may be encountered in a wider teacher population remains unknown.

Similar to Flynn's conclusions about teachers' views of Polish pupils, Archer and Francis (2005) found perceptions of British Chinese pupils to be subject to favourable stereotyping by teachers. They found that teachers unanimously thought that British Chinese pupils' 'success' was a result of their family and home culture. Specifically, it was perceived that the parents had high expectations for their children and would often 'push' them to succeed. Beliefs were also held about Chinese family structure being more 'stable' and providing a respect of authority. It was reported that while some teachers suggested children's individual personality may play a role, on the whole, home/family culture was seen as mainly attributable for the educational success of Chinese British pupils (Archer & Francis, 2005).

Using data from school reports in order to report teacher discourse about many different races, Connolly (1998) similarly found evidence of positive perceptions of particular ethnic groups. For example, it was found that South Asian girls were perceived as obedient and hard-working, despite the researcher's own observations that they exhibited similar behaviour to that of their other female peers. Furthermore, it was reported that due to the "femininity" teachers had projected onto South Asian girls. Their 'bad' behaviour would not be used as an example to others (as was done with boys) and their negative behaviour was more likely to be overlooked (Connolly, 1998). Another significant consequence of this is that because good behaviour and hard work were expected of the South Asian girls, they often would receive less praise from members of staff and their work would not be highlighted as an example of 'good work' (as an encouragement to other pupils).

It is therefore important to recognise that, as Archer and Francis (2005, p. 166) highlight, even those judgements which appear to be positive "can serve to homogenise and straight-jacket the diverse experience of those drawn within its boundaries, making issues of inequality". Arguably a more critical understanding of any ethnic group in education is favourable, as argued for by Archer and Francis. Additionally, as Li (2005) argues, referring to Asian students in a North American context, when pupils are given this "model minority" status, many other issues can be masked. Educationally speaking, she argues that these may include: policy makers overlooking the needs of such groups of pupils; the psychological and emotional concerns of underachieving pupils may also not be addressed and may prevent the school from taking responsibility for such underachievement as this may be seen as the pupil and the family's responsibility.

Whilst Li (2005) specifically refers to a North American context, Flynn's (2013) UK research suggests that Eastern European pupils may also be subject to a "model minority" myth. However, the effects of such positive judgements on teachers' willingness to use home languages and in this case, specifically Eastern European languages, is yet to be considered in formal research. Teachers may have increased willingness, due to a desire to reward or help to integrate the pupils, or they may wish to prioritise their development in English and support the academic progress they may expect from these pupils. While the maintenance of home culture is referred to in Flynn's (2013, p. 348) data, which she describes as being "well-regarded and understood" by the teachers, she also reports that the teachers exhibited frustration at parents' lack of English skills and tendency to take the children to Poland for long holidays. This thereby suggests that, as hypothesised above, perhaps progression in English may be prioritised by teachers and a maintenance of home language and culture would be regarded as less important.

2.4.3.b *Negative perceptions*

As briefly discussed at the beginning of this section and demonstrated in the section above, explicitly negative perceptions (if present) about teaching EAL or minority ethnic pupils are unlikely to be expressed by teachers in formal research due to social-desirability bias or more explicitly, a knowledge of what is and isn't socially acceptable to say. However, research has shown teachers to express views which are seemingly not negative, yet when unpicked, demonstrate misconceptions and prejudgements about EAL and minority ethnic education.

For example, the teachers analysed in Jones's (1999) study were shown to make assumptions about teaching in a multi-ethnic school. Tracking progress over the course of a PGCE, Jones (1999) reports a trainee teacher stating she would not apply to work in an urban (multi-ethnic) school due to a belief in her own inadequacy for a job in such an area. Jones (1999) claims this statement conveys the trainee teacher's assumptions about multi-ethnic schools, as well as displaying a clear reluctance to change these views and indeed, her preparedness. Furthermore, if the time in which Jones's (1999) research was undertaken is taken into consideration, immigration rates have risen substantially and 'avoiding' teaching ethnic minority groups is arguably no longer feasible. In this example, multi-ethnic schools appear to be a 'type' of school, where teachers may have a dichotomous preparedness and willingness to teach in. This unwillingness is one issue raised by this example but the lack of

preparedness instilled by the teacher training instruction is also important to note. While this is one example and the data were collected a substantial amount of time ago, a clear picture of teachers' and trainees' willingness and preparedness to actively engage with (growing) multilingualism and multiculturalism is arguably yet to be established in formal research.

Previous research has also demonstrated the existence of variable teacher expectations regarding EAL children, or more specifically, ethnic minority pupils. In one study, teachers were shown to evaluate responses given by minority ethnic pupils (particularly boys) less favourably than those given by White girls (Shepherd, 2011). However, as Shepherd (2011) acknowledges, the data were taken from a small sample size in the Los Angeles-area only, therefore they cannot be generalised beyond this context. However, the results are in line with findings by other researchers (e.g. Crowl & MacGinitie, 1974; Woodworth & Salzer, 1971), albeit researching in a less recent context. The studies in this area rely on qualitative data (largely case-studies), collected in one localised area therefore, the extent to which these findings can be observed across different contexts remains unestablished. However, they do demonstrate the importance of contextual information in providing a richer understanding of ethnic minority (or EAL) educational issues. As Nayak (1999) argues, the dynamics of race and ethnicity are rooted within the social and cultural context of a specific geographical area. An understanding of how attitudes towards EAL pupils may influence classroom practice is therefore difficult to establish without considering specific contextual, or geographical information.

Whilst the aforementioned studies do not necessarily provide insight into a modern British educational context, they do highlight the potential for subjectivity in teachers' evaluations and perceptions of pupils. This subjectivity is arguably particularly pertinent when considering the potential implementation of home language pedagogy and more specifically, the role of teachers as the implementers of such pedagogy, particularly with an absence of curriculum guidelines. Assessing the implications of the current body of literature regarding teachers' perceptions of ethnic minority children is also arguably more complex within a British (EAL) educational context due to patterns of immigration. For example, in the aforementioned studies there is very little differentiation between first, second or third generation immigrants; no reference to accent; physical appearance (i.e. skin colour) or level of English. In a British context, an EAL pupil may be a White, third-generation (e.g. Polish-speaking) immigrant, with high levels of English proficiency, for example. Unpicking the

many factors that may affect teachers' perceptions of an 'EAL pupil' is therefore extremely complex and perhaps unachievable. Research which examines attitudes towards home languages and therefore pupils who use EAL, arguably needs to account for this complexity.

Perceptions of immigration

Inextricably linked to any discussion of pupils who use EAL is a discussion of rising immigration as, of course, the increase in pupils who use EAL is attributable to a rise in immigration. Even those pupils who have small amounts of home language knowledge, and may not be considered as needing any additional support, are still likely to have a history of immigration to the UK at some point in their family's past. Therefore, teachers' perceptions of immigration more generally may contribute to their perceptions of how they should adapt their practice according to these children's presence. Within the research looking at children with EAL in mainstream education, little reference is made to immigration. One exception to this is Flynn's (2013) study of eight teachers who were teaching in schools with a recent increase in Polish-speaking children. Within this data, there was discussion of children's experience of migration, where Flynn (2013) reports that the two teachers interviewed showed different amount of empathy towards the children's experience. Empathy may thus be a factor, perhaps linked to a child's experience of moving, that may cause a teacher to make changes to their practice.

However, there is little other evidence of teachers' attitudes towards immigration and how these may affect their practice regarding children using EAL. Issues of social desirability bias, as discussed above, are also likely to make conclusions from such research very difficult to reliably draw. What research does suggest, however, is that perceptions of immigration in the UK are not straightforward. For example, responses from the British Social Attitudes Survey (BSA) (National Centre for Social Research, 2017) indicate that the UK is the most divided country in Europe when it comes to perceptions of the economic impact of immigration. That is, 62% of respondents with a degree, and 48% of those aged 18-29 believed immigration to have a positive impact on the economy. Conversely, 29% of respondents with GCSEs as their highest level of qualification or no qualifications and 29% of people over 70 share this view. Thus, we might expect teachers to fall into the former category due to their educational background. However, this may not be true of all teachers, and even if teachers hold positive attitudes towards immigration, they are teaching in communities where a range of attitudes may be present. There is therefore, no blanket

societal position on immigration, and thus as an extension of this, on the presence of children who use EAL and their families in British schools and communities.

2.4.4 Parents' and children's attitudes towards the use of home languages

Arguably it is impossible to consider the attitude of teachers towards the use of home languages without also considering those of parents and children in the school community and vice versa, as conceivably, they are likely to influence to each other.

In terms of children's attitudes, arguably both the monolingual children and the EAL children's experiences are important to recognise, particularly in a highly monolingual context. Contradictory attitudes from EAL children can be seen within the limited amounts of data currently available. For example, Conteh (2012) includes a quote from Aitsiselmi's (2004) research project, from a 10 year old Punjabi-speaking boy, who expresses pride at being able to translate for another EAL child who cannot understand. Whereas in Conteh's (2007) earlier research, a teacher describes how, due to embarrassment, EAL children are keen to use only English as soon as they have enough language.

There is little attention given to the monolingual children's experiences of home languages within this research area. This is particularly true in terms of their attitudes towards home languages more generally. However, as previously discussed, the monolingual children in Kenner et al.'s (2008) bilingual poetry study were reported to have responded positively to the lesson. However, for many children, going to school in such a multilingual environment would not be the norm. The degree of multilingualism, or indeed, monolingualism, may therefore conceivably affect children's perceptions of home language use. This issue of proportion may conceivably also affect teachers' preparedness to use home languages. For example, in Bailey and Marsden (2017), the concept that *every* child's need was important was raised by the teachers interviewed and within this, the belief that a disproportionate amount of time should not be allocated to catering for a child with EAL's needs.

The children in Elton-Chalcraft's (2009) study, also highlight some important issues surrounding children's perceptions of other languages: the children equated being British with being born in Britain, being white, having British parents and speaking English. While the children did change their views with some input from the researcher, they maintained the view that speaking English was a necessary requisite of being British (Elton-Chalcraft,

2009). This suggests that, even at primary school age, children have developed strong opinions regarding language use and issues surrounding it. This subsequently raises the question of where the children's attitudes originate from and ultimately, how embracing home languages within the classroom may influence such views. The inclusion of a discussion about the impact of children's attitudes on the likelihood of home language pedagogies being implemented in schools in this section is therefore largely hypothetical due to the lack of current research in this area. Importantly, conclusions such as Elton-Chalcraft's (2009) arguably also provide important rationale for such research and ultimately, the implementation of language (or even sociolinguistic) education in UK primary schools in order to address such concerning perceptions.

Similarly, both the views and preferences of monolingual parents, as well as the parents of EAL children are important to consider. Conteh (2012, p. 111) uses data from Punjabi-speaking parents to illustrate the importance they place on maintaining their heritage language, for example "we have been trying very hard to use Punjabi as our first language". However, Conteh (2007) also references one teacher who argues that parents' attitudes towards English (the importance of speaking English) can cause a child to be reluctant towards speaking their home language. The potential complexity of parents' attitudes towards the maintenance of their children's home language is demonstrated by one Urdu-speaking parent's explanation that while she wishes her children were more fluent in Urdu so they could connect with both their cultures, she recognised that the dominance of English had led to them being stronger in English (Conteh, 2012). As Conteh (2003) highlights, parents are also aware of their children's need to succeed in western terms which would require them to be proficient in English.

The studies in this area, again perhaps due to being undertaken in largely multicultural areas, rarely reference monolingual parents' attitudes towards home languages so the inclusion of this as a contributing factor is again largely hypothetical. The potential significance of monolingual parents' attitudes is very clearly demonstrated in one example from Conteh's (2007) research, however. An account from one Urdu/Punjabi bilingual teacher who used a bilingual storytelling activity in her lesson is discussed. This activity was undertaken despite the pupils not being bilingual and it was reported that the teacher considered the children to have reacted positively towards it. The teacher then described the parents' reaction: "some parents approached the head collectively asking whether their children would be learning 'that language' and if they were could they be

withdrawn from it!" (Conteh, 2007). Conteh also reports the teacher's observation that the parents had no objections to their children learning French or Spanish. Again, this is one example, from one context, yet, if similar attitudes were to be held on a wider scale, this may have significant consequences for the potential implementation of multilingual activities using languages other than those that are traditionally learnt at school (Tinsley & Board, 2017). However, wider than this, accounts such as this also suggest strong language ideologies may be held by parents, or more simply, members of society, which dictate perceptions of which languages are 'good' to learn. This hierarchy may be based on a number of beliefs that are not clear from this one example. Yet, such attitudes arguably have wider societal implications beyond this project and a discussion of home language pedagogies.

2.4.5 The perceived value of languages: an influence on educational language choice?

As demonstrated by the anecdote discussed above from Conteh's (2007) research, a belief in which languages are "valuable" to learn, or to maintain, is another aspect of attitudes towards home languages which may factor in decisions regarding whether to incorporate them within mainstream education. Similarly, the 'value' of English is also central to this discussion. As previously explored, this may affect parents' (of children who use EAL) views towards schools using home languages. Indeed, the importance of English skills and the value society places upon them are likely to make this a concern of all parents, as well as teachers.

For example, Mehmedbegovic's interviewees were unanimous in their agreement that English has great value as a universal language of business and that it is also more valuable in helping to secure employment (Mehmedbegovic, 2011). However, any cognitive advantages, or the value of bilingualism were, on the whole, unexplored by the head teachers Mehmedbegovic (2008) interviewed. From a socio-cultural perspective, language was seen as a useful resource that allows families, friends and communities to come together as well as being important for maintaining a child's identity (Mehmedbegovic, 2008). In regards to the value of first languages in aiding second language development (in this case, English), the head teachers stated they were not aware of any benefits. Instead, the converse was explored by the interviewees.

As large amounts of Mehmedbegovic's data relate to Welsh-English bilinguals as well as 'non-indigenous' home languages such as Bengali, different attitudes towards the

different 'types' of home languages could be gauged. The value attached to different languages in relation to whether they are indigenous to Britain compared to those which are not, is a unique and interesting conclusion Mehmedbegovic (2011) draws. Valuing 'indigenous' languages, Mehmedbegovic (2011) argues, has become an issue of political correctness and being seen to support such languages now even has political advantages. According to Mehmedbegovic's (2011) data, Parliament openly recognises their importance and acknowledges and respects their continued place within education and wider society. However, this enthusiasm, Mehmedbegovic (2011) argues, does not extend to 'non-indigenous' languages. Through this distinction between indigenous and non-indigenous home languages, Mehmedbegovic (2011) demonstrates that gaining insight into people's opinions regarding "home languages" poses certain challenges through the level of subjectivity involved in terms of what constitutes as a "home language". This subjectivity, in turn, may conflate otherwise differing perspectives.

Home languages may therefore resonate differently with different people depending on their experiences for example, Welsh-English bilinguals would associate "home languages" with the maintenance of Welsh, a language spoken in the country they may still live in. Such languages (e.g. Cornish, Gaelic), may elicit very different connotations, with links to tradition and local history. However, 'non-indigenous' languages are more likely to be associated with immigration and a "home" outside of the UK. This difference is exemplified further by Mehmedbegovic's (2011) data as on the whole, more emotional and positive attitudes towards the maintenance of Welsh were observed. However, more bilingual English-Welsh speakers were interviewed than any other bilingual speakers. This importance of 'closeness' to the home language in question is further exemplified by one politician in Mehmedbegovic's (2011) data who references 'our culture', suggesting that the languages that are important to 'Britishness' are only those which are 'indigenous' to Britain. Attitudes towards 'indigenous' languages may also therefore be linked to a sense of ownership, or shared culture.

2.4.5.a *The economic value of languages*

The importance of economic factors, including socio-economic class, are not explicitly separated within Mehmedbegovic's (2011) other conclusions, but arguably feature strongly within them. For example, it is suggested that only languages with perceivable economic value will be encouraged to develop within and outside of school. Similarly,

Mehmedbegovic (2011) uses the example of a French community, within the affluent South Kensington area, as a community which demonstrates strong conviction in keeping their language and culture alive. This thereby demonstrates the importance of having the physical and financial resources available to maintain your language and demonstrate the importance of doing so. Therefore, despite one politician interviewed considering language maintenance as a choice, Mehmedbegovic (2011) states that instead, it is tightly bound with perceptions of dominant and legitimate types of cultural capital in society.

Mehmedbegovic's (2008, 2011) research thus demonstrates the many different factors that may contribute to forming teachers', parents' and ultimately society's view on which language should be learnt and within this, which languages should be maintained. Ultimately, without a shared perceived need to maintain a language, for whatever reason, there is likely to be less conviction in any calls for this language to be used and maintained.

2.4.6 National language ideologies

Attitudes towards languages may be held on an individual level and shaped by personal experiences, yet there may also be wider societal, influences on a person's beliefs about language. More specifically, dictated by a person's home country. Indeed, countries and the demarcation of land play a significant role in language use and maintenance more widely. Generally speaking, we associate a place with a language and may be able to easily recall the language spoken in a given place. Language legislation links a language to a particular territory and this territorial principle is central in shaping thinking about languages (Piller, 2016). Thus, languages protected by legislation are inextricably linked with the national identity and heritage of a place whilst languages other than these are delegitimised.

This territorial principle has overarching and interrelated implications for this project. Firstly, in terms of the prioritisation of English as the official language of England (as discussed in the next section, 2.4.7). Secondly, if the potential for the delegitimation of other languages due to the position of English is considered (and the effect of this process within the education system which is also discussed in 2.4.7). The implications of these two interrelated phenomenon and their affect on language *attitudes* is arguably likely to be of paramount importance to this project. For this reason, they will be discussed in more detail later within this chapter.

While the linguistic landscape of other European countries is not directly comparable to the UK due to the position of English as a global language, similarities can, however, be drawn with certain countries due to the high status of the national language combined with a growing number of bilingual and plurilingual language users. Research from Germany and France, for example, where monolingualism is seen as being central to the concept of a nation state (Duarte, 2011; Young, 2017) can thus elucidate how such language ideologies may also operate with a UK context where a similar nation state identity can be observed (Marcussen, Risse, Engelmann-Martin, Knopf, & Roscher, 1999).

The link between national language and educational policy within a German context is highlighted by Duarte (2011), where, it is claimed, it is single projects organised at state-level, rather than a top-down political change which are attempting to establish more plurilingual school practices. Duarte (2011) reports findings from a dual-language program in Hamburg, where, it is concluded that by officially recognising the languages of the immigrant students in schools, the status of the families was also increased. Another advantage of this approach was that collaborative learning could take place using one student's strong proficiency to support another student. While this project required a substantial commitment or change to the educational norm in this area, something which may not be replicable in other areas without the required resources, what it arguably does show is that developing bilingual pupils' academic proficiency through the use of their home language, it is not only their academic performance which may benefit. Namely, as Duarte (2011) concludes, this academic proficiency translates into institutionalised acceptance of the language and status for that language and its speakers.

Young's (2014, 2017) research in a French context is also led by the absence of top-down policy and unlike the previously discussed research, a lack of institutional support for home language use. Young examines the language ideologies held by head teachers which subsequently guide classroom practice. Within Young's (2014) sample of 46 head teachers, 12/46 indicated that they recognised pupils' home languages and considered these to be of value to the school. She found their ideologies to be based on a number of different beliefs about language and language learning (e.g. home languages impede the acquisition of French) as well as a pressure for French proficiency to be acquired (Young, 2017). While the history of the French language, as discussed in relation to language policies in France in Young (2017), is of course, different to that of the UK, the significance of France's linguistic

past in determining its present language ideologies, and particularly those of teachers, is highlighted very clearly in Young's (2014, 2017) work.

The importance of national social and political context is highlighted within both studies. Young (2014, p.161) describes this issue in a French context where the republican values of *liberté, égalité* and *fraternité* and equality in particular, is "equated with uniformity and equal opportunities amalgamated with identical treatment". Indeed, one of the head teachers interviewed (by a student teacher) in the study, compared speaking languages other than French in the classroom to anarchy. Duarte (2011) argues that this stems across Europe with the concept of uniformity in language informing school systems across the continent. Therefore, while the individual (i.e. the teacher) is central to a discussion of why home languages may or may not be used in primary classrooms, their views arguably cannot be considered in isolation from the social and political context of past and present.

Thus, as highlighted by Martin-Jones (2009) and Young (2014), while *what* teachers do and *how* they do it is important, the *why* is arguably of more importance as it is this which guides practice. The studies in this section highlight how this may operate on a national ideological level. This will be discussed in reference to English in England within the next section.

2.4.7 The dominance of English and its effect on attitudes towards home language use

Like many other of the issues discussed within this chapter, paradoxically, the dominance of English with British schools and society can be seen as both a reason why there may be resistance towards the use of home languages, as well as a compelling rationale for their inclusion in classrooms. Both sides of this paradox will be explored within the following sections.

2.4.7.a *English as a dominant and global language*

The English language, as the official language of the UK, is thus the most dominant language of the country as a whole. The latest language data available is from the 2011 Census (Census, 2011) which reports that 92.3 per cent of people (49.8 million) (aged 3+) in England and Wales reported English as their main language (English or Welsh in Wales). On the surface, England, thus appears a very monolingual country. Of course, when certain areas are examined in more detail, the extent of this monolingualism can be questioned. For

example, for London, this figure becomes 78% (of people who have English as their main language). High proficiency in a second language (i.e. bilinguals) are also not accounted for within this data. It is perhaps conceivable that teachers, particularly in highly monolingual areas, are unaware of the extent of the country's multilingualism, or if aware of such data, may take the figures at face value. Regardless of whether they think the country and its schools *should* be monolingual, they may believe they inherently *are* monolingual.

The British Social Attitudes Survey (National Centre for Social Research, 2017) data suggests that speaking English is now more widely prioritised than in data from previous years. The latest survey found a significant proportion (87%) of British people to perceive speaking English as an important requisite of being granted permission to reside in the UK. This figure was 77% in the 2002 survey. The question was regarding migrant *selection* criteria. Therefore, it can perhaps be assumed that once migration has taken place, knowledge of English may be considered an even higher priority. Of course, such knowledge of English may not impact on home language use by an individual. Yet, if it is considered such an integral part of acceptance to British society, this suggests that such importance is also likely to be placed on English within schools. Teachers may thus not see a need to incorporate any other languages as these children are entering into what they (and others) may perceive to be a monolingual English-speaking country. It is thus not *with* teachers that such views originate, instead, the root of such language ideologies can be perhaps traced to wider societal perceptions of the role of English. Teachers' perceptions about the importance of English and subsequently, home languages, are likely to be influenced by wider society and thus, shared by other members of society. Thus, any attempt to raise the status of languages other than English in schools must consider the effect of both the perceptions of society more widely and how these may influence teachers' own views as well as their willingness and ability to make changes to their practice. Additionally, the dominance of English is thus not solely an educational issue. While education may be one way in which it is reinforced (as explored in the next section), language ideologies can originate and develop beyond the classroom. The dominance of English thus represents a significant and complex language ideology that is likely to interweave with many others implicated within this project.

Furthermore, it is arguably not only the position of English within *English* society that is relevant to the discussion, but also the position of English *globally* as again, teachers' views cannot be considered in isolation from such contextual, societal issues. To illustrate

this, the global language system has been described as being pyramid-shaped, in which, most languages can be seen at the bottom of this shape (around 98% of the 5,000 to 6,000 languages in the world) and at the top, English (de Swaan, 2001). This position of English has many potential implications, as elucidated in Crystal (2003), including: speakers of that language using its position to their advantage and thus inflicting disadvantage on those who do not; causing a lack of motivation as well as opportunity for language learning amongst English speakers; the hastening of the disappearance of minority languages and ultimately, the prioritisation of this language above all others, thus leading them to be considered necessary. All of these can be seen as being imperative within a discussion of the potential implementation of home language pedagogies in schools. Ignoring the role of education within this, as this will be discussed within later sections, purely from a societal, linguistic point of view, the dominance of English can be seen as a significant barrier to the prioritisation of any other languages at home or at school. Its position thus can be seen as an umbrella theme to many other themes within this chapter. For example, teachers' linguistic competence (discussed in section 2.3.5), or lack of, may be attributable to language learning inertia caused by the position of English. The lack of policy regarding home languages may also be ultimately attributable to the prioritisation of English and the perceived lack of need to prioritise home language maintenance.

2.4.7.b *The role of the National Curriculum*

The National Curriculum and the 'official knowledge' it dictates (Conteh, 2012) is one way in which the dominance of English is asserted within the education system. Both Bourne (2001) and Conteh (2012) argue that, as a result of the national curriculum, the inclusion of home languages within the classroom can be seen in two ways: as a hindrance to the lesson aims, or as something which is separate from the formal learning process.

This is not solely an issue of what is stipulated as being as important to learn within the curriculum document itself. It has also been argued that long-standing patterns of learning, what constitutes as knowledge and thus, which knowledge should be valued, has also been established within the history of this document (Conteh, 2012). As the National Curriculum is a long-established model of 'official knowledge', the ways in which this knowledge has been taught are also, to a certain extent, long-established. Explicitly, patterns of learning of teaching such as the teacher "providing", or teaching, the knowledge. And crucially, if home language use is to be encouraged, this may not always be feasible

(excluding bilingual teachers). As Bourne (2001) states: if the use of languages is to be re-considered, the role of the teacher and the way we perceive the learning process must also be re-considered. This is arguably demonstrated within Mehmedbegovic's (2008, 2011) interview data, where teachers' fear of losing control over their classroom was a prominent theme. The extent to which teachers would be comfortable with this loss of control by, for example, allowing pupils to have conversations in their shared home languages, or to teach the class vocabulary from their home language, is yet to be empirically considered by researchers in this field.

Linked to the National Curriculum and teachers' role is also the issue of progression *in English*. Teachers' motivation to aid this progression, as well as the pressure to do so, arguably created by the National Curriculum, may also prevent home languages from being considered in a more formal capacity in schools. Teachers' focus on this is demonstrated in Flynn's (2013) interview data, where teachers at times referred to their pupils' fluency in English as their identifying feature, as opposed to any other defining characteristics. The importance of progression in English is also given as a reason for avoiding the use of other languages in Conteh's (2007) research where anecdotal evidence is given by a bilingual teacher who only uses her shared home language with the children in order to help them transition into using English.

While any relationship between the pressures of the national curriculum as well as its shaping of perceptions of teaching and learning and the potential use of home languages has not been explicitly researched, its presence within several of the studies relating to home language use arguably highlights its centrality to the consideration of such pedagogy. Its role in cementing the dominance of English within schools is also evident within the further discussion of the English language in the subsequent sections.

2.4.7.c ***Perceptions of Standard English and 'correctness' in language and education: A rationale for and against home language use?***

It has been argued that through the establishment of standardised targets and curricula, education can perpetuate the notion of 'correctness' in language (Mugglestone, 2007) and legitimise certain forms of knowledge (Corson, 1993). Moreover, due to the centrality of formal education to the learning process, and indeed, the language learning process, its influence on language and widely accepted notions of "correct" language are likely to be preserved (Corson, 1993). Such notions, may prevent teachers and schools from

recognising and indeed, allowing, forms of languages which deviate from this norm. This recognition (or lack of) may not only affect perceptions of non-standard language, but also, potentially those who use it. This potential is of particular relevance to this discussion as such speakers may be members of immigrant communities, who use non-standard forms taken from their first language. An example of this being the “multicultural English” described in Cheshire, Kerswill, Fox, & Torgersen (2011).

Mugglestone (2007) argues that a repression of non-standard forms inside classrooms specifically, can lead speakers to devalue their own speech forms. Thus, speakers of languages other than English may value English over their home language as a result of the language policy in the classrooms (i.e. English only). Firstly, this may affect their attitudes towards their home language and this element of their identity. Secondly, it also makes any conclusions about pupils’ own preferences regarding their language use difficult to draw as these cannot be assessed in isolation from dominant language ideologies. As Corson (1993) argues, through the promotion of certain forms of language over others, conformity to these norms is rewarded. Thus, deviation from these forms is not.

Perceptions of correctness may therefore impact children’s attitudes towards their own and others’ language use. Similarly, they may be an ideological obstacle to teachers’ and schools’ willingness to implement home language pedagogies.

2.4.7.d ***Nonstandard “foreign-accent” discrimination: A rationale for and against home language use?***

Deviations from what may be considered normal or correct speech, as well as relating to grammatical features of the language, may also concern the ‘foreign’ element that may be perceived in pupils with EALs’ speech. This can be seen as a paradox whereby non-standard “foreign accent” discrimination is arguably both a rationale for the inclusion of linguistic diversity education as well as a reason why it may not be considered by teachers and schools.

Perhaps sometimes overlooked compared with other forms, discrimination or prejudgement, may be based on a person’s ethnicity, but it may also specifically relate to native languages and accents (Fuentes, Gottdiener, Martin, Gilbert, & Giles, 2012). Such prejudice, as well as beliefs relating to the importance of one language over another, has

been termed 'linguicism' (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988). This is a form of discrimination which, it has been argued, is as clear as racism, sexism, or classism (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2015).

In accent judgement or perception tests, speakers who have nonstandard features are often rated as being less intelligent, competent, attractive and as having lower social status than those who use standard features (e.g. Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010). Whilst the immorality of judging someone based on their appearance, race or gender for example, is arguably widely accepted, the same is not necessarily true for accent-based prejudice (Hansen, Rakic, & Steffens, 2013). Therefore, awareness of such judgements is likely to also be lower. The effect of these judgements being held within a classroom and potentially perpetuated within classrooms is thus both a potential obstacle to the endorsement of home languages in classrooms, as well a strong rationale for their inclusion.

Hansen et al., (2013) also demonstrate potential benefits to exploring foreign accent judgements within educational settings. In their experiment designed to reduce levels of nonstandard (foreign) accent bias, they found that the (German) participants in the experimental condition, who had spoken in a foreign language (English) before they rated job candidates with a Turkish accent (in German), were less discriminatory than those who had not communicated in a foreign language before rating the same candidates. This suggests that bias against nonstandard-accented speakers may be reduced by the evaluators gaining experience of what it is like to be the one with the foreign accent. If we consider the role of education in perpetuating notions of the standard, then Hansen et al.'s (2013) findings have great significance for language learning within classrooms. If encouraging children to be the ones who have a foreign accent reduces their bias towards others' "foreign" accents, this could again provide strong rationale for incorporating language learning within schools' curricula.

2.4.8 Beyond *linguistic* disadvantage, examining the role of socio-economic status in pedagogical decisions

Within this section, the exploration of the relationship between education and language will be extended to discuss the role of socio-economic status (henceforth, SES).

Firstly, it is important to consider the *many* differences that may exist within immigrant communities, not just language. Educationally speaking, while the underachievement of ethnic minorities has received attention from researchers and

government bodies (e.g. Connor, Tyres, Modood, & Hillage, 2004) both Modood (2006) and Block (2012) argue that SES should not be regarded as a secondary factor to students' bilingualism or ethnicity in accounting for this potential underachievement. Therefore, grouping pupils by ethnicity or language alone can fail to capture an accurate picture of educational phenomena.

However, the influence of SES is not straightforward, as Modood (2006) argues, SES does not operate in the same way for ethnic minority families as it does for students from White backgrounds. He uses the example of Pakistani and Bangladeshi families, where two-thirds of these students come from homes where the parents are in manual work or are unemployed. However, students from these backgrounds are achieving higher than their White counterparts, despite being amongst the lower achieving ethnic minority students. Such achievement can, for example, be attributable to the large scale investment in education motivated by a desire to achieve social mobility through higher education (Modood, 2006).

Archer and Francis (2005) have researched the position of British-Chinese pupils within the class system in Britain through their educational achievement which is usually regarded as 'high'. They found that working- and middle-class parents of Chinese-British pupils would provide their children with physical help in the form of additional classes but also additional motivation to succeed. Archer and Francis (2006) also stress that despite their desire to succeed, families were affected by injustices that existed as a result of class and 'race' and therefore conclude that having that financial means to improve your child's education does not necessarily elevate the status of this ethnic group and their language.

Therefore, arguably, existing theories of social class are not necessarily applicable to EAL (ethnic minority and/or bilingual) children and their families, and traditional patterns of British social class may not be suitable as a means of analysing the lives and experiences of such children. Yet, as argued by Modood (2006) and Block (2013), the socio-economic status of pupils who use EAL, and its influence on their educational experiences, cannot be overlooked. Mehmedbegovic (2011) provides the example of South Kensington (and the French-speaking community there) to illustrate how high socio-economic status can increase the status of a language within a particular area and lead to its preserved use within a community. Therefore, issues of socio-economic status not only indicate how children with EAL may be disadvantaged in the education system, as concluded by Archer and Francis

(2006); or how a desire to achieve social mobility may give them an advantage; they also show how the 'status' of a community can also give 'status' to a language and culture, and perhaps vice versa. The effect of the presence, or absence, of this motivation, or pressure, to maintain a language and how this may vary in different areas has yet to be analysed alongside the issue of home language implementation in schools. And within this, whether issues of the socio-economic status of languages, communities and ultimately, families, affect teachers' willingness, specifically, to adapt their lessons due to the presence of a child speaking that language.

In sum, it can be argued that pupils who use EAL may be disadvantaged within the education system due to their linguistic and cultural 'differences' and more specifically, by educational policy not recognising these differences as legitimate forms of knowledge (Corson, 1998). This social justice rationale for using home languages is arguably the primary motivation for most of the studies in this area to date. However, the extent to which teachers are aware of such issues and would consider such disadvantage in their practice is yet to be established in formal research. Moreover, within each focus of these sections, a paradox can be seen in that each issue raised may be seen as both a reason why home language pedagogies may benefit children with EAL (as well as monolingual children) but also, a deep-rooted ideology which may prevent such pedagogies from being considered.

2.5 Summary and research issues

There is no coherent policy, nor government rhetoric regarding the use of home languages in primary classrooms. For this reason, it is currently at individual schools' discretion as to what extent they recognise and use home languages. This level of individual choice, of schools and ultimately, teachers is likely to lead to extremely variable practice, as argued by Mehmedbegovic (2008, 2011). Further adding to this variability is the fact that each child's bilingual experience is likely to be very different depending on many factors including their L1 school experience, their language proficiency in both their languages and both their own and their family's desire to maintain their home language, to name a few. The different children teachers encounter are therefore likely to have different needs and wants regarding their home language which may, in turn, influence teachers' decisions about how and whether to incorporate their home languages into the classroom. Community or parental pressure may also factor in these decisions. Similarly, differences in teachers' knowledge, skills, experiences and attitudes (towards EAL pupils, language learning and diversity issues), arguably related to one another, may also influence their

pedagogical choices. However, research in this area is yet to fully acknowledge the influence of such teacher characteristics on their current, or potential practice regarding home languages.

A small number of studies have trialled home language pedagogies and reported beneficial effects from doing so, including improved integration, helping the EAL pupils to connect with their heritage as well as legitimising home languages (e.g. Kenner et al., 2008, McGilp, 2014). However, the extent to which these activities could be replicated on a wide scale is also yet to be established. This is particularly true given that these were undertaken in highly multilingual areas, often with one dominant home language and with access to bilingual teachers and teaching assistants. If such activities were to be undertaken in a broader range of contexts, a number of questions arise: Would teachers have sufficient resources and skills? Would they therefore feel confident to undertake them? How would these activities work within differing educational and social contexts? And how do these contextual issues affect teachers' willingness to undertake such activities? Yet, as research is yet to analyse this issue on a wider scale, these questions remain unanswered.

As well as contextual factors, wider social issues (see section 2.4) may also influence teachers' views on their practice, issues such as: the perceived worth of home languages, the dominance of Standard English (reasserted by the National Curriculum and subsequent teacher targets) as well as teachers' attitudes towards pupils with EAL, immigration, multilingualism and multiculturalism as broader concepts. Arguably, as existing research has tended to approach the potential implementation of home language pedagogies from a position of advocacy, it has overlooked how such issues may influence this process. Similarly, it has failed to consider the challenges to this implementation and the potential resistance towards such pedagogies stemming from these issues. This resistance may be from teachers themselves, or may be related to the school as a whole, the community, or even pupils' parents. If the wide scale implementation of home language pedagogies is to be fully considered, attention must arguably be paid to the potential obstacles, as well as the benefits.

Not only this, again, due to the narrow contextual focus of the current body of research, a reliable picture of the wide scale realities of home language pedagogies has arguably not been achieved. Research is yet to consider how different activities, with different focuses, addressing at different skills, are perceived by teachers. Crucially, the

extent to which the incorporation of such activities would be considered feasible within a predominantly monolingual classroom is also yet to be considered. The need to further explore a wider view of teachers' pedagogical decisions regarding home languages is therefore the main rationale for this study. If the feasibility of such pedagogies is to be accurately assessed, attention must be paid to what is forming teachers' views and subsequently their classroom practice.

2.6 Research Questions

RQ1) How willing and confident are teachers to implement multilingual/home language pedagogies?

RQ2) What factors influence teachers' willingness and confidence and how?

RQ3) Does providing trainee teachers with input on reflecting linguistic and cultural diversity in primary classrooms:

RQ3a) Change their views on using multilingual/home language pedagogies?

RQ3b) Improve their knowledge of the reasons why teachers may or may not use home languages in the classroom?

RQ3c) Improve their understanding of the ways in which linguistic and cultural diversity can be reflected in primary classrooms?

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Chapter and phase outline

This chapter outlines the methodology that was employed for each stage of the research as well as the research aims and questions which guided each stage. The data collection and analysis procedures, as well as the limitations and ethical considerations for each stage of the research are also discussed. At the end of this chapter, the pilot phases are discussed, including the changes made to the final data collection procedure and resulting analyses.

The study was divided into three separate phases, these are discussed separately within this chapter and were as follows:

Phase One:

Instrument/Method: Electronic questionnaires

Participants: Practising primary school teachers

Aim: The questionnaire primarily aimed to provide a general overview of teachers' hypothetical classroom practice regarding home languages. Its main focus was asking teachers to report their willingness and confidence to undertake suggested classroom activities. Contextual information was also collected in order to analyse which factors may affect these reported willingness and confidence scores.

Research Question(s):

RQ1) How willing and confident are teachers to implement multilingual/home language learning pedagogies?

RQ2) What factors may influence teachers' willingness and confidence and how?

See section 3.4

Phase Two:

Instrument/Method: Pre- and post-questionnaires (collected before and after a training workshop or a period of six weeks with no workshop)

Participants: Trainee teachers (a 'workshop group' and a control group) at two initial teacher training institutions

Aim: This second phase aimed to ascertain whether changes in knowledge and/or attitudes could be seen after trainee teachers had been given training regarding how and why home language may be used in primary classrooms.

Research Question(s):

RQ3) Does providing trainee teachers with input on reflecting linguistic and cultural diversity in primary classrooms:

- RQ3a) Change their views on using multilingual/home language pedagogies?
- RQ3b) Improve their knowledge of the reasons why teachers may or may not use home languages in the classroom?
- RQ3c) Improve their understanding of the ways in which linguistic and cultural diversity can be reflected in primary classrooms?

See section 3.5

Phase Three:

Instrument/Method: Focus groups conducted using prompts (these were quotes from practitioners and researchers). Training workshops were also provided after the focus group data collection.

Participants: Practising primary teachers

Aim: This phase aimed to provide insight into attitudes which may affect teachers' willingness and confidence to implement home language pedagogies that would be difficult to access through a questionnaire. It was also designed to allow teachers more freedom to discuss their thoughts on home language pedagogies more generally.

Research Question(s):

RQ2) What factors may influence teachers' willingness and confidence and how?

See section 3.6

The three phases are discussed in more detail in their respective sections below (3.4 to 3.6).

Each section will follow this structure:

- participants
- how the data were collected
- instrument design and rationale
- coding of the data

- data analysis methods
- reliability and validity
- limitations
- ethical considerations

3.2 The use of a mixed method approach

This study used a multiple mixed-methods approach, much like the analysis of teacher’s knowledge in Meijer, Verloop and Beijaard (2002) where multi-method triangulation was used in order to increase the internal validity of the study. In the present study, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected within individual instruments (the teacher and trainee questionnaires) as well as across the different stages (Gorard & Taylor, 2006). This design was planned in order to provide separate and focused insight into given phenomena that may be involved in forming teachers’ attitudes towards home language pedagogies. For example, the questionnaire focused on more measurable, “concrete” factors, such as qualifications and experiences (e.g. no. of schools), and the focus groups aimed to elicit data regarding attitudes and ideologies which are perhaps more difficult to explicitly ask teachers about. The two teacher phases thus aimed to answer the research questions about teachers’ attitudes or preparedness to implement such pedagogies and the trainee phase then looked to address some of the issues raised within the teacher phases (e.g. teacher know-how). This use of methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1970) therefore allowed for the data observed in each stage to inform the subsequent stage(s). Additionally, by examining separate yet overlapping issues through each stage, it is intended that there will be increased confidence in the validity of the results if the same interpretations can be drawn from each stage or instrument (L. Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011).

As well as the intention that each phase would have a unique contribution to answering the research questions in terms of their focus (e.g. tangible versus ideological factors), each of these foci also involved different *types* of data being collected. In section 2.2.3, the gaps in our understanding left by the current body of research were discussed. One of these gaps was the nature of the data that had been collected; explicitly, that the majority of studies drew from qualitative data exclusively. The inclusion of quantitative data collection techniques in this study therefore aimed to fill this gap by providing a

broader contextual picture of the potential for home language pedagogies to be used in schools. However, as discussed in section 2.2., the importance of local context is highlighted by the existing studies in this area, thus it was considered important to retain a qualitative aspect to the research which allowed for more detailed insight into individual schools' and teachers' perceptions. The use of a mixed-methods design was therefore also employed in order to cater to the *nature* of the research topic as well as extending our current understanding of it.

3.3 Reliability and validity

As discussed above, the use of three data collection phases was intended to increase the validity of the study as a whole. By collecting, analysing and interpreting both qualitative and quantitative data, it is intended that there can be more confidence in the conclusions drawn from both. Additionally, throughout, data collection, analysis and reporting procedures are explained in detail in an effort to ensure the study is reported with clarity, provide the opportunity for the research to be replicated and ultimately, increase reliability. Other measures to ensure reliability and validity within the research that are specific to each methodological phase are outlined within the section for each phase below (3.4.6, 3.5.8 and 3.6.6).

3.4 Phase One - Teachers' Questionnaire

This section outlines and discusses the first phase of the project to be undertaken: the teachers' questionnaire. Screenshots of each page of the teachers' questionnaire can be found in Appendix 3.

3.4.1 Participants

A total of 392 schools were contacted to take part in the research. Due to mid-questionnaire attrition, between 165 and 185 teachers completed some or all of the questions in the questionnaire. For example, for the suggested activity questions, $N = 165$. It is difficult to calculate the response rate as the exact number of teachers in the research area is unknown. However, there are 71,106 pupils in the research area (DfE, 2016) and the average class size nationally is 27 pupils (DfE, 2016) (which would mean there are approximately 2,643 teachers). Therefore, it can be estimated that there was a 6.3% response rate. This is unlikely to be exact, however, as classes often operate in different ways: some teachers may be supply teachers, they may share classes and some classes may

be without a permanent teacher. In terms of the breadth of the participating schools, teachers from 108 different schools replied, which is 27.8% of the schools in the research area.

3.4.2 Data Collection

Every primary school (392) within the research area was sent a pre-notice information letter for head teachers (including a poster for staffrooms) and an email invitation for teachers to participate in the online survey. School email addresses were accessed through council websites and individual school websites. Reminder emails were also sent to schools at four points over the term. As the only email addresses accessible were the schools' main (administration) email addresses, this is likely to have reduced the probability of the participatory emails reaching the teachers. The potential implications of such "gatekeeper" issues are discussed later within this section. In an attempt to minimise such issues, phone calls to school administrators were made to ensure they had received the email and requesting whether they could forward it to teachers were made. Additionally, due to email restrictions and spam filter issues, emails were sent individually to schools. A website with a link to the survey was also created and posted on social media outlets.

As individual teachers chose to participate, issues related to self-selection bias may have occurred (see section 3.4.7). In an attempt to mitigate this bias, the description of the project in the email invitation was kept brief and statements of encouragement (e.g. "even if you feel you have nothing to say on these issues, your thoughts are still really valuable to the project") were included. As Groves, Cialdini and Couper (1992) argue that social responsibility is one of the main contributing factors which affects participation, emphasis was also placed on the local nature of the research project and its importance in terms of the curriculum and other local issues (as described in section 1.7) (e.g. "The survey is of particular relevance given the recent changes to the primary curriculum regarding languages and the increasing importance of reflecting diversity for schools in our area").

3.4.3 The questionnaire: design and rationale

Design considerations stemming from the use of an *online* questionnaire will first be discussed in this section followed by those relating to more specific questionnaire design features (e.g. drop-down lists). Finally, a discussion of the questionnaire content, including an explanation of the use of 'willingness' and 'confidence' will be provided.

3.4.3.a *The use of an online questionnaire*

An online questionnaire was designed to maximise sample size and therefore the contextual and geographical breadth of the sample. Use of a web survey meant faster data collection could be achieved without the need for the researcher to oversee the questionnaire completion (Tourangeau, Couper, & Conrad, 2004). The link to the questionnaire could be posted on different websites and social media as well as emailed to participants, therefore increasing its visibility and access to participants (Sue & Ritter, 2007). This also meant the questionnaire was more convenient for the respondents as they could complete it in their own time and on their preferred device. Anonymity was also much easier to preserve as no personal information is required to distribute the questionnaire, unlike with email or postal questionnaires (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). This is also arguably likely to reduce potential social desirability bias as shown in Joinson's (1999) comparison of internet versus pen-and-paper surveys.

However, there are disadvantages to conducting an online questionnaire, particularly via email, with a specific intended population. Firstly, accessing the intended participants. As only schools' administrative email addresses could be accessed, the administrators acted as "gatekeepers" which reduced the likelihood of questionnaire invites reaching the teachers. Aside from this, other technical limitations such as email spam filters may have prevented some teachers from receiving the emails. Also, respondents may still choose not to complete the questionnaire and may also abandon the questionnaire mid-completion. For this reason, the questionnaire was designed to minimise completion time and questions deemed less necessary were removed after the pilot (see section 3.7.1). Respondents were also told an estimated completion time in the initial email invite on the basis of Ganassali's (2008) finding that a participant's decision to quit a survey is influenced by its perceived length.

3.4.3.b *Question design and completion time*

One of the other advantages to using a web questionnaire is the wide range of question types available (Sue & Ritter, 2007). The design of each question aimed to reduce completion time and helped to ensure the intended data were collected, thereby improving the reliability of the questionnaire. For example, a "force response" option was used to alert participants if they had forgotten a question. Additionally, the software ensured that for

“choose all that apply” questions, multiple choices could be made, whereas for “please select one” questions, only one answer could be chosen.

Other design features intended to minimise completion time included using radio buttons, thereby reducing the number of clicks (or use of the keyboard) a respondent has to make. These also restrict the number of out of range (unintended) responses that may have been given if an open question had been used (Couper, Traugott, & Lamias, 2001). Matrix-questions were also used for quicker completion. However, these were kept to a minimum to avoid participants repeating their answers without reading each question. Matrix-questions and related questions were predominantly kept on the same page in order to minimise completion time, as shown in Couper et al. (2001). Yet, for the final questions, each “suggested activity” (see below) was presented on a new page in order to encourage the teachers to consider each suggested activity separately thereby minimising the likelihood of their previous answer affecting their next. Couper et al. (2001) for example, found a moderately higher correlation between attitudinal items that had appeared on the same screen of an online questionnaire.

For the scale data used for these questions, and other attitudinal data collected, six numerical and statement anchors were used in order to maximise accuracy as research has shown that respondents attend to scale points, or indeed any other visual clue to help interpret a scale (Tourangeau, Couper, & Conrad, 2007). However, no middle point visual anchor was given to discourage mid-point clustering, although participants were still able to choose the mid-point answer (i.e. 50) if they wished.

Sliders, where respondents chose a number between 1 and 100 were chosen in an effort to capture a more accurate range of responses (i.e. teachers could choose “27” or “81” if they felt this better represented their willingness than “3” or “8”) as well as so the data could be analysed as continuous attitudinal data. However, it is important to acknowledge that despite the data being analysed this way, a score out of 100 is not a standardised unit of measurement. One teacher’s 40 may not be another teacher’s interpretation of 40 and similarly, one teacher’s 80 may not be ‘double’ a question scored at 40. Using a scale did mean that respondents could define their own level of agreement anywhere between the provided anchor statements if they wished to (e.g. choosing ‘73’, between ‘moderately’ and ‘very’). The use of slider questions has also been noted for its more appealing and “fun” nature (Puleston, 2011). While there is arguably inconclusive

evidence regarding the use of sliders as opposed to traditional radio buttons (e.g. Roster, Lucianetti, & Albaum (2015) found no statistically significant differences between the use of the two response formats), the inclusion of sliders allowed for a much wider range of scores to be collected thereby permitting further differentiation between participants' answers.

Open-response boxes were provided for answers which may not be straightforward in order to prevent participants from selecting the nearest possible response and creating unreliable data. For example, some teachers may teach different year groups during the week, so an open text box for "Which year group do you teach?" was provided. However, where possible, closed questions were used in order to minimise completion time and provide more easily comparable data.

3.4.3.c ***The questionnaire content***

The questionnaire was designed to partially replicate the work of Bailey (2014) (as reported in Bailey and Marsden (2017)). The structure and the general content of the questionnaire was thus the same, but the individual items differed in an effort to make improvements to the data collected (discussed in the sections below). The questionnaire included questions on the following aspects:

The teachers' ...:

- teaching experience
- language learning experiences and qualifications
- current classroom demographics and practice regarding home languages
- Hypothetical practice regarding home languages (their self-reported willingness and confidence to implement suggested activities)

As the fourth section (hypothetical practice) provided the majority of the data from the questionnaire, this will be discussed first and in the most detail within this section.

Questionnaire section 4: Hypothetical practice regarding home languages

This section asked teachers how confident and how willing they would be to implement a suggested activity within their classroom. These questions had a similar to format to those reported in Bailey and Marsden (2017), though additions were made in

1) Asking the children to answer the register with "hello" in different languages

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

1) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

1) Please add any comments you wish to make

Figure 1 Screenshot from the online questionnaire

order to improve the accuracy of the data. For example, teachers were told to assume the activity is age appropriate and fits their current topic. The use of an electronic questionnaire as well as scales from 0-100 was another change made from the original questionnaire used in Bailey (2014). As Figure 1, a screenshot of one of these questions, shows, after the teachers had scored the activity using the sliders, they were then asked whether they had undertaken the activity before and whether they wished to add any further comments. The latter allowed for further rationale for the scores to be provided without obligating the teachers to fill in this section and thus increase the completion time.

The suggested activities were chosen to address different areas within home language education and language learning education more generally identified from the research discussed in Chapter 2. For example: celebrating diversity, listening skills, learning vocabulary and using a child with EAL as a resource. Each activity was coded with at least

one of the pre-defined areas to ensure each was addressed by the questions. The list of questions and their codes are available in Appendix 1. This ensured there was a balance between activities which took a short or long amount of time and those which required some teacher knowledge and those which required no teacher knowledge, for example.

The activities, as well as being chosen to cover a range of activity types, were also derived from the current body of research relating to home language pedagogies. The items were not the same as those reported in Bailey & Marsden (2017) as a more systematic approach to designing the items was employed, including the use of codes, as mentioned above. They were, however, designed to be comparable with the data collected by Bailey (2014) (and Bailey and Marsden (2017)) and this was used to inform the development of the items for the current project (as outlined below). The rationale for each suggested activity item was as follows:

1. Asking the children to answer the register with “hello” in different languages

This was chosen as it was reported to be an activity used by teachers in Bailey (2014) (and Bailey and Marsden, 2017). This suggested it may be an activity teachers were comfortable with undertaking. It also used a smaller amount of vocabulary as well as time out of the day and could therefore be used as a point of comparison with other more language and time-intensive activities.

2. Practising writing the children’s names in Punjabi script (using an online translation tool), writing from right to left as in Punjabi, and preparing a final version.

This was chosen as a *written* activity which would be suitable for a primary school class. The use of online tools was trialled in the “Thinking through Languages” project (Jones et al., 2005). From anecdotal experience, this activity appears to be used around the time of Chinese New Year in primary schools (using Chinese characters). The language was chosen to be more reflective of languages likely to be spoken in the area as well as contrasting with the European languages stipulated in other activities.

3. Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the children about the differences between people, their environments and their lives.

This activity was developed from a series of images shown on the Telegraph website (“Captured: Children’s playgrounds from around the world”, 2017). It was designed to be the only activity which involved cultural discussion, in contrast to the others.

4. Teaching topic vocabulary in French alongside English. E.g. “minibeasts” (a caterpillar = une chenille)

Some activities, including this one, were chosen to explicitly involve work from the curriculum so as to contrast with other activities which may be subject to teachers’ interpretations about whether they aligned with curriculum requirements. The use of French was used to contrast with the other languages stipulated in the questions as it is usually considered a valuable language with high status (Mehmedbegovic, 2011). Unlike item 15 below, written use of language was not stipulated in this activity.

5. Using classroom instructions an EAL child has taught you and the class in their home language.

This was intended to be a more systematic yet simplistic use of home languages. It included the use of a child with EAL as a translator so as to potentially elicit responses regarding the conflicting reports from the current body of research regarding children’s pride / reluctance to translate for the class (see section 2.4.4) as well as measure teachers’ attitudes towards implementing it.

6. Asking a Lithuanian-speaking member of the community to come in to school and teach the children some basic language.

Using an external member of the community was intended as another way to control for the teacher know-how problem within these items (i.e. to avoid low scores being given due to lack of linguistic knowledge). Creating community links and raising the status of parents and their languages have also been considered advantages to using parents within previous research (e.g. McGilp, 2014; Young and Helot, 2003). This item therefore was also intended to tap into perceptions of community involvement.

7. Splitting the class into pairs, giving each pair a conversation sequences in a different language and asking them to make a puppet/doll of the speakers and practise the dialogue together.

This was again intended to be in line with the simple activities described by teachers in Bailey (2014) (and Bailey and Marsden, 2017) as well as the type of activities trialled in Jones et al. (2005). It therefore again aims to assess the replicability of previously reported activities in other contexts.

- Using two poems with a similar theme. One poem is in English and the other, in the home language of an/the EAL child(ren). The EAL child(ren) translates the poem for the class and together you look at the cultural information in the poems and any other interesting differences.

This activity was undertaken in a project by Kenner et al. (2008). The successful use of translation in a language unknown to a teacher was also discussed by a teacher in Conteh (2007a). Including such activities which have been discussed in existing literature was intended to allow for a wider scale assessment of teachers' willingness to implement them.

- Singing a Spanish alphabet song using an online video to help (e.g. "a" "asno" "b" "bici" "c" "casa")

Simple songs and rhymes can be seen as typical primary school activities and such uses of languages were described by the teachers in Bailey (2014) and Bailey and Marsden (2017). Therefore, the extent to which this was true in a larger population of teachers could again be assessed. The use of online tools was also trialled in the "Thinking through Languages" project (Jones et al., 2005). It also reduces the knowledge required by the teacher which was a key factor in creating all of the activity suggestions.

- As part of the children's science work, asking an EAL child (or children) to help the other children label the parts of a flower in both English and the EAL child's home language.

This activity was intended to relate to work the children would already be undertaking. Such use of home languages has been trialled by Afitska (2015) in primary classrooms and therefore provides data regarding the replicability of such use. This item was also intended to be a more formal, written use of languages other than English.

- Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre. E.g. a newspaper, an advert, a novel.

This activity was another which was trialled in Jones et al. (2005). It also involves reading, a skill that is not covered often within the other activities. This activity was also intended to align with curriculum work - a factor which may affect teachers' willingness to implement it.

12. Asking EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their culture and tell the other children about them.

Data from the teachers reported in Bailey and Marsden (2017) and Bailey (2014) also informed this activity. One teacher described how this was done at Christmas time. Show and tell (or a variant of) is also a common activity at primary level and would be a familiar format to the teachers yet, perhaps “using” the child with EAL would be less familiar.

13. Using bilingual storybooks to teach the children about how words are ordered in different languages.

This was chosen as a similar activity was reported in Ludhra and Jones (2008) (using a poem) and Edwards et al. (2000). Gaining such linguistic knowledge may also be considered one of the potential advantages to using home languages in this way. Again, the inclusion of such activities allows for the replicability of previous studies within classrooms to be examined.

14. Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish

This question relates to more flexible language use, unlike the other questions. It describes what might be considered as translanguaging (although this can be teacher-initiated). Such use of languages is a growing body of research (see section 2.3.1.d), though is not the primary focus of this project. This question was therefore intended to represent the most flexible use of languages presented to the teachers.

15. Learning the words and actions to “Head, shoulders, knees and toes” in Polish from a Polish speaking child in the class and using a video to help.

This activity was created with largely the same rationale as no. 9 yet specifies a language common within the research area. It again explicitly states the use of resources rather than teacher knowledge. The use of well-known stories is also in line with suggestions on blogs (e.g. Morales, 2012) and similar to the activity (when words were selected to be translated from well-known stories) trialled in McGilp’s (2014) project in a nursery school.

Questionnaire sections 1,2 and 3: Contextual information about the teachers

The first two sections, relating to teachers' general teaching experience, as well as their language learning and teaching experience, were designed to a) provide contextual information about the participants and b) use this contextual information to analyse how such factors (e.g. years of teaching experience) are related to their willingness and confidence scores given in the fourth section.

The only exception to this was this the question about teachers' current practice. This asked teachers how often they would undertake certain classroom practices (e.g. "incorporate an EAL child's home language into classroom activities"). This was the only question about *current* rather than hypothetical classroom practice. Its inclusion was intended to gain an insight into teachers' actual practice regarding home languages as little research has documented this (with the exception of Tinsley & Board (2016)). It also meant that results regarding teachers' hypothetical practice could be interpreted with a picture of their current practice in mind and these two sets of data could be compared statistically.

The use of willingness and confidence

The terms willingness and confidence are central to this project. The participating teachers were not given a definition of these two terms. Their interpretation of each may therefore be subject to some variation, as discussed below in section 3.4.7. Any references to teachers' willingness / confidence within this project relate to teachers' *reported* willingness / confidence rather than a measure of either of these constructs.

3.4.4 The coding procedure

As the questionnaire data were collected on Qualtrics, version September to February 2016 (Qualtrics, 2017) much of the coding was pre-assigned by this software. For example, dichotomous data, such as "Please click all that apply ... I have never taught an EAL child" was coded by Qualtrics with a 0 for "no" and 1 for "yes" (or more specifically, "option not selected"/"selected").

The questionnaire data coded post-collection primarily involved teachers' responses as to whether they currently taught an EAL child which were coded on several levels. Teachers could either click "more than 5", "less than 5" if they did not know the exact number, or they could enter the exact number. A new variable was created for whether

teachers knew the exact number of their EAL pupils or not and coded accordingly. Whether the teachers taught more or less than 5 EAL pupils was also coded.

3.4.5 Data Analysis

As this was a mixed-method study both quantitative and qualitative data analyses were carried out. The analyses used are outlined separately below.

3.4.5.a Quantitative data

All analyses in this section were carried out using the statistical programme IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 23 (2015) (henceforth, SPSS). As part of the preliminary analyses, descriptive statistics were calculated for all questions (i.e. number of participants answering in different answer categories, mean, standard deviation). Where these are not reported in the results chapter, they are reported in Appendix 4 ('preliminary analyses').

Normality

Normality was assessed by visual inspection of the distribution of scores as well as the Shapiro Wilk test (Field, 2014). The majority of tests used (see below) for the preliminary analyses were non-parametric as much of the data were not normally distributed. Normality is discussed further in reference to each test throughout this section as well as the results chapters.

Outliers

Any outliers were checked in the raw data to ensure there had not been a data entry error. As the scores transferred directly from the survey software this was highly unlikely. Instances of no score being given reading as a "0" score were evident, however. These were subsequently removed from the analyses. Where outliers were detected but there was no issue with the data and the statistical test was sensitive to outliers, the analysis was undertaken with and without the outliers to see if there was a difference. No instances of this significantly changing a test outcome were found.

Significance, effect sizes and confidence intervals

Throughout, standardized effect sizes and confidence intervals (95%) have been reported alongside *p* values, as recommended by Plonsky and Larson-Hall (2015). These

were calculated using SPSS as well as an online effect size conversion calculator (Ellis, 2009). The alpha level was set as 0.05 for all analyses. Exact p values are given throughout unless the value was smaller than .001 (<.001 is given instead).

Creating the outcome variables for the analyses

For the majority of analyses conducted on the teachers' questionnaire data, teachers' mean willingness and mean confidence scores (from the suggested activity questions) were used as the outcome variables. Using teachers' mean score for both willingness and confidence provides a statistical 'summary' of their responses for this entire set of 15 questions. However, if there is no correlation between their answer for one question and not another, using their mean score as one variable would fail to accurately summarise their responses for this set. In order to establish whether the mean scores could be used as one variable, a principle axis factor analysis was conducted (Field, 2014).

This was conducted on the mean willingness and mean confidence scores for the 15 suggested activities with oblique rotation (direct oblimin). For willingness, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, $KMO=.926$ ("marvellous" according to Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999), and all KMO values for individual items were greater than .86, which is well above the acceptable level of .5 (Field, 2014). An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Two factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 59.33 of the variance.

Appendix 12 shows the pattern and structure matrices from the oblique rotation. The scree plot showed an inflexion at 2 factors. The structure matrix (which takes into account the relationship between variables (Field, 2013)) shows that all the items loaded on the second factor and all but Q14 loaded on the first. The results therefore show that Q14 ("Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language whenever they wish") may operate slightly differently to the other questions. This question was therefore removed from the analyses involving mean willingness. 'Mean willingness' is used to describe this variable throughout (with the exclusion of Q14).

The analysis of mean confidence scores produced similar results. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin was $KMO=.910$ (again, 'marvellous' according to Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999), and all KMO values for individual items were greater than .86, which is again well above the

acceptable level given by Field (2013). An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data.

As with willingness, two factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 49.26 of the variance. The scree plot showed an inflexion at 2 factors. Appendix 12 shows the pattern and structure matrices from the oblique rotation. The structure matrix shows that all but one item (again, "Allowing EAL children to use home languages whenever they wish") loaded on the first factor. Therefore, again Q14 question was removed when the latent variable 'mean confidence' was used.

Reliability analysis

In order to test the reliability of the subscales (i.e. questions 1-13 and 15) identified by the factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) was calculated for the willingness and confidence subscales (henceforth, 'mean willingness' and 'mean confidence') (Field, 2014). Both scales had high reliabilities, for willingness, Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$ and for confidence = .93. Using a meta-analysis of 2,244 estimates of reliability from published second language research, Plonsky and Derrick (2016) found that for instruments, the 75th percentile reliability score was .89. This would indicate that the questionnaire items in this study have high reliability.

Preliminary analyses

In order to gain an overview of the data and decide how to further analyse the data, preliminary analyses were conducted on all variables. For the most part, these were correlation analyses of the contextual variables (collected in the first part of the questionnaire) with mean willingness and with mean confidence. These are presented in Appendix 4.

A Spearman's correlation (Spearman, 1904) was run for the following variables:

- "I enjoy teaching languages" x "I am confident teaching languages"
- Years teaching x "I enjoy teaching languages"
- Years teaching x "I am confident teaching languages"

A Spearman correlation (Spearman, 1904) was also run between mean willingness and mean confidence (each as a separate variable) and each of the variables in the right-hand column of Table 1. For example, a correlation between mean willingness and years of teaching experience and another between mean confidence and years of teaching experience.

Table 1 The variables for which a Spearman correlation was run

Mean willingness	Mean confidence/mean willingness
	years of teaching experience
Mean confidence	“I enjoy teaching languages (other than English)”
	“I am confident teaching languages (other than English)”
	Number of MFL* GCSEs
	Number of languages learnt beyond GCSE
	Number of languages learnt outside formal education
	Number of languages confident to teach at primary level

*modern foreign language

A Spearman correlation (Spearman, 1904) was chosen for these analyses as the variables involved were all continuous and the data in each were not normally distributed. A scatterplot for each association also showed the relationship between the two variables was to be monotonic (Sheskin, 1997).

Pearson’s product-moment correlations were run to assess the relationship between mean willingness / confidence and the variables “I enjoy teaching English” and “I am confident teaching English” as the data were normally distributed within these variables. The relationship between these two variables was deemed to be linear, as assessed by a visual inspection of a scatterplot thereby fulfilling the requirements of the test (Sheskin, 1997).

Bootstrapped independent samples t-tests were run on the set of teaching experience questions (e.g. “I have taught in more than 5 different schools”) with mean willingness in order to compare the willingness scores of teachers who had had certain experiences and those who had not (Sheskin, 1997). Bias-corrected and accelerated (BCa) bootstrapping was activated for each of these analyses in order to make them more robust and reduce sources of bias (e.g. skew) (Field, 2014). For confidence, 3 outliers were present

(as assessed by inspection of a boxplot for values greater than 1.5 box-lengths from the edge of the box). The tests were run with and without these outliers but the removal of the outliers did not (statistically) significantly change any of the results. For all variables, there was homogeneity of variances for teachers who chose “true” and those who chose “false”, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances. “I have never taught an EAL child” was excluded from the analysis as the group who answered “true” was substantially smaller ($N = 12$) than those who answered “false”, within the “true” group, the data were also not normally distributed. This would have also made the statistical test less reliable (Field, 2014).

In order to assess the group differences for the same variables in terms of mean confidence, a Mann-Whitney U test was run as there were many outliers in the data and the data for each group were not normally distributed (as assessed by visual inspection of histograms as well as the Shapiro-Wilk statistic) (Sheskin, 1997). Distributions of the mean willingness scores were assessed for each variable and median ‘mean willingness’ scores were not statistically significantly different between teachers who chose “true” and those who chose “false” for any of the four variables. Again, “I have never taught an EAL child” was excluded from the analysis due to the vastly different group sizes.

A Mann-Whitney U test was also used to assess group differences from the “training” variables (e.g. “which of these did you receive during your initial teacher training” lectures/workshop/trip/placement/none) with teachers’ mean willingness scores. Bootstrapped independent samples t-tests were used again for mean confidence and these “training” variables. Two outliers were present in the “none” variable so the test was run with and without the outliers. For all variables, there was homogeneity of variances for teachers who chose the training type and those who did not, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances.

Regression Models

In order to concisely explain the variance in teachers’ willingness and confidence scores, a multiple regression model was run with several predictor variables. In essence, its aim was to allow either willingness or confidence to be predicted, or explained, by the variables from the first parts of the questionnaire (Jeon, 2015). A standard multiple regression model was used as there was no specific hypothesis or theoretical reasoning which would have driven the order in which the variables were entered (Tabachnick & Fidell,

2013). The predictor variables were either taken from this early part of the questionnaire or, as a result of the preliminary analyses, a composite variable created for this analysis. The variables are outlined below:

1. *“I have taught in more than 5 different schools”*

This was one of the teaching experience variables. In the preliminary analyses it was shown to be statistically significantly related to mean willingness. It can also be seen as giving a concise indication of teachers’ mobility as the more schools they have taught in, the more likely they are to have taught a more diverse range of pupils in a more diverse range of geographical contexts. Responses for this variable were coded 1 for if the teacher had taught in 5 or more different schools and 0 if they had not.

2. *“I have taught in a multi-ethnic school(s)”*

This was another of the teaching experience variables, while it was not related to teachers’ mean willingness scores in terms of statistical significance, the relationship between the two variables did have a small effect size. It was the variable with the second highest effect size from this set of variables suggesting it has potential importance in predicting willingness that should be considered (Larson-Hall & Plonsky, 2015). Responses for this variable were coded 1 for if the teacher had taught in a multi-ethnic school(s) and 0 if they had not.

3. *“Training”*

This was a composite variable created after the preliminary analyses. There were five different training categories in the questionnaire. While these yielded important descriptive data, this was deemed too fine-grained to be entered into a regression model as it would have led to a much larger number of predictor variables making the model less easy to interpret (Field, 2014). Responses were therefore coded into a new variable “training”: 0 for no training, lectures or workshop and 1 for trip or placement.

4. *“Readiness to teach languages”*

As the preliminary analyses showed many of the variables relating to languages and language learning to be correlated with one another, these were collapsed into one variable in order to avoid multicollinearity (Jeon, 2015). As so few teachers had language qualifications beyond GCSE, the number of MFL GCSEs was chosen as the qualifications aspect of the variable (these converted to a score out of 100, i.e. 1=25, 2=50 etc.). Teachers’ score for their confidence to teach languages (other than English (/100) was also used as

well as their enjoyment of teaching languages (other than English) score (/100). The variables were converted to the same scale so they could be used as one variable where each component was equally weighted.

The steps listed in Jeon (2015) were followed prior to running the models. For example, assumptions such as independence of residuals, were checked. Details of these for each model (i.e. willingness as an outcome variable and confidence as an outcome variable) are provided in the next chapter alongside the results of each model.

3.4.5.b *Qualitative data*

In order to analyse the comments left by teachers in the final section of the questionnaire, a process of inductive analysis was used, based on a grounded theory approach (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Willig & Stainton-Rogers, 2008). Explicit codes were created from the reasoning the teachers gave as to why they scored the activities higher or lower for confidence and willingness. This allowed the written data to be translated into numerical data (i.e. the number of times a code was present in the data) (Boyatzis, 2009).

The analysis was conducted following several stages. Firstly, comments which did not relate to a reason for a willingness or a confidence score were removed. The comments were then divided into whether they related to a reason for a willingness score or a confidence score. Codes were then created inductively according to themes emerging from these two sets of data. Finally, the data were re-coded (deductively) into these themes and any differences in coding from the first to the second round were analysed individually and either re-coded or left as they were coded on the second round. A list of the codes (with examples and tallies) relating to confidence can be found in Appendix 5, and for willingness, Appendix 6.

3.4.6 **Reliability and validity**

Specific statistical procedures undertaken to test the internal validity of this instrument were outlined above (see *reliability analysis*). In terms of the questionnaire as a whole, the format was based on the questionnaire used in Bailey (2014) (and reported in Bailey and Marsden (2017)), as discussed above. Therefore, several phases of data collection and analysis using this questionnaire had already been undertaken. Issues regarding unreliable or incorrect data being collected were thus addressed during these initial stages.

Adapting this questionnaire also means the results from the current study can be compared to those from Bailey and Marsden (2017) in order to assess their consistency.

Steps were also taken to improve the reliability of the data collected from the teachers in terms of question design. These were largely as a result of using an electronic questionnaire. For example, as explained in more detail above, the software ensured that for “choose all that apply” questions, multiple choices were made. In terms of analysing the qualitative (open-ended question) data from the questionnaire, a planned, consistent process of analysis was undertaken. The combination of inductive and deductive coding was employed in order to improve the reliability of this analysis which, it is acknowledged, is less straightforward than for the quantitative data (Zohrabi, 2013). The subjective nature of this process and the potential for bias is acknowledged as a limitation of this phase within the next section. However, in an effort to mitigate this, the data analysis procedure and how the results are reported are explained in detail, both within this chapter and within the results chapter itself. The use of triangulation, both in terms of the data collected within this phase and the project as a whole, is also attended to mitigate such issues, as discussed at the beginning of the chapter.

3.4.7 Limitations

Recruiting participants was a significant challenge within this phase of the project. While there is perhaps no number of participants which is ‘enough’, failing to recruit enough participants can lead to non-response error. The response rate achieved may therefore have led to some bias in the data. However, the high response rate from different *schools* may have mitigated this issue to a certain degree. Additionally, as previously mentioned, teachers self-selected to participate, therefore it is difficult to determine to what extent the data is representative of the population.

As the teachers themselves were reporting their views and scoring hypothetical practice, the extent to which the data is an accurate representation of what they think and practice in their classrooms in reality may also be questionable. Unintentional reporting of inaccurate data is arguably very difficult to address. However, in an effort to discourage teachers from giving purposefully inaccurate responses, the questionnaires were anonymous. This, as well as the use of an electronic questionnaire (rather than paper), has been shown to reduce effects of social desirability (i.e. the desire to appear politically correct, or represent what they think is socially or professionally acceptable (Spector, 2004))

(Joinson, 1999). This being said, the teachers may still have been affected by social-desirability or an inability to correctly recall certain details. They also may have completed the questionnaire as quickly as possible due to the demands on their time and may have answered questions incorrectly or taken less time to consider them fully. However, this is true for all sub-groups who were analysed (e.g. those who had received a training placement or not, those who were teaching languages or not), therefore this is unlikely to be an issue in terms of the comparison of groups carried out. Instead, this issue may affect conclusions drawn about the participating teachers as a whole.

In terms of the data analysis, there are a number of limitations to the methods used that should be acknowledged. Firstly, in terms of the quantitative analysis, due to the exploratory nature of the project, there were many variables analysed. Conducting multiple analyses on the same variables can lead to significant results that are merely by chance (Type I error) (Goldman, 2008). In order to mitigate this issue, as few different tests were used as possible and only those relationships which contributed to answering the research questions were analysed.

Secondly, while the variables from the questionnaire (i.e. the contextual information about teachers and the suggested activities) were created from the body of research that currently exists, there is yet to be a study which specifically looks at teachers' readiness to use home languages in the classroom (aside from Bailey (2014), from which the questionnaire content was adapted, as discussed earlier). Therefore, important factors which are not yet discussed in the literature, or which were overlooked in the creation of these variables, may not have been included in the questionnaire. Additionally, some of the variables are difficult to quantify. For example, language learning. Teachers may have had different experiences, different grades and different lengths of instructions. Such detail is unfeasible to include in a short electronic questionnaire. Therefore, some important factors may not have been accounted for in this analysis and those factors which were may have been subject to some measurement error.

In terms of the qualitative data, the potential for subjectivity in defining the codes relating to the reasons for/against teachers' willingness and confidence should be acknowledged. In particular, interpreting the teachers' intended meaning may have led to a response being incorrectly coded. Additionally, defining reasons as for or against or even relating to willingness or confidence involves some subjectivity. As this section was a more

minor aspect of the qualitative analysis, a second coder was not used. However, if it would have been feasible, using additional coders to reach a consensus on the codes and calculate Cohen's kappa and agreement, would have produced a more reliable analysis.

Finally, as discussed above, the teachers' own interpretation of the questionnaire should be considered. Interpretations of "willingness" and "confidence" as well as the scale and anchor statements used may have differed between teachers causing them to score and comment on the activities differently. This, in turn, may have affected the reliability and thus, generalisability of the results. However, again, this issue of interpretation is true for all sub-groups of teachers used within the analysis.

3.4.8 Ethical considerations

Information about the research project, questionnaire, and what the questionnaire data would be used for was provided at the beginning of the online questionnaire. No names were recorded therefore the questionnaire was anonymous from the outset. Participants were informed that their completion of any part of their questionnaire was an indication of their formal consent. They were also informed that their school would not be identifiable in any reporting of the data.

3.5 Phase Two – Questionnaires and intervention workshops with trainee teachers

The methodology for the second (trainee) phase of the study will be presented within this section. This section follows the same structure as the previous (phase one).

3.5.1 Participants

In total, 293 trainee teachers participated in this phase of the study. The numbers who received a workshop, as well as those training via different pathways and at the two different initial teacher training institutions (henceforth ITTI) are shown in Table 2, Table 3 and Table 4. The response rate for the pre- and post- questionnaires are as follows: the trainees who received a workshop = 68% and those who did not, = 69%.

From one participating institution (ITTI1), the trainees taking part in the intervention workshops were recruited through the training cluster they belonged to (i.e. the geographical area in which the school they are training at is in). From the other institution (ITTI2), either the trainees' degree programme or their teaching group

determined their inclusion in the workshop. Therefore, whether the groups of trainees received a workshop or not depended on pre-existing groups as well as their course leaders' assignment of these groups to a workshop session.

Table 2 The number and percentage of trainees in each pathway

Course	<i>n</i>	%
PGCE	153	53
School-based training (e.g. School Direct programme)	51	17
BA in Primary Education	89	30

Table 3 The number and percentage of trainees in each ITTI by training route

ITTI	<i>n</i>	%
ITTI1	161	55
PGCE	130	81
School-based training	31	19
BA in Primary Education	0	0
ITTI2	132	45
PGCE	23	18
School-based training	20	15
BA in Primary Education	89	67

Table 4 The number and percentage of trainees who completed each questionnaire and a workshop

Group	<i>n</i>	%
Trainees who received a workshop	163	56
Trainees who completed a pre- and post-questionnaire (and received a workshop)	110	38
Trainees who did not receive a workshop	130	44
Trainees who completed a pre- and post-questionnaire (and did not receive a workshop)	90	31
Trainees who completed a pre-questionnaire only (workshop and no workshop)	73	30

3.5.2 Data collection

Figure 2 shows the data collection process for this phase of the project. As the data were collected across two years, from two different institutions and from the trainees participating in the workshop or not, the differences in the process for these different groups will be explained in this section.

3.5.2.a *The workshop group trainees:*

2015 cohort:

The trainees participating in the intervention workshops received an email invitation to participate in the first (pre-) online questionnaire prior to the workshop being delivered. The majority of trainees completed this the day of the workshop and the rest in the week leading up to the workshop. The post-questionnaires were made available six weeks after the workshop and the trainees were sent reminder emails over the next four weeks. At the end of these four weeks, ten weeks after the workshop had been given, the post-questionnaire was closed.

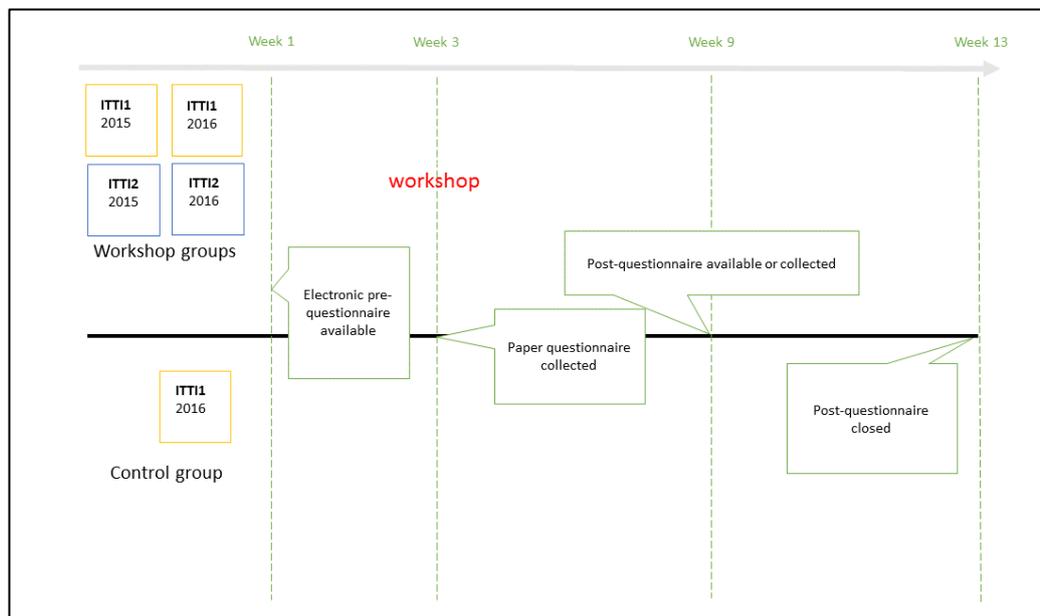


Figure 2 A diagram of the data collection process

2016 cohort:

The groups of trainees who participated in the second year of data collection completed paper versions of the pre- and post-questionnaires in order to improve response

rates. These trainees were given the paper questionnaire immediately before the workshop. They were then given a paper post-questionnaire in an unrelated session six weeks later.

The workshops

The intervention workshops were video-recorded. Two workshops were given using Microsoft PowerPoint, each an hour long. However, due to students' schedule demands, some students received both workshops together in one session (the same content was covered as in the two sessions). The trainees were invited to make as many notes as they wished though were informed they would receive the workshop materials after the completion of the post-questionnaire.

3.5.2.b *The control group*

The control group data were collected from one institution only. As there were limited opportunities to work with the trainees, the decision was taken to use the ITTI2 2016 cohort as workshop group participants instead of collecting control group data from them. Control group data therefore only came from ITTI1 in 2016. A paper pre-questionnaire was given to the trainees at the end of an unrelated session and collected from them once they had completed it. The same procedure was then followed for the post-questionnaire six weeks later.

3.5.2.c *Between the pre- and post-questionnaire*

As Figure 2 shows, there was a period of 6 to 10 weeks between collecting the pre- and the post-questionnaire. During this time, the students undertaking school-based training would have continued their training, which stipulated they would spend four days a week in schools, and the other trainees all undertook a teaching placement. Therefore, all the trainees had the opportunity to reflect on the workshop content in a school environment. Their exact experiences could not be controlled for, however. This makes establishing whether there was a consistent experience for all trainees difficult. However, it is important to note that this is also true for training providers in terms of much of the content trainees receive and therefore reflects a problem faced more generally by teacher training. The difficulty in achieving a consistent training experience is something which is discussed in more detail in section 6.4.3.d as well as its importance for the project as a whole in Chapter 7.

3.5.3 Phase design

This phase is a pseudo-experimental, paired comparisons design with unmatched groups, as described in Newby (2010). Students who took part in the workshop were the experimental group (referred to throughout as the ‘workshop group’ or WG), and students who did not, the control group (‘control group’ or CG). As the institutions selected which groups of students were invited to take part in the study and then these students self-selected to participate, the trainees could not be randomly allocated to the workshop or control group. This would have arguably been unfeasible given the time demands of the institutions and may have resulted in far fewer participants taking part.

3.5.4 Questionnaire design

The pre- and post-questionnaire were designed to be comparable with the teachers’ questionnaire (from phase one) in some aspects. Therefore, a number of questions were used in both but adapted for the trainees (e.g. “When you have an EAL child (or children) in your class, how often do you think you would...”). However, some new questions were added and are discussed below. The differences between the pre- and post- questionnaires are discussed in section 3.5.4.a. The trainees’ pre- questionnaire and post-questionnaire are available in Appendix 7 and Appendix 8 respectively.

Questions on the following were included:

- Contextual information (e.g. whether they are university-based or school-based)
- Their expectations for their training and teaching in regards to pupils with EAL
- Their language learning experience and confidence to teach languages (including English, as a comparison)
- Attitudinal data on their beliefs about the teaching of EAL pupils and their home languages

Their knowledge of:

- reasons why home languages may and may not be used in the classroom
- how linguistic and cultural diversity can be reflected in the classroom
- how home languages can be used in the classroom

As with the teachers' questionnaire, both the questions and the format of the questionnaire were designed in order to minimise completion time and provide accurate data. The same strategies were used for both (see section 3.4.3.b). For example, radio buttons were used instead of drop-down lists and anchor statements (numerical and written) were provided for attitudinal data.

The suggested activities used in the teachers' questionnaire were not included in the trainees' questionnaire as it was intended to measure their knowledge and attitudes, rather than their willingness and confidence, as they were yet to have much classroom experience. Instead, statements were used to collect attitudinal data about the use of home languages and diversity education and open questions were used to collect data on their knowledge of these issues.

The attitudinal data were collected using a slider and six anchor statements ("totally disagree", "generally disagree", "slightly disagree", "slightly agree", "generally agree" and "totally agree") were provided (see section 3.4.3.b for rationale).

The statements were as follows:

- a. EAL children's home languages should be used in the classroom
- b. I would feel confident to teach my class about diversity in languages and culture
- c. Learning languages (other than English) is important
- d. I would feel confident to incorporate EAL children's home languages in my lessons
- e. Teaching children about diversity in languages and culture is important
- f. All primary children should learn French

The following open-questions were also included:

- a. How do you think you can teach your pupils about diversity in languages and cultures? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.
- b. Some people think we should use pupils' home languages in the classroom. What do you think are the reasons for this?

- c. How do you think you can use home languages in the classroom? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.
- d. What are some reasons why teachers might not use home languages in the classroom?

These questions were intended to evaluate changes in the trainees' knowledge between the pre- and post-questionnaire and therefore potentially, as a result of the workshop (some) received. Few studies (with the exception of Cajkler & Hall (2012), for example) have examined UK trainee teachers' knowledge areas such as these, therefore it was considered necessary to use open-ended questions which will provide access into their understanding (according to Peterson (2000)). The open format as well as the use of "some people think..." and "why teachers might not" were used so as not to create bias towards a "correct" way of thinking. Trainees' answers to the fourth question could also be compared to teachers' responses from the questionnaire. This thereby demonstrates trainees' knowledge of reasons why home languages may not be used as well as how much awareness they have of practising teachers' concerns.

3.5.4.a *How the post-questionnaire differed from the pre-*

Within the post-questionnaire, questions about the trainees' teaching experience were included, such as "In total, how many children with EAL did you teach on your teaching placements?". This gives some indication of the training and experience other than the workshop that the trainees received as this training may have also influenced their questionnaire responses. The attitudinal and open-questions were swapped to different positions in order to reduce the likelihood of the trainees feeling the exact same questionnaire was being given. One open question was added: "On your teaching practice, did you ever teach your pupils about diversity in languages and culture?" in order to gain insight into the groups' practice. Depending on their answer (yes or no), another question was presented: either "what did you do?" or "why do you think you didn't?" in order for the trainees to elaborate on their yes/no choice. All other questions were kept the same in order to observe the differences from pre- to post-.

3.5.5 **The training workshop content**

The slides from the training workshops can be found in Appendix 9. The training workshops were designed to:

- Provide trainees with specific information about numbers of EAL children in their geographical area (slides 2-6). This was intended to provide important contextual information so the trainees knew about the number of pupils and their respective languages in the area they were teaching in, as well as clarifying which languages they were most likely to encounter.
- Develop ideas about why using home languages may be beneficial for children with EAL and monolingual children - both cognitively and socio-culturally (slides 7-10). This section was aimed to address RQ3b: (Does providing trainee teachers with input on reflecting linguistic and cultural diversity in primary classrooms...) ... improve their knowledge of the reasons why teachers may or may not use home languages in the classroom?
- Present reasons why representing linguistic and cultural diversity is considered important and provide classroom strategies for doing so (slides 11-15 and 21-40). This section was aimed to address RQ3c: (Does providing trainee teachers with input on reflecting linguistic and cultural diversity in primary classrooms...) ...improve their understanding of the ways in which linguistic and cultural diversity can be reflected in primary classrooms? This section also included examples of:
 - Ways in which they can use EAL pupils as a linguistic and cultural resource.
 - How literature can be used in the classroom to teach pupils about linguistic and cultural diversity.
 - Examples of activities and resources which teach pupils about linguistic and cultural diversity.
 - Website links to sites where they can access more information about languages and language learning and find more resources.
- Inform the trainees of ways in which they can encourage home language use in their classroom (slides 16-19). As well as addressing RQ3b as above, this section aimed to prepare the trainees with strategies specifically relating to home language use.

3.5.6 Coding of questionnaire responses

As with the teachers' questionnaire, the coding for the closed-response questions was pre-assigned through the Qualtrics (Qualtrics, 2017) software used. The four open questions were inductively coded (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). This process is discussed in the data analysis section below.

3.5.7 Data analysis

As with the teachers' questionnaire, both quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods were used for the analysis of the data from this phase. These are discussed separately within this section.

3.5.7.a Quantitative data

Descriptive statistics were calculated for all closed-response questions as for the teachers' questionnaire. These are given alongside the inferential statistics throughout the sections relating to the trainee data in the results chapters. As with the teachers' questionnaire, standardized effect sizes and confidence intervals (95%) are also given throughout.

The primary analyses for this phase is the attitudinal data (e.g. "I feel confident to use pupils' home languages") collected at both time points. Descriptive statistics were conducted first in order to gain an overall picture of the data and the group differences present (Girden, 1992). A one-way repeated-measures ANOVA was then conducted in order to examine the interaction effect, i.e. whether the participants (in the workshop group or control group) score the variables in the same way (Larson-Hall, 2010). Finally, ANCOVA were conducted in order to control for the baseline difference in the groups' scores. For these analyses, the assumptions of normality were met, as assessed by the Shapiro Wilk test (for all, $p > .05$). Homoscedasticity was assessed by visual inspection of the standardized residuals plotted against the predicted values and homogeneity of variances was assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variance test (for all, $p > .05$) (for ANCOVA). Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity had not been violated (for ANOVA). The assumptions of the tests were therefore fulfilled (Field, 2014).

3.5.7.b *Qualitative data*

A similar procedure as for the open responses from the teachers' questionnaire was undertaken for this questionnaire. The data were coded for recurring activity suggestions, reasoning and ideologies within the responses. The data were first inductively coded and then any overlapping concepts were separated or removed and some codes were broken down into further sub-themes. Hierarchical structures were also assigned to the list of codes so their organisation was clearer. The data were then re-coded deductively and any discrepancies between the original coding and the second round of coding were addressed.

Once the lists of codes were finalised, the number of proportion of responses coded in a given theme were calculated. How the proportions were calculated for given questions are explained in each section with the results chapter as these differed according to the focus of the analysis. This coding procedure therefore allowed for numerical comparisons between the groups and the pre- and post-questionnaire to be conducted (Boyatzis, 2009). The analysis was also carried out using QSR International's NVivo 10 Software (2015).

Inter-rater reliability

As group differences, and therefore the potential effect of the workshop intervention, were assessed using the coding of the responses for the open questions, it was deemed important to check the reliability of the coding. A second coder, who was not involved in the project and development of the themes, was therefore trained to code using the same software (NVivo).

The second coder inductively coded 30% of the responses for each question. The responses in the 30% were chosen randomly from the trainees' responses. Agreement was above 98% for all themes. In terms of Cohen's kappa (κ), all were $\kappa \geq 0.63$. Looking at all four questions as a whole, the agreement was 99.72% and $\kappa = 0.73$ as shown in Table 5. Due to the high level of agreement demonstrated by these scores, no further re-coding was undertaken. If these scores are compared to inter-rater reliability scores from other studies:

- Yeh and Santagata (2015) (examining pre-service teachers' comments on video clips) reported a final percentage agreement of 85%
- Chieu, Kosko and Herbst (2015) (examining) reported kappa values of .66, .77 and .69

and methodological syntheses in applied linguistics research which have reported:

- an inter-rater reliability agreement rate of 82%, $\kappa = .56$ (Plonsky, 2013)

Additionally, according to Sim and Wright (2005), Kappas ranging from .61 to .80 are substantial and .81 to 1.00 are almost perfect.

Table 5 Cohen's kappa and percentage agreement scores for the four open question inter-coder reliability calculations

Question	Mean Kappa	Mean agreement (%)
How do you think you can teach your pupils about diversity in languages and cultures? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.	0.74	99.95
How do you think you can use home languages in the classroom? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.	0.63	99.63
Some people think we should use pupils' home languages in the classroom. What do you think are the reasons for this?	0.71	99.53
What are some reasons why teachers might not use home languages in the classroom?	0.85	99.78
Average across questions	0.73	99.72

3.5.8 Reliability and validity

The questionnaires were designed to be comparable to the teachers' questionnaire, both thematically and in question design, this meant results could be directly compared in an effort to increase the reliability of the conclusions drawn from both as part of the triangulation employed in the study. As explained above (see *Coding of questionnaire responses*), as the analysis of the pre- and post-questionnaires was so central to this phase of the project, reliability analysis was conducted on the coding of the open question responses in an effort to mitigate issues of subjectivity in this process. Additionally, as throughout, data collection, analysis and reporting procedures are explained in detail in an effort to ensure clarity regarding the research process and its replicability.

As this phase included an intervention with the trainees, a control group was used in order to assess whether changes in trainees' attitudes and knowledge were as a result of the workshop content. Without this, the extent to which the intervention had caused any changes in attitudes or knowledge, rather than other experiences the trainees may have

had, could not have been as confidently gauged, thus threatening the internal validity of this phase of the project.

3.5.9 Limitations

A significant amount of the data from the questionnaires is provided by the open questions. One limitation of this is the potential for a verbosity effect, namely, some respondents' answers may be longer and more complex than others' answers to the same question (Peterson, 2000). This creates difficulty in analysing the open data and comparing trainees' responses. Additionally, some trainees may have provided a shorter answer due to factors other than their lack of knowledge or opinion (e.g. time constraints) and it is therefore difficult to assess whether their answer is a true reflection of their knowledge or opinion.

The same issues as the teachers' questionnaire (see section 3.4.7) regarding social-desirability and self-selection bias may also have affected the data collected from these questionnaires. The students who ensured they had completed both questionnaires may have been particularly interested in the topic which may make their answers unrepresentative of the rest of the cohort, for example.

The same issues as described for phase one should also be considered in terms of the subjectivity involved in both the trainees' interpretation of the questions as well as both coders' interpretation of trainees' answers. Similarly, the measurement error which may have resulted from the contextual question data is important to recognise. However, again, the issues discussed in this section are true for both groups therefore they do not necessarily affect group comparisons carried out.

3.5.10 Ethical considerations

Information about the research project, the trainees' involvement and what the collected data would be used for, as well as a consent form, was provided at the beginning of the online questionnaire and in paper format for those completing a paper questionnaire. Trainees' names were taken in the questionnaire but anonymised by the assignment of codes to which only the researcher had access. Although the findings will be shared with the respondents' universities, it was made clear to the trainees that their individual answers would not. As the workshops were video recorded, it was also made clear to these trainees

(verbally and through the consent form) that although not intended, their faces and voices may appear in later presentations and publications of the data but that no names would be used.

3.6 Phase Three: Focus Groups

This section outlines the focus group phase of the research. It will follow the same structure as the previous two sections.

3.6.1 Participants

Six focus groups were conducted in five different schools in the research area. In order to try and increase participation, very little information was collected from each participating teacher. This was also intended to reduce issues of social-desirability bias as the teachers would be assured their responses were anonymous. Information about the schools and the teachers as a group are given in Table 6 .

Table 6 Demographics of the participating schools

School number	Reported approx. numbers of children with EAL in classes currently teaching	% of pupils whose first language is not English (whole school)**	% of children eligible for free school meals at any time during the past 6 years (whole school)**	No. of teachers who participated	Location	Type of school
1	All teaching fewer than 5.	13.5	62.7	10	Urban (town)	academy
2	All teaching fewer than 5.	8.5	18.8	5	Urban (city)	academy
3	All teaching fewer than 3.	1.7	27.4	11	Urban (town)	Maintained school
4	Two teachers were teaching one pupil with EAL.	0*	7.9	6	Rural	Maintained school
5 (KS1)	All teaching fewer than 3.	8.8	41	6	Urban (town)	academy
5 (KS2)	All teaching fewer than 5.			12		

*The teachers reported 4 children to be using EAL in the whole school.

** The national average for pupils whose first language is not English is 20% and pupils eligible for free school meals at any point during the last 6 years is 25.4% (School Census, 2016)

As Table 6 demonstrates, the focus groups were conducted with different types of schools (e.g. academies versus maintained), with different numbers of children who use EAL as well as children who are eligible for FSM. The latter is often used as a proxy for socio-economic status. According to Gorard (2012) it indicates increased likelihood of a child achieving poorer academic qualifications, having a special need and being in care. Thus, a school with high numbers of children qualifying for FSM is conceivably likely to account for this when making pedagogical and whole-school decisions.

3.6.2 Design and procedure

The session lasted an hour; the focus groups were conducted in the first thirty minutes and the second half was used to deliver a training workshop to the teachers. The focus groups used quotes as prompts to elicit the data from the teachers as in Mehmedbegovic's (2011) study. The prompts were shown to the teachers using a PowerPoint presentation displayed on the classroom's interactive whiteboard. Figure 3 is an example of one used.

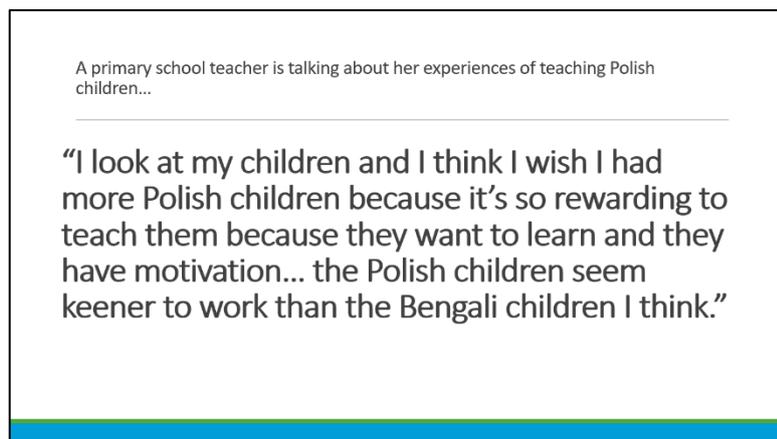


Figure 3 An example of a prompt screen shown to the teachers participating in the focus groups

A list of the prompts used, as well as their source and the rationale for their inclusion (based on research discussed in Chapter 2) is provided in Appendix 16. The training workshop slides were the same as those used for the trainees and are included in Appendix 5. The teachers were audio-recorded throughout focus group.

3.6.3 The rationale behind the focus group and its design

One of the main motivations behind using focus groups rather than arranging individual interviews was to minimise the time demands on teachers and thus increase the

likelihood of their participation. Collecting data in groups can also yield large amounts of data in a relatively short space of time (L. Cohen et al., 2011). Accessing larger numbers of teachers arguably allows insight into a wider range of views; increasing the likelihood of each question being explored and minimising the likelihood of forgotten details. This method is also considered more effective with homogenous groups of people (Merton, Fiske, & Kendall, 1990). Therefore, the teachers, who share common experiences, may be more easily able to discuss the issues presented together. Yet, the focus group also allows for any differing perspectives to be analysed.

The focus groups aimed to gain insight into issues which would have been more difficult to explore through a questionnaire. For example, attitudes towards different nationalities, the value of different languages and parental pressure. Such issues, where social desirability bias may occur, have the potential to be explored less directly through the use of this discussion activity, in an attempt to minimise the likelihood of bias occurring. It is important to note that the converse may, of course, also be true whereby the teachers do not wish to discuss these issues in front of their colleagues. Any interaction between the participants does also arguably provide interesting data in terms of *how* they discuss these issues. Similarities and differences in views can also be immediately gauged (Morgan, 1997). Additionally, the teachers may feel less inhibited in a group of familiar colleagues than if they were alone being interviewed with the researcher (Merton et al., 1990).

As previously explained, in order to orientate teachers' discussion, a series of quotes were used as prompts. As loss of control over the direction of the discussion can be considered a drawback to focus groups (Morgan, 1997) so the prompts were intended to ensure the pre-planned topics were discussed, yet allowed the groups some freedom in their responses (i.e. the teachers were asked to discuss the quote as they wished). Two suggestions were given as a guide to their discussion: "decide whether you agree with the quote? Why/Why not?" And "relate the quote to your own classroom practice and experiences or those of a colleague or friend". Inviting participants to share their personal experiences is one of the techniques recommended in Merton et al. (1990) to help participants engage with a discussion. These were the only instructions given to teachers so as not to discourage natural discussion as the 'unnaturalness' of focus groups can be considered a drawback to this method (Morgan, 1997).

The restriction of focus groups discussion by assigning proposed questions has been discouraged so as to allow participants opportunity to explore issues (e.g. Merton et al., 1990). For this reason, although statements were designed to lead the discussion, the teachers were asked to add any further information they wished. By doing so, the aim was that they felt less restricted by the statements and, in turn, less likely to think their opinions had not been correctly reflected by this restriction.

3.6.4 Data collection

The same 392 schools (all the schools in the research area) were contacted to take part in the focus groups as the questionnaire. The schools then self-selected to participate. All the schools who requested to take part were accepted. Four of the five schools were visited only once, and the largest of the schools, twice. This school requested to have two separate sessions due to the high number of teachers who worked at the school. For all focus groups, attendance was not made compulsory by head teachers or the member of staff who had responded to the original email, therefore, to a certain extent, the teachers self-selected to participate. However, as the sessions often took place during what would normally be a staff meeting, staff who were due to attend, regardless of the session content, were present. If teachers who were particularly interested in home languages had elected themselves to attend, this may have introduced self-selection bias to the data. Each session lasted an hour and this was adhered to strictly so as not to deviate from the arrangements made with the teachers.

3.6.5 Data Analysis

The focus group data were also inductively coded for recurring themes (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Transcripts were analysed several times line by line in order to create codes and sort these into broader themes. As this section was designed to be more exploratory than the previous two, in that the teachers were free to discuss the prompts as they wished and due to the small number of participants, no numerical values are reported in the analysis. The coding was carried out using QSR International's NVivo 10 Software (2015).

3.6.6 Reliability and validity

Detailing how reliability was improved in this purely qualitative phase is less straightforward than for the other mixed-method phases (Zohrabi, 2013). However, as

discussed above, the inclusion of this completely qualitative phase was intended to improve the reliability and validity of the project as a whole as data can be compared and synthesised across the methodological phases. In terms of specific procedures employed, these were the same as those described in section 3.4.6 above for the open-question data from the questionnaire. Namely, a clear, systematic procedure for coding the data deductively and inductively and clarity in the description of the coding procedure and reporting of this data.

3.6.7 Limitations

Issues stemming from group dynamics are perhaps the largest obstacle in achieving reliable data from a focus group. There may have been dominant members who prevented others from speaking, particularly on more sensitive topics (L. Cohen et al., 2011) and there is no way of knowing to exactly to what extent this was observable within the data and why certain speakers chose to remain quiet. Relationships between participants may have also limited their willingness to discuss their personal thoughts (Morgan, 1997). As random sampling could not be undertaken due to low levels of willingness to participate therefore there may also be sampling issues within this data. This may include, for example, self-selection bias: schools which are particularly language-focused or, alternatively, feel they struggle in this area, may be more likely to agree to participate. The views given by these teachers may not necessarily be representative of a wider range of teachers' views. Additionally, as only a small number of participants can be used for a focus group for logistical reasons (i.e. time, recording equipment range), the resulting smaller sample size again, is unlikely to be representative of the whole population (Morgan, 1997). As teachers' participation was difficult to access, teacher characteristics which may influence focus group data could not be controlled for, for example, teachers with different experiences, backgrounds and knowledge of languages. This may also create potential bias in the data.

Group sizes were also difficult to control for. As teachers' participation was prioritised, restrictions on the number of teachers involved were not enforced so as not to discourage teachers from taking part. Therefore, group numbers were different for each focus group which meant all teachers' experiences of the discussion were not the same (e.g. later quotes were not discussed if more time was spent on earlier quotes due to more teachers discussing them). Smaller groups are also reported to be more sensitive to group dynamics (Morgan, 1997). They also allow each participant more time to speak (quantitatively

speaking) and therefore yield more data from those participants. Their views are therefore represented more within the data.

Conducting a structured discussion may have also limited the data collected as it gives participants less freedom to explore the issues most important to them. While the prompts were chosen in an effort to elucidate issues stemming from existing research, any issues overlooked by research so far may have remained unexplored if participants felt they were not relevant. However, as the questionnaire phase limited teachers' opportunity to discuss such issues through its use of predominantly quantitative questions, the focus groups arguably do attempt to mitigate this issue within the project as a whole.

3.6.8 Ethical considerations

Due to the group nature of a focus group, participants responses are not only shared with the researcher, but also with the other members of the group (Morgan, 1997). The researcher has no control over whether these responses remain anonymous and private. Responses given may also affect future working relationships, particularly with the discussion of more sensitive topics or the teachers' classroom practice. As for all three phases of the research, consent forms were given to all participants detailing their involvement, how the data would be anonymised, their right to withdraw and what their data would be used for.

3.7 The Pilot Study

This section describes the aspects of the methodology which were piloted and the subsequent changes which were made as a result of undertaking this preliminary data collection and analysis.

3.7.1 Phase One: Teachers' Questionnaire

The participants for the questionnaire were all practising teachers based in a UK city outside the research area for the main study. 51 schools were contacted by email to take part in the questionnaire. In total, 17 teachers provided questionnaire data.

The structure of the teachers' questionnaire remained the same for the main study although many changes were made to wording of the questions, the online experience, or layout, as well as some changes to the questionnaire content. The rationale for many of the

changes was to attempt to lessen the mid-questionnaire attrition rate. For example, drop-down lists were changed to single-click items presented in a row in order to minimise the number of clicks required to answer. Similarly, post-pilot, open response boxes were added instead of drop-down lists so participants would not feel restricted in their answers which may decrease their willingness to continue the questionnaire. Some questions were also added or removed and changes to question wording were also made. For example, “Do you teach a language/languages (other than English) to your class currently?” was added as well as “Do you speak a language other than English at home?” in order to further distinguish between teachers’ linguistic experiences.

3.7.2 Focus Groups with practising teachers

As with the questionnaires, the same 51 schools were contacted to take part in the focus groups. In total, two schools agreed to participate.

As so few participants were recruited, the data could not be analysed as it was intended to be for the main study. Themes emerging from the teachers’ responses were analysed, although very few were evident due to the shortage of data. No problems with the quotes used as prompts were indicated by the analysis so no changes to the focus group structure were made. Securing participants for this stage proved very difficult and teachers and head teachers were reluctant to commit to thirty minutes. Therefore, after the pilot, a training workshop element was included as part of the focus groups for teachers in order to try and increase participation. This included a shorter version of the training materials used with the trainee teachers (see section 3.5).

Chapter 4: Results and Discussion - The willingness and confidence of practising teachers to implement home language and multilingual language learning activities

Presented within this chapter are data from the teachers' questionnaire (the first phase of data collection). The main aim of the teachers' questionnaire was to gain insight into teachers' classroom practice regarding home languages. In order to achieve this, the teachers were asked to score hypothetical classroom activities for how willing and how confident they would feel to undertake the given activity in an age-appropriate class. This chapter aims to establish patterns in the participating teachers' reported willingness and confidence in order to answer the following research question:

RQ1) How willing and confident are teachers to implement multilingual/home language learning pedagogies?

This chapter will be organised by first looking at willingness and confidence scores together, followed by an overview of which activities teachers reported to be already undertaking and finally, an analysis of willingness and confidence scores separately and by activity type will be presented.

4.1 The activities given to teachers in the questionnaire

The teachers were presented with the 15 activity suggestions shown in Table 7 and asked to score each from 0-100 for how willing they would be to implement the given activity as well as how confident. The mean willingness and confidence scores for each suggested activity question are provided in Appendix 5.

4.2 Teachers' reported willingness and confidence

The general trends observable within the data for both willingness and confidence were as follows:

- Willingness scores were consistently higher than confidence scores for every question.
- Willingness also tended to be scored higher across questions: within the ten overall highest mean scores (both confidence and willingness), 7/10 were for willingness.

Table 7 The suggested activities provided to teachers in the questionnaire

No.	Activity
1	Asking the children to answer the register with “hello” in different languages
2	Practising writing the children’s names in Punjabi script (using an online translation tool), writing from right to left as in Punjabi, and preparing a final version.
3	Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the children about the differences between people, their environments and their lives.
4	Teaching topic vocabulary in French alongside English. E.g. “minibeasts” (a caterpillar = une chenille)
5	Using classroom instructions an EAL child has taught you and the class in their home language.
6	Asking a Lithuanian-speaking member of the community to come in to school and teach the children some basic language.
7	Splitting the class into pairs, giving each pair a conversation sequences in a different language and asking them to make a puppet/doll of the speakers and practise the dialogue together.
8	Using two poems with a similar theme. One poem is in English and the other, in the home language of an/the EAL child(ren). The EAL child(ren) translates the poem for the class and together you look at the cultural information in the poems and any other interesting differences.
9	Singing a Spanish alphabet song using an online video to help (e.g. “a” “asno” “b” “bici” “c” “casa”)
10	As part of the children’s science work, asking an EAL child (or children) to help the other children label the parts of a flower in both English and the EAL child’s home language.
11	Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre. E.g. a newspaper, an advert, a novel.
12	Asking EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their culture and tell the other children about them.
13	Using bilingual storybooks to teach the children about how words are ordered in different languages.
14	Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish
15	Learning the words and actions to “Head, shoulders, knees and toes” in Polish from a Polish speaking child in the class and using a video to help.

- There was a larger range of mean scores for confidence (85.13) compared to willingness (80.87).
- The maximum mean score for both willingness and confidence activities was 100. However, the minimum mean score for confidence was lower than for willingness (14.87 and 19.13 respectively).
- Individual scores for activities for both willingness and confidence ranged from 0-100.
- The three highest and lowest scoring activity suggestions were the same for both confidence and willingness (though not in the same order).

- The mean willingness score for Q14 had the highest standard deviation (suggesting more teachers were in disagreement about their score assignment), yet the standard deviations for mean confidence scores are consistently higher, indicating that teachers were less in agreement about their confidence levels more generally, than for willingness.

Thus, while both mean willingness and mean confidence scores for each question were subject to some variation, confidence scores appear to have been assigned with the least agreement amongst teachers. Scores for confidence were also consistently lower than willingness, suggesting a discrepancy between what teachers *would* implement compared to what they *could* implement may exist.

4.2.1 Differences in reported willingness and confidence

This potential discrepancy between whether teachers felt they *could* implement an activity and whether they *would* implement it was analysed in terms of individual questions through a calculation of differences between teachers' mean willingness and mean confidence scores. The activity with the biggest difference (29.25) between mean confidence and mean willingness score was: "Practising writing the children's names in Punjabi script..." (Willingness $M = 66.45$, Confidence $M = 37.2$). Conversely, the activity with the smallest difference (2.18) was: "Asking the children to answer the register with "hello" in different languages..." (Willingness $M = 88.52$, Confidence $M = 90.7$).

Therefore, while the same three activities were scored the highest or lowest for *both* willingness and confidence, the vast difference between these two scores for the activity above ("Practising...") indicates that for some activities, at least, there is a substantial discrepancy in how teachers perceive their willingness to undertake the activity and their confidence to do so.

4.2.2 How teachers reported willingness and confidence is related

While differences may exist in the scoring of each, if we examine mean confidence and mean willingness as composite variables (excluding Q14 - see 3.4.5.a) teachers' mean willingness score was statistically related to their mean confidence score, $r_s = .73$, 95% BCa CI [.639, .798], $p = <.001$ which represents a medium-strong effect size. This therefore indicates that the more willing teachers perceive themselves to be to implement an activity, the more confident they also perceive themselves to be and, of course, vice versa. While this

may be an unsurprising finding, it is nonetheless arguably important to remember given that anything which affects one is conceivably likely to also affect the other.

4.2.3 A summary of teachers' reported willingness and confidence

As the results above show, variability was evident in both willingness and confidence scores, although the teachers consistently reported feeling more willing than confident. However, the same activities were scored the highest and lowest for both willingness and confidence and willingness and confidence scores were shown to be related to one another. Therefore, for the activities the teachers' felt confident to undertake, they generally also felt willing to undertake, and vice versa. Despite this, substantial variability in the *difference* between confidence and willingness scores for certain activities was also observable, thereby suggesting that, perhaps unsurprisingly, other factors are also likely to contribute to the formation of teachers' attitudes towards the activities.

The findings from this first analysis of the suggested activity questions are in line with those from Bailey and Marsden (2017) where a similar questionnaire was administered to teachers. Teachers again, repeatedly scored suggested activities higher for willingness than confidence with again, a much larger range of confidence scores given. Further corroboration of the findings from the current study is difficult to achieve as research examining teachers' views of home language practice is scarce. However, a comparison can be made to the Language Trends survey which found 'most' schools (with significant numbers of EAL pupils) to provide 'modest encouragement' for home languages as well as providing some resources, what can perhaps be seen as a willingness to support home language use; yet lower levels of more active support for the teaching of these languages, perhaps suggesting an inability (or reluctance) to implement more substantial, pedagogical classroom changes (Tinsley & Board, 2016, pp. 13–14).

4.3 Which activities had teachers undertaken before?

As well as looking at teachers' hypothetical practice, when presented with the suggested activities, the teachers were also asked to indicate whether they had undertaken the activity before. The number and percentage of teachers who had done so for each activity are presented in Appendix 2.

The activity which was reported to have been undertaken by the largest number of teachers was "Asking the children to answer the register with "hello" in different languages"

(94.61%). Given the high willingness and confidence scores for this question, this is perhaps unsurprising. Indeed, data from the trainee teachers from the third phase of this project (presented in Chapter 6) also suggests that this activity is commonly undertaken by teachers.

The only other activity which was reported to have been done by a substantial number of the teachers (almost half) was asking the child with EAL in their class to bring in an item from their home culture to show the class. This is again perhaps unsurprising given the likely familiarity of a “show and tell” format to primary teachers. All the other activities were reported to have been undertaken by less than half of the teachers. The activity reported to have previously been done the least was “Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre...” (7%).

While this data is not directly comparable to that of the Language Trends survey, a similar difference in reported frequency of undertaking activities which *encourage* home language use compared with *facilitating* home language can be observed. Again, within the Language Trends survey, ‘most’ schools (with significant numbers of EAL pupils) reported offering ‘modest encouragement’ and resources, yet facilitating the teaching of home languages was reported far less (Tinsley & Board, 2016, pp. 13–14). Comparably, within the data from the current study, considerable numbers of teachers reported to have used activities which involve home languages, yet those which involved a pedagogical use, or a more substantial use, where language learning and use is facilitated, were reported to have been undertaken by far fewer teachers.

Finally, as may be expected, the data from these questions largely follow the same patterns as the willingness and confidence scores for these questions (see sections 4.4 and 4.5). It is important to note that while data were collected as to whether the activities had been done before, data regarding the frequency was not collected, therefore, this is not necessarily a good indication of whether these activities would form part of teachers’ regular practice.

4.4 Teachers’ reported willingness

The ratings (0 *not willing at all*, to 100 *extremely willing*) for the fifteen suggested activities provided a mean reported willingness score of 75.46 (ranging from 19.13 to 100).

Mean scores for all suggested activity questions are provided in Appendix 5. The three highest scoring activity suggestions were as follows:

1. Asking the children to answer the register with “hello” in different languages. ($M = 90.7$)
2. Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the children about the differences. ($M = 90.29$)
3. Asking the EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their "home" culture. ($M = 88.85$)

The three lowest scoring activity suggestions were as follows:

1. Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish. ($M = 60.04$)
2. Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre. E.g. a newspaper, an advert, a novel. ($M = 64.76$)
3. Practising writing the children’s names in Punjabi script (using an online translation tool), writing from right to left as in Punjabi, and preparing a final version. ($M = 66.45$)

The suggested activities with the highest and lowest standard deviation scores, thereby demonstrating the scoring teachers were least and most in agreement with as a group, are shown in Table 8.

Table 8 Highest and lowest SD scores for willingness

	Activity	Score
Lowest standard deviation score:	Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the children about the differences between people, their environments and their lives	16.28 ($M=90.29$)
Highest standard deviation score:	Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish	32.35 ($M=60.04$)

In general, therefore, the teachers reported having relatively high overall levels of willingness, yet as the suggested activities were variable in what they entailed, this mean score does not allow for a detailed picture of teachers’ potential practice regarding home languages may be. The scores for the activities according *type* (categorised as: written / small amount of written (e.g. “hello”) / aural) are shown in Figure 4.

A breakdown of the individual activity scores shows the highest scoring activities to be aural and reasonably informal (not recorded in children’s books, for example). As the boxplot shows, the aural activities (in yellow) have higher mean values than the other activities (shown by the x). Only the third highest scoring activity involved a child who uses EAL and relied on them providing cultural information only. Indeed, in terms of language learning, within these top three activities, “hello” would be the only language asked of the children and this was required in no specific foreign (or home) language. Compared with the lowest scoring activities, which all involved much more substantial uses of languages other than English, the top scoring activities indicate a reluctance to undertake more linguistically ‘heavy’ activities. Indeed, two of the three lowest scoring activities contain the use of written foreign languages (reading and writing).

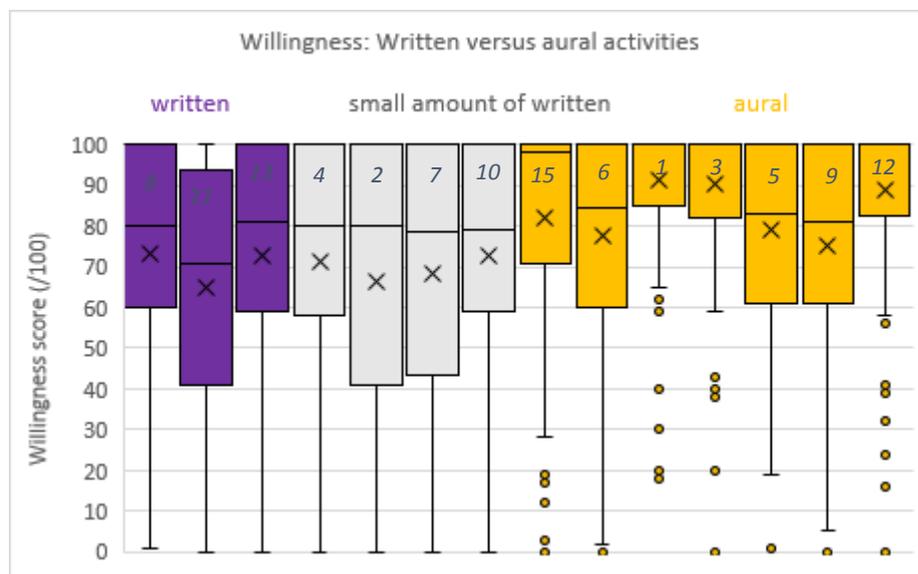


Figure 4 Boxplots of suggested activity questions for willingness according to activity type

The activity with the lowest standard deviation score (see Table 8), indicating that teachers were most in agreement with their (high) scoring of it, “using pictures of playgrounds”, again highlights how the teachers reported feeling more comfortable to implement aural, non-language learning activities.

Conversely, the lowest scoring activity for willingness “Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language...”, which also had the highest standard deviation score, suggesting it divided teachers’ opinions the most, can be seen as the “activity” which would have had the largest linguistic impact on the classroom. This activity was excluded from the boxplot as well as the composite variables (e.g. mean willingness) (see Methodology, section 3.4.5) due

to the substantial difference in how it was scored compared to other activities. A boxplot of the willingness and confidence scores for this activity (see Figure 5) demonstrates the wide

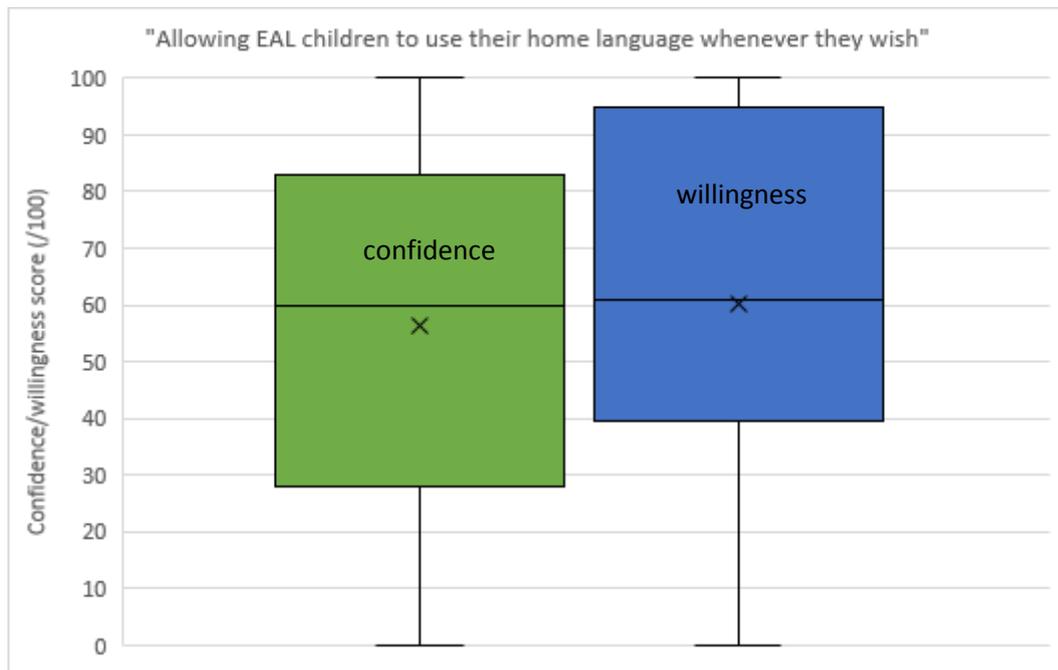


Figure 5 A boxplot showing confidence and willingness scores for Q14

range of scores that were given for this question, with the majority of willingness scores being higher than confidence, yet only a slight difference in mean scores. This activity was the only one which involved ungoverned home language use, similar to the concept of translanguaging (e.g. Kleyn, 2016; MacSwan, 2017; Velasco & García, 2014). Conteh (2003) reports that teachers' reservations with this stem from not knowing what the children are saying, an issue linked to their control of the classroom, as also found to be prominent in Mehmedbegovic's (2008;2011) research. Such flexible use of languages other than English may therefore conceivably be very daunting to teachers. The divisiveness of this question is also explored in reference to wider themes within the next chapter (e.g. the dominance of English).

As previously stated, the only other relatively wide scale picture of teachers' willingness to implement home language and multilingual activities is provided by Bailey and Marsden (2017). The same patterns regarding the amount of linguistic input were also reported within this data. Namely, when the activities were split by focus, those which involved home languages were the lowest scoring. Those which were vocabulary-based and aural were consistently scored higher by the participating teachers. While previous research which has implemented home language pedagogies in primary classrooms has not aimed to

assess teachers' willingness to continue this implementation, results from this study as well as Bailey and Marsden (2017), arguably highlight how isolated examples of pedagogical practice may not be replicable across a wider range of classrooms. For example, Kenner et al.'s (2008) bilingual poetry project was used as the basis for the scenario "Using two poems with a similar theme. One poem is in English and the other, in the home language of an/the EAL child(ren)..." ($M = 72.7$). The teachers only scored this activity moderately highly, a score purely based on their *willingness* to implement it. Confidence is, of course, also central in determining whether research-based practice could be implemented in other classrooms therefore this activity will be returned to in reference to teachers' confidence in the next section.

4.5 Teachers' reported confidence

For confidence, the ratings (0 *not confident at all*, to 100 *extremely confident*) for the fifteen suggested activities provided a mean reported confidence rating of 65.17 (ranging from 14.87 to 100). Mean scores for all suggested activity questions are provided in Appendix 5. The three highest scoring activity suggestions were as follows:

1. Asking the children to answer the register with "hello" in different languages. ($M = 88.52$)
2. Asking the EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their "home" culture. ($M = 85.32$)
3. Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the children about the differences. ($M = 82.65$)

The three lowest scoring activity suggestions were as follows:

1. Practising writing the children's names in Punjabi script (using an online translation tool), writing from right to left as in Punjabi, and preparing a final version. ($M = 37.2$)
2. Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre. E.g. a newspaper, an advert, a novel. ($M = 55.7$)
3. Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish. ($M = 56.5$)

The suggested activities with the highest and lowest standard deviation scores, indicating the scoring teachers were least and most in agreement, are shown in Table 9.

Table 9 Highest and lowest SD scores for confidence

	Activity	Score
Lowest standard deviation score:	Asking the EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their "home" culture...	18.56 ($M = 85.32$)
Highest standard deviation score:	Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish	32.04 ($M = 56.5$)

Confidence scores for the suggested activities presented to teachers were again, subject to much variation and teachers' confidence scores on the whole were moderate, particularly compared with willingness scores (note the lower position of the box and whisker diagrams on Figure 6). As previously mentioned, despite this difference in scoring, the same activities were scored highest and lowest as for willingness. Therefore, again, these activities were therefore aural, more informal activities that require no writing and therefore no 'record' of them having been done. This difference is again observable on the box and whisker diagram below (Figure 6) where the mean scores (indicted by x) and the first to third quartile scores are much higher, as indicated by the aural (yellow) boxes.

In terms of the lowest scoring activities, again, these indicate that teachers were also much less confident to introduce activities which involved more foreign / home language use. The standard deviation scores corroborate the findings from the mean scores in that the activity for which the teachers were most in agreement about their scoring was

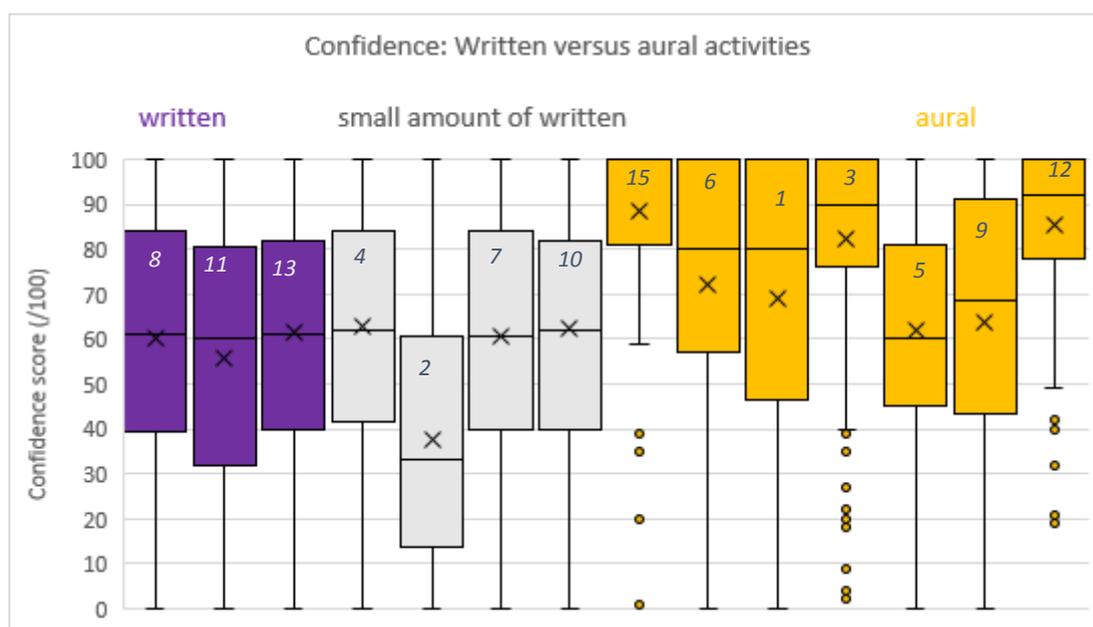


Figure 6 Box plots of confidence scores according to activity type

aural, though it does involve a child with EAL providing *cultural* knowledge. The activity in which the teachers were least in agreement about their scores was again the concept of using home languages flexibly (as shown in Figure 5), again, a practice which conceivably requires an extensive commitment to the language's presence within the classroom. While this 'activity' was not used in the questionnaire in Bailey and Marsden (2017), the lower scoring of the other activities, which all involve written forms of languages other than English, are in line with the findings regarding activity type within this earlier study.

If we return to the suggested activity "Using two poems with a similar theme..." taken from the Kenner et al.'s (2008) bilingual poetry project, this had a mean score 61.26 for confidence. This again arguably illustrates how practice implemented in one context may not be considered replicable in others, thus showing the importance of examining teachers' confidence (and indeed, willingness) in more detail.

4.6 Chapter summary

From this chapter, it can be argued that teachers were neither categorically unwilling nor without the confidence to implement the suggested activities. They were, however, less willing and confident to implement more formal activities, particularly those involving more substantial uses of home languages and indeed, any languages (other than English). If these perceptions are also held by teachers beyond this context, this would conceivably have a substantial impact on the likelihood and indeed, feasibility of such activities being implemented within primary classrooms.

The discrepancy between teachers' confidence and their willingness is also arguably important to address moving forward, particularly as teachers' confidence was shown to be related to their willingness within these data. Factors which may influence teachers' willingness and confidence and may therefore be used as a focus for any effort to increase teachers' preparedness to implement home language pedagogies, will be explored within the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Results and Discussion - Factors affecting teachers' perceptions of implementing home language and multilingual activities in primary schools

Within this chapter, factors which affect teachers' willingness and confidence to implement home language and multilingual language learning activities will be explored. The results and discussion presented within this chapter therefore aim to answer to the following research question:

RQ2) What factors influence teachers' willingness and confidence and how? As well as ultimately, the wider feasibility of implementing home language and multilingual pedagogies within primary schools.

In order to do this, the chapter firstly presents the results of regression models run on teachers' average willingness and confidence scores. This is followed by a thematic discussion of results from both teacher data sets (i.e. the questionnaire and the focus groups). As explained in section 3.4.5, preliminary statistical analyses were run on the teachers' questionnaire data, these are presented in Appendix 4 and are also discussed throughout in reference to the research question above.

An analysis of responses to "please add any comments you wish to make" (asked after each suggested activity question within the teachers' questionnaire), as well as data from the focus groups, will be presented and discussed thematically alongside the quantitative data from the questionnaire. A full list of the quotes used to guide the focus group discussions can be found in Appendix 16. All names used within the extracts from the focus groups have been changed from the original transcripts and all extracts are written verbatim. The codes (with examples and tallies) from the "please add any comments you wish to make" data can be found in Appendix 5 and Appendix 6.

Throughout this section, when the open question data is referred to, the number of references made by the teachers is given in brackets to provide some indication of the prominence of the theme within this data. However, it is important to recognise that the teachers were not required to enter an answer in the text box, therefore these numbers may not be representative of all participating teachers' views.

5.1 Which factors best predicted teachers' reported willingness and confidence?

The most concise way to gain an overview of the potential effect of the variables collected within the questionnaire was deemed to be by using a regression model. Preliminary analyses were conducted prior to running the regression model in order to inform which variables would be entered into the models. These are presented in Appendix 4. Please see section 3.4.5 for an explanation of the rationale for each variable chosen as well as how the outcome variables (willingness and confidence) were calculated.

5.1.1 Which factors best predict teachers' reported willingness?

The independent variables entered into the model were as follows:

- "I have taught in more than 5 different schools"
- "I have taught in a multi-ethnic school(s)"
- "Training"
- "Readiness to teach languages"

A multiple regression model was run to predict teachers' mean willingness from the independent variables listed above. There was independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.029. There was homoscedasticity, as assessed by visual inspection of a plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values. There was no evidence of multicollinearity, as assessed by tolerance values greater than 0.1. There were no studentized deleted residuals greater than ± 3 standard deviations, no leverage values greater than 0.2, and values for Cook's distance above 1. The assumption of normality was met, as assessed by Q-Q plot. The multiple regression model statistically significantly predicted mean willingness, $F(4,150) = 8.985, p < .001, adj. R^2 = 17.2\%$, a small size effect according to Cohen (1988). Whether a teacher had taught in 5 different schools ($p = .046$) and readiness to teach languages ($p = < .001$) significantly contributed to the model. Regression coefficients and standard errors can be found in Table 10.

Therefore, while the model predicted willingness significantly better than the mean model, only a small amount of the variance in teachers' willingness scores could be accounted for by the variables entered into the model. As willingness is a complex and subjective construct, this is perhaps not surprising.

Table 10 Results of a multiple regression model for willingness

Variable	B	SE _s	β	p
Intercept	41.68	3.44		
More than 5 different schools	8.61	3	.2	.004
Multi-ethnic school(s)	2.36	3	.06	.43
Training	3.36	2.7	.09	.19
Readiness to teach languages	.38	.06	.48	<.001

Table 11 Results of a multiple regression model for confidence

Variable	B	SE _s	β	p
Intercept	57.07	3.58		
More than 5 different schools	6.25	3.11	.15	.046
Multi-ethnic school(s)	3.66	3.14	.087	.25
Training	4.16	2.8	.11	.14
Readiness to teach languages	.29	.06	.37	<.001

5.1.2 Which factors best predicted teachers' reported confidence?

The independent variables used for the confidence model were the same as for willingness. The results are displayed in Table 11. For this model, there was independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.504. There was homoscedasticity, as assessed by visual inspection of a plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values. There was no evidence of multicollinearity, as assessed by tolerance values greater than 0.1. There was only one studentized deleted residual greater than ± 3 standard deviations (-3.054). However, this value for Cook's distance was under one so this was not deemed to be problematic (Jeon, 2015). In the results as whole, there were no leverage values greater than 0.2 nor values for Cook's distance above 1. The assumption of normality was met, as assessed by Q-Q plot. The multiple regression model statistically significantly predicted mean willingness, $F(4,148) = 15.535$, $p < .001$, $adj. R^2 = 27.7\%$, a small-medium size effect according to Cohen (1988). As for the willingness model, whether a teacher had taught in 5 different schools ($p = .004$) and readiness to teach languages ($p = <.001$)

significantly contributed to the model. Regression coefficients and standard errors can be found in Table 11.

The variables entered accounted for a relatively small proportion of the total variance in reported confidence, yet a higher proportion than for willingness, suggesting these factors are more likely to affect teachers' reported confidence than their willingness. As previously discussed, the questionnaire was not designed to predict teachers' confidence, rather to explore factors which *may* contribute to teachers' confidence to implement the suggested activities. There are, of course, likely to be many other factors which influence teachers' perceptions of their willingness and confidence to undertake multilingual activities.

5.1.3 Predicting teachers' willingness and confidence: What does it tell us for this project and beyond?

Both models suggest that the more language experience teachers have and the more positive attitudes they have towards languages, the more willing and the more confident they are to implement the suggested activities. This was shown in terms of teachers' responses to hypothetical classroom practice. However, if these findings are also true in terms of teachers' actual practice, they show the potential importance of language education in creating future language-minded teachers. That is, teachers who are open to using a range of languages within their classrooms. Both models suggested that training may have little impact on teachers' reported willingness and confidence which is discussed further in section 5.4. However, it is important to recognise that it is difficult to quantify training experiences which may have affected the results of the model in terms of this variable.

5.2 Teachers' language learning experiences

Due to teachers' language learning experience being shown to be the best predictor of both their reported willingness and confidence to implement home language activities, this is the first factor to be addressed within this chapter. Data presented within this section are from the questionnaire and the teachers' focus groups.

As formal qualifications form a substantial part of a teacher's language learning experience, an overview of the participating teachers' qualifications is shown below. As the bar chart (Figure 7) indicates, there are substantial percentages of teachers in the "zero

languages” category for each question and very few teachers had studied or learnt more than 3 languages. This paucity of qualifications (and indeed, confidence) suggests that the

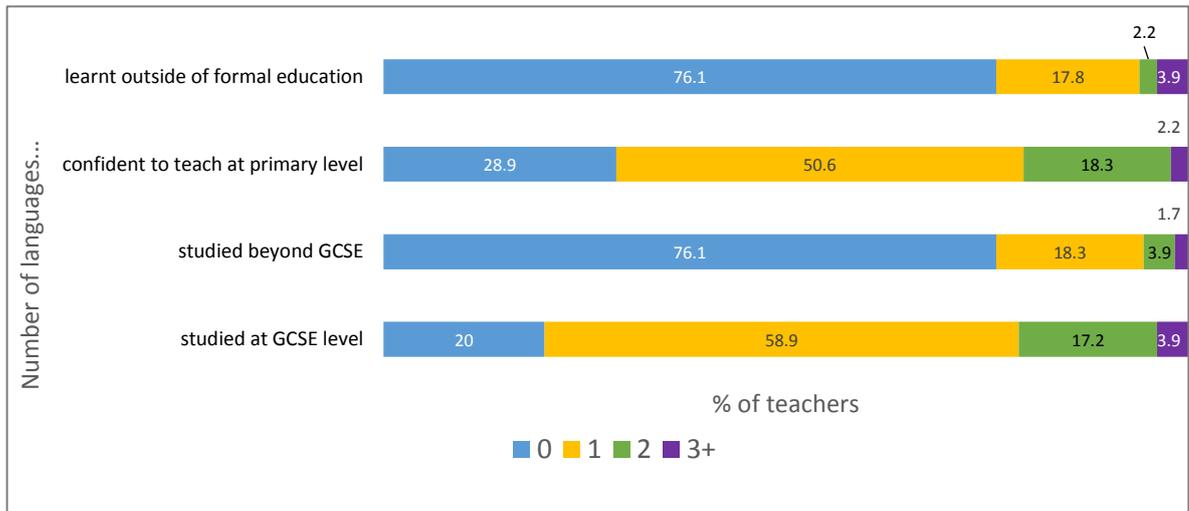


Figure 7 Bar chart of teachers' language qualifications

teachers' MFL subject knowledge, as well as their confidence or willingness to implement home language pedagogies, may be affected by their lack of linguistic experience.

As shown in Table 31 and Table 38 in Appendix 4, language qualifications (both GCSE and beyond) were significantly related to teachers' reported willingness and confidence. There is likely to be a cyclical element to this in that teachers who took qualifications (even at age 16) are perhaps likely to enjoy languages more, be interested in them and thus be more willing and confident to implement them in the classroom. However, in some cases, taking a language qualification may have been enforced by a school or parents, for example. The actual process of undertaking a qualification may also help cement more positive attitudes. Therefore, encouraging future teachers to take language qualifications may be one tangible way in which attitudes towards language teaching (including home language) may be ameliorated.

Additionally, these findings are perhaps of additional significance if Figure 7 is considered as many of the participating teachers had few language qualifications. Additionally, some selection bias can be expected in that teachers who were interested in languages were perhaps more likely to complete a questionnaire, therefore we can perhaps assume that fewer language qualifications may be held by a wider proportion of primary school teachers.

5.2.1 Teachers' attitudes towards language teaching and learning

Figure 8 demonstrates the differences in teachers' attitudes towards teaching English (a substantial aspect of their job) and towards teaching languages (other than English). As the graph demonstrates, confidence to teach languages was scored as being almost half as high as confidence to teach English. Similar, although not quite as large differences can also be seen between the enjoyment variables. Such a disparity between these two aspects of teaching may have significant consequences for language teaching at primary level and indeed, the implementation of home language pedagogies if the findings of the regression model are considered.

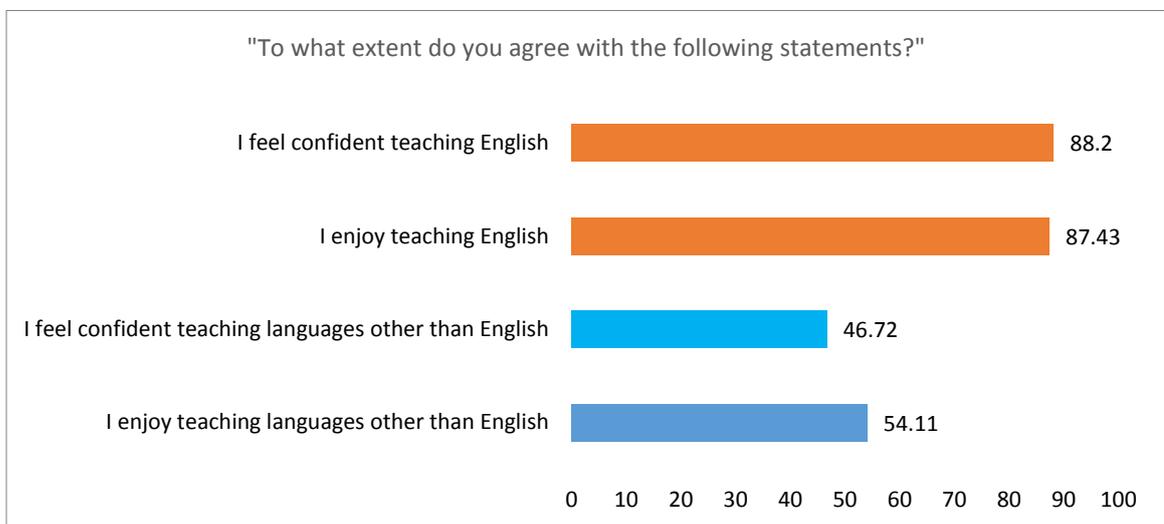


Figure 8 Bar chart of teachers' mean scores regarding their attitudes towards teaching languages and English

The preliminary analyses (shown in Appendix 4) also indicated that teachers' mean willingness and confidence scores were significantly related to their reported enjoyment of teaching *and* confidence to teach languages (other than English). While we may expect the latter, the relationship with teachers' *enjoyment* of languages is perhaps important to note. This may have important implications for wider practice as such attitudes are likely to be difficult to change, particularly perhaps once teachers have begun their careers.

Teachers' willingness scores were also significantly related to their scores regarding teaching *English*. This may suggest a general "readiness" or "eagerness" that exists amongst teachers, leading to increased willingness (and indeed, confidence) scores. Again, the origin of such readiness amongst some teachers but not others is likely to be difficult to locate, making such factors difficult to address in a teacher training programme, for example.

The year a teacher qualified was also used as an independent variable within the preliminary analyses (in Appendix 4). As the addition of language teaching at Key Stage Two was introduced in 2014, it may have been expected that more newly qualified teachers feel more prepared to teach languages. However, the results indicated that more newly qualified teachers were actually *less* confident to teach languages and enjoyed teaching languages less. The former relationship was statistically significant. However, as teaching languages from age 7 only became compulsory in the national curriculum relatively recently (2014), the potential effects of this increased emphasis on language learning in primary schools may not be observable within this dataset. Alternatively, this may also represent a general lack of confidence amongst more newly qualified teachers. Again, the wider consequences for this lack of confidence (and enjoyment) amongst newer teachers for language teaching generally, as well as the use of home languages, is important to consider.

A more detailed view of teachers' attitudes towards their language learning experiences is provided by the focus group data. Within this, an explicit link between ineffective provision at primary level and teachers' shortage of training was drawn. For example:

'But primary schools are being slated for teaching languages because we're doing it incorrectly and (another teacher: we don't do it well enough) the English children are coming up with misconceptions. And that's because we don't have the training.'

Speaking more personally, regret and embarrassment regarding linguistic expertise were also expressed by the teachers. However, none of the teachers explicitly stated they regretted not being able to speak a language in terms of their professional lives. For example: *'and then in later life you sort of really kick yourself because when you go on holiday you just wish you just wish so much that you could order a drink and you know... (laughter and overlapping speech...)'*. Incorrect language use being embarrassing more generally was also raised within the focus groups, for example:

'we get embarrassed as well I think because all we do is use English I think when we go abroad like I'll try and use a bit of French here and there but I don't feel embarrassed but I just feel a bit of a douche when I do it and it's going wrong (laughter in background)'

Again, such viewpoints, if shared by a wider population of teachers, arguably have serious implications for both traditional language learning as well as the implementation of home language pedagogies. Negative associations with being a learner (and making

mistakes) held by teachers, may both affect their willingness to learn and teach languages themselves, as well as perhaps preventing them from allowing children to provide language input where they may feel as though they are a learner.

Additionally, within these responses, there is perhaps the sense that language learning is not considered with the same seriousness that other subjects may be. The tone of these responses appears to be different from their discussion of other topics (see section 5.12 in particular). The teachers adopt a lighter, more humorous tone which is reflected in their use of much more informal language. This change in tone is arguably of significance as it is difficult to imagine teachers' lack of knowledge in any other subject being regarded as humorous. Furthermore, this perception of language learning is conceivably likely to affect teachers' attitudes towards language learning (of any kind) within their own classrooms.

5.2.2 Teachers' perceptions of their linguistic confidence

Teachers' explicitly discussed their linguistic confidence in both the 'please add any comments you wish to make' question and within the focus groups. Comments left in the questionnaire, specifically, suggested that teachers perceived their confidence to be dependent on their language ability in the language stipulated in the question (5), rather than a general lack of linguistic confidence. Where there was no language named in the activity, but instead, it referred to using a child with EAL, comments such as '*lack of experience in the EAL language in question*' were left.

The teachers were particularly concerned about incorrect pronunciation over any other aspect of using languages. This was expressed both in the questionnaire and the focus groups and was particularly prominent within the latter, for example:

- '*I feel like I would be disrespectful like just laughing you know like (agreement in background) or saying or pronouncing it wrong*'
- '*It's the pronunciation of it, even with having a really broad Yorkshire accent, trying to do French is not exactly easy*'
- '*when we have tried to pronounce them, he [the child] just laughs and shakes his head and laughing at you, you know, because we haven't got a clue how to pronounce them*'

- *'the problem ... with dual-language books: the pronunciation and the different alphabets, letters. It's quite a barrier in that however keen you are, you can't really read it to even try and help you know'*

While all these comments relate to incorrect pronunciation they also all demonstrate different issues within this theme. For example, the concept that incorrect pronunciation is disrespectful and that embarrassment is caused by the children knowing more than the teacher. These arguably all originate with teachers' *perceptions* of language use, rather than simply their knowledge of languages. Thus, they are likely to be difficult to address.

They also therefore suggest that a more multilingual approach may require a change in *how* teachers perceive language learning. This is perhaps related to how language learning is organised within the curriculum (i.e. pupils are expected to make progress in one language). Finally, it is important to recognise that all the suggested activities were designed to require no (or very little) linguistic knowledge, therefore teachers' linguistic concerns suggest they may be uncomfortable allowing the *child* to provide the language input (a theme discussed in section 5.11). While teachers' linguistic confidence has practical implications for any form of language learning, its presence within the data also highlights how many attitudes which have emerged throughout the data are related to one another (discussed again in more detail within sections 5.8-5.11). This thereby creates a complex and interwoven picture of the factors which may affect teachers' preparedness to use home languages.

5.2.3 Teachers' perceptions of teaching French

A discussion of French, as the most likely language to be taught at primary level, was prominent within the comments left by teachers in the questionnaire as well as forming a central part of discussions about language learning in the focus groups.

Within the comments left in the questionnaire, teachers referenced being more willing to use French as it is the language chosen by the school (8), for example *'we use a French curriculum which specifically ties to topic work'* but also French being an almost unintentional choice *'we currently do the register in French. I always mean to change language every term but never find the time/forget to research the correct format of any new language, so I always default back to French'* perhaps due to its position as the most

common MFL taught in primary schools (Tinsley & Board, 2016). This therefore suggests that French, as “the language learnt” in schools, may restrict the potential for other languages, including home languages, to be considered by teachers and schools.

As most primary schools have chosen to teach French since the policy change in 2014 (Tinsley & Board, 2016), the motivation behind this was often discussed within the focus groups. Much like the quote above, the cyclical nature of French as the most commonly taught language was referenced by another teacher: *‘that’s because the majority of people we were taught French...so I think French has kind of just stuck’*. Unlike the teachers’ data from the questionnaire, within the focus groups, the teaching of French was directly questioned (e.g. *‘I don’t think French is one of the most useful ones’*). The questionnaire data and the focus group data almost contradict each other in this sense, although this is likely to be attributable to the fact that the teachers in the questionnaire were under no obligation to comment on the role of French. This being said, both datasets arguably highlight the importance of French within this project. An unwavering adherence to its place as the one language taught in the curriculum, conceivably, may present a substantial obstacle to the adoption of home language-focused activities.

5.2.4 Discussion of teachers’ linguistic experiences and attitudes

As discussed throughout, the findings from the teachers’ data may have serious implications for what might be considered more traditional language learning. However, they also hold importance for the concept of using home languages, or home language-driven pedagogy.

Firstly, the potential importance of linguistic education is demonstrated by the regression models as well as the statistical analyses on the individual language learning variables. The presence of ‘language-minded’ teachers can be seen, these teachers are likely to enjoy languages, feel confident teaching them and crucially, have higher willingness and confidence scores for the suggested activities. We can perhaps deduce from this that if we foster positive attitudes towards languages and learning languages, this may lead to a higher uptake of language qualifications and ultimately, a more substantial commitment to languages in primary classrooms, including the use of home languages.

Rationale for addressing language attitudes as early as possible is provided by previous research. Taylor and Marsden’s (2014) analysis of students’ responses to

interventions regarding the relevance of languages found attitudes about languages as a school subject to have been formed prior to their intervention when students were 13/14. Without having followed the same students from earlier in their school lives, it is difficult to know exactly when these decisions were made and subsequently, when an intervention could be most effective. Indeed, Graham et al. (2016) found negative attitudes towards language learning (in this case, French) to have begun to form by the end of pupils' first year in secondary school (age 11-12). Previous research therefore suggests that if positive attitudes towards languages are to be fostered, a focused effort would need to begin early in children's education. By extension, this would suggest that creating teachers who are interested in languages and therefore confident to teach them cannot be achieved once teachers are already in the profession.

The question of *how* to change attitudes is also conceivably important. An intervention aimed at changing secondary learners' attitudes towards language learning in Lanvers et al. (2016) found that while attitudes towards multilingualism and the cognitive benefits to language learning were significantly different after the intervention, there was no significant effect on attitudes towards languages as a subject. However, when results were analysed according to language group, there was a significant difference in how *monolingual* pupils perceived languages as a subject post-intervention. Furthermore, within Taylor and Marsden's (2014) study, it was found that pupils' attitudes towards language learning were also shown to reliably predict uptake of a language qualification. Such interventions therefore arguably show the potential for focused interventions to ameliorate attitudes towards languages and potentially improve uptake of language qualifications, thereby creating more language qualified students and future teachers.

It is also important to recognise that much of the data within this section relates to teachers' *perceptions* of their own linguistic ability as all the suggested activities from the questionnaire were designed so that they required no linguistic knowledge from the teacher. They would, however, conceivably require some confidence and perhaps, enjoyment of languages. Such pedagogies, which do not require teacher knowledge, have been trialled within previous studies, both in the UK (e.g. *The Discovering Languages Project* (Barton et al., 2009)), as well as the US (e.g. Pacheco & Miller, 2016). In both these projects, the teachers "discovered" the language content alongside the students and within the latter, they used students' own knowledge. Therefore, as will be discussed in the final sections of this chapter, examining teachers' knowledge and experience arguably does not

provide us with a clear picture of the feasibility of implementing home language pedagogies. Instead, these must be considered in combination with the attitudes that are also driving teachers' decisions.

5.3 Teachers' previous experience (non-linguistic)

Rather than linguistic experience specifically, this section examines the role of teachers' previous experiences as a teacher (e.g. the schools they have taught in). The teachers were asked to answer "true" or "false" to five statements about their previous teaching experience. The results of this question are shown in Table 12.

Table 12 Previous experience statements: N and % of true or false answers

Statement	% "True" (n)	% "False" (n)
"I have only worked in schools in [this county]"	58.7 (122)	41.3 (86)
"I have worked in a multi-ethnic school(s)"	24.5 (51)	75.5 (157)
"I have only worked in schools with low numbers of EAL pupils"	39.4 (82)	60.6 (126)
"I have worked in more than five different schools"	25.5 (53)	74.5 (155)
"I have never taught an EAL child"	6.7 (14)	93.3 (194)
Total	208	208

As Table 12 indicates, nearly 60% of teachers had only ever worked within the sampled area and nearly three-quarters of teachers had taught in less than five different schools, thereby also limiting the number of different educational and social contexts they had taught in. Indeed, nearly 40% of teachers had only worked in schools with what they perceive to be low number of EAL pupils. These results therefore highlight how some teachers may have very homogenous experiences throughout their career (e.g. teaching in very White and monolingual schools).

In sections 4.1.1 and 4.2.1 in Appendix 4, the results are presented from bootstrapped independent-samples t-tests run to assess differences in mean willingness and confidence scores between teachers who had had the teaching experiences listed in Table 12 and those who had not. Only small differences could be seen between the teachers, yet these generally followed the pattern that teachers who had had the more diverse experiences were more likely to have higher mean willingness and confidence scores. The only statistically significant difference was for teachers who had worked in five or more

schools, suggesting that teachers who had worked in more schools and presumably had had more diverse teaching experiences, would perhaps be more likely to implement such classroom practice in reality.

The number of years a teacher had been teaching for was also used as an independent variable within the preliminary analyses in Appendix 4. Perhaps counter-intuitively, this was not significantly related to their mean willingness score nor their mean confidence score (according to the result of a Spearman correlation). Years teaching therefore appears to have very little influence on teachers' scores. This may be attributable to the fact that teachers' willingness and confidence are likely to be affected by so many other factors (as discussed throughout).

5.3.1 A discussion of teachers' experiences

The above analyses cannot provide definitive conclusions regarding teachers' experience, in that, differences between these groups were small and not statistically significant. Encapsulating potentially many years of teaching experience in only five variables is difficult to achieve and teachers' subjectivity in interpreting the questions should also be acknowledged. Therefore, while recommendations for teachers based on these analyses are difficult to draw, what perhaps does emerge from this section is the potential importance of teacher mobility in providing teachers with diverse classroom experiences. This lack of mobility is further highlighted in the research report 'Minority Ethnic Pupils in Mainly White Schools' where, similar to the data in this project, a third of teachers interviewed ($N = 77$) had had no experience of teaching in a multi-ethnic school and those who had, had since remained in their current job (in a 'mainly white' school) for over ten years. Despite showing an awareness of their ignorance in terms of their pupils' backgrounds, very few teachers reported seeking further training or staff development regarding multicultural education (Cline et al., 2002). As it is, of course, unfeasible to suggest teachers move regularly in order to diversify their classroom experiences, it is perhaps not mobility itself that is the key issue here. Instead, it is perhaps a question of, depending on the demographics of a certain area, whether training regarding reflecting and utilising multiculturalism, and indeed, multilingualism, is available for teachers.

5.4 Initial teacher training

Although training was shown not to predict teachers' willingness and confidence well in the regression model, it is likely to play a significant role in shaping teachers' attitudes towards home language pedagogies as well as their preparedness to use them. It may be, for example, that teachers' ITT had not provided any input on home languages,

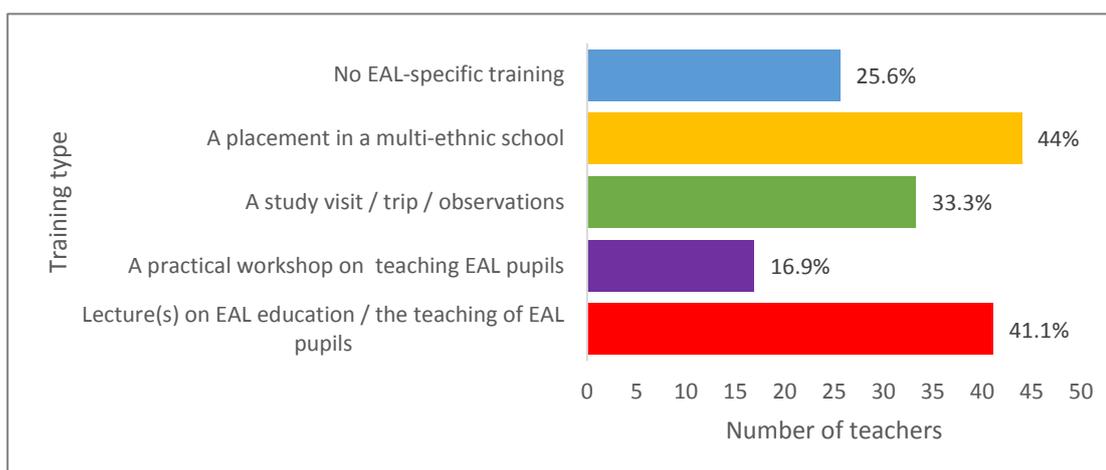


Figure 9 Bar chart of showing the percentage of teachers who had received certain training types

resulting in other factors holding more prominence and training to appear to have no significant effect on teachers' scores. As Figure 9 shows, for example, a quarter of teachers had received no training regarding the teaching of pupils with EAL more generally. Therefore, any training reported may not have been related to the concept of using home languages, for example. Particularly as this is not a requirement of current training providers according to the teachers' standards framework (DfE, 2011). Additionally, teachers may have incorrectly reported their training due to the time since they completed it. The lack of statistical significance within this project is therefore perhaps unsurprising when the above are considered. Arguably, the inability to draw a clear conclusion regarding the influence of teachers' reported training on their preparedness to use home languages also provides further rationale for the focused data collection within teacher training undertaken in the third phase of this project (Chapter 6).

5.5 Finding space and time in the curriculum

In order to gain an overall picture of how long the teachers were currently dedicating to aspects of EAL education, the teachers were asked to choose a time point (differing in regularity) for how often they would undertake a certain element of classroom practice (see Figure 10).

Figure 10 demonstrates the variability that was observable in how often teachers reported that they would undertake these classroom practices, particularly in regards to how often they would incorporate an EAL child’s home language into a classroom activity. While providing a child with language support may be dependent on individual children, it provides some indication of how often children’s academic (i.e. English) needs are addressed in comparison to recognising or using the child’s home language. A reasonably large percentage of teachers reported that they would mention a child’s home language at least once a week, yet one in ten also stated they would never or very rarely mention a child’s home language.

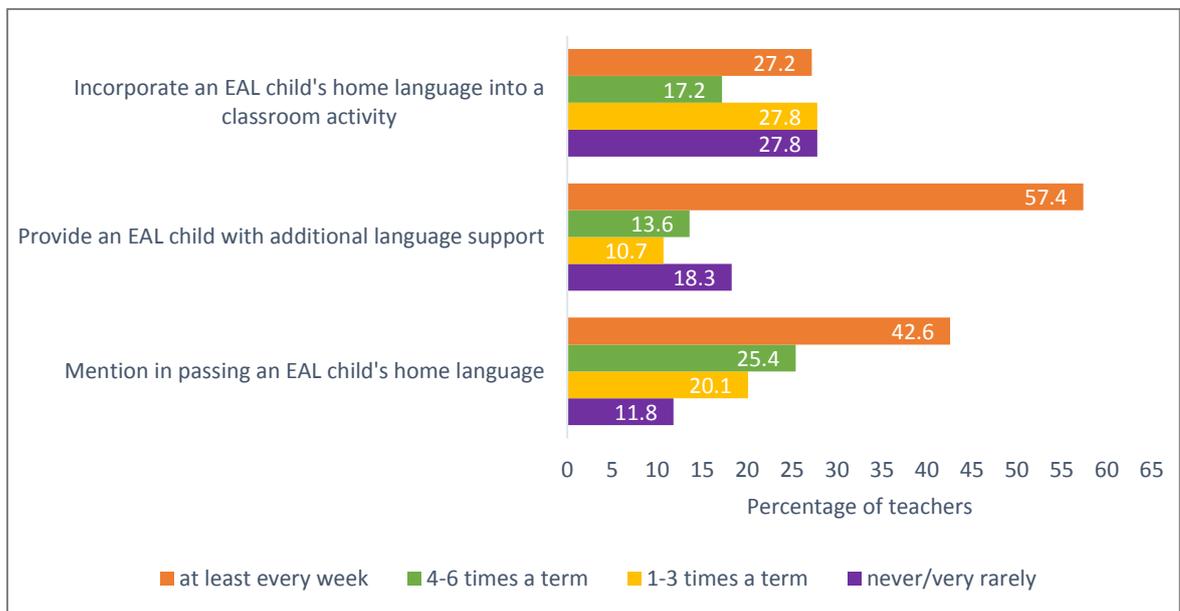


Figure 10 The percentage of teachers choosing each 'How often... category'

Table 13 Results of bootstrapped independent-samples t-tests run on the current practice variables

	Provide... [confidence intervals*]	Incorporate an EAL child’s home language into a classroom activity [confidence intervals*]
Mention in passing an EAL child's home language	.334** [0.18, .047] $R_s^2=0.11$.574** [0.45, 0.68] $R_s^2=0.33$
Provide an EAL child with additional language support		.398** [0.45, 0.68] $R_s^2=0.16$

*BCa bootstrap 95% CIs reported in brackets, ** $p < .001$.

It is important to recognise both the subjectivity involved in interpreting this question as well as the respondent bias that may exist if the teachers cannot correctly recall

how often they would do something. However, these results do give a general indication of the differences that may exist in the teachers' practice regarding children who use EAL and how perceptions of what is an appropriate amount of time to devote to home languages may differ.

The only other wide scale indication of how often teachers use home languages is provided by the previously referenced Language Trends survey (Tinsley & Board, 2016). Unlike the participating teachers in the current study, only schools with a high proportion of pupils who use EAL were included in the data reported in this survey. The categories *extensive*, *some* and *none* were used within the survey, therefore it is difficult to draw direct comparisons with the data from the current project. Additionally, there may be some variation in the interpretation of these categories by participating schools ($N = 255$). Tinsley and Board (2016, p. 66) found that more informal aspects of EAL education such as 'opportunities to discuss/reflect on multilingualism' were reported to be undertaken more frequently (23% *extensive*, 58% *some*) than more formal aspects. For example, teaching of home language was reported to be undertaken *extensively* by only 3% of schools and *never* by 75%. A large proportion of schools did report providing resources in home languages (19% *extensive* and 65% *some*), however. Therefore, the Language Trends data corroborates the findings from the current project that teachers' practice a) is likely to be variable according to frequency and from school to school and b) is more likely to involve less extensive, less formal aspects of EAL education more frequently than those which are formal and planned.

5.5.1 Where do home languages fit in the curriculum?

Teachers' perceptions of how much time can be spent using home languages or celebrating linguistic and cultural diversity, is conceivably closely linked to their perceptions of where such learning fits in the curriculum they follow.

From the suggested activity questions, the teachers' comments tended to focus on the potential negative impact of the activity on curriculum progression (e.g. the activity causing confusion - see section 5.10.1). In fact, only two (of 261) comments were made suggesting teachers *would* be willing to implement the given activity due to a belief in the activity fitting well with the curriculum (e.g. '*This is all about respecting differences and teaching diversity - part of the taught, and hidden, curriculum*'). Teachers rarely (4) discussed the curriculum explicitly and within the references that were made to it, no clear

theme could be observed. Instead, the comments can be seen as covering a spectrum of views. At one end, *'this isn't part of our curriculum'*, moving to a need to fit with the curriculum *'this would have to fit into something we're doing at school'* and at the other end, *'activities like this sit well in the curriculum'*. Despite the curriculum being a standard document, available to and followed by teachers, variation still appears to exist in how teachers interpret it, even amongst so few respondents. If this variation were to increase with the number of teachers, this would indicate a very substantial difference in practice.

Related to the interpretation of the curriculum is the question of, in the current absence of coherent and explicit home language policy, whether it is schools' and teachers' responsibility to set and adhere to a language policy of sorts. This exchange from one of the focus groups conducted illustrates this question as a group of teachers were discussing the issue for what appears to be the first time:

- Teacher One: *'just ensuring they don't lose that language (agreement) because that's the risk isn't it ... if they don't encourage it they're at risk of losing it'*
- Teacher Two: *'is that our responsibility though to make sure that they don't lose it?'*
- Teacher One: *'it is to be educated'*
- Teacher Two: *'if they've chosen to come to England and they start to lose...'*
- Teacher One: *'No it's not our responsibility, I'm not saying that at all (agreement in background)'*

Perhaps due to the absence of top-down influence, a lack of clarity regarding home languages and their place within the classroom and curriculum more generally can be seen. While such flexibility in policy, it is argued, is designed to allow local variation (Costley, 2014), the potentially negative consequences of such variation, that is, that some children are afforded educational experiences that others aren't (as perhaps highlighted by variability in children's attainment scores (Leung, 2005)), are also important to consider. The quote above demonstrates this in that the discussion begins with a concern for language attrition, yet within four turns, the teacher states that the school has no responsibility for this. Again, without any guidelines, teachers may never have considered their classroom's language policies before.

5.5.2 When are home language activities 'appropriate'?

The most substantial proportion of comments (19/261) made about willingness in the questionnaire were to discuss when or why an activity would or wouldn't be

appropriate. An activity *not* being appropriate with no further reasoning was also stated by teachers (6). A wide variety of different themes emerged within this category of “appropriateness” again, suggesting a general lack of consensus amongst teachers. In terms of *when* the suggested activities would be appropriate, four different lesson times were listed: R.E, PSHE (or some variant of), MFL and geography. Additional to these, teachers also discussed how activities may fit into topic work as well as referring to ‘*special occasions*’ (e.g. Christmas) as being an appropriate time for introducing home languages.

This tendency to assign home language use to the existing curriculum suggests both a strong adherence to this long-standing way of teaching and organising learning, a theme which runs throughout much of this data, as well as teachers perhaps not seeing home language use as being appropriate for the general classroom environment (i.e. not a stand-alone lesson). This could also be seen within the trainee data (see section 6.4.1.b). Its significance for the project as a prominent theme across both datasets will be discussed in more detail within Chapter 6.

5.5.3 Time and pressure

The concept of time was evident within the data in terms of both having the time (or space) in the curriculum to address home languages but also the additional time demands that implementing home language activities would cause for teachers.

Within the ‘please add any comments...’ section of the questionnaire, the teachers commonly referred to time in the school day (10): there being ‘*no time*’, time being ‘*an issue*’, concerns over the length of time an activity takes, ‘*time constraints*’ on the curriculum, as well as the suggested activity ‘*not being a good use of [English speaking 4 year olds] time*’. Comments which referenced teachers’ own time (5) included constraints on the time they can devote to implementing such activities as well as concerns over the length of time their implementation would take. Such concerns were heavily echoed in the focus group:

- ‘*it's having the time*’
- ‘*it's just time and the plausibility of it*’
- ‘*We don't actually have a lot of free time do we*’
- ‘*I know all of us feel like we have no time*’

- *'it's the time isn't it (agreement) it's the time (agreement)'*
- *'there isn't time for that the higher you get up the school and the more formal it gets'*
- *'when you have lots and lots of different languages suddenly I find it hard to manage the time'*
- *'I don't think we need to necessarily build set time into do it and if you did have to do that then yeah you would struggle because the curriculum's full and the timetable's rammed'*

As the quotes above demonstrate, feeling as though they have no time to dedicate to diversity education and using home languages was very prominent with the focus group data. The pressure to *achieve* (for both pupils and teachers) according to the curriculum and implicated within this, not having enough time to include home language activities, was also very prominent within this dataset. This was expressed in terms of achieving good results in national assessments (e.g. *'you've got the poor old year 6 teacher trying to get them through (agreement in background) approaching the SATS (agreement in background)'*) and in the *'statistics-driven'* educational culture. Again, such concerns were also expressed within the questionnaire, the teachers were aware of the pressure pupils are under (2), both that *'the curriculum is so crammed with everything else that making time would add pressure to an otherwise demanding day'* as well as the pressure of exams on pupils (*'in year 6, it is enough to achieve the raised standards for the impending SATS'*).

It is important to note that not all teachers in the focus groups felt this would prevent them from using home languages as demonstrated in this exchange:

- Head teacher: *'if you think about that there, if I'm asking you about outcomes and assessments and data and I want these children to achieve but you've got a Japanese little child or a Lithuanian or whatever it is, and then I'm asking you, would you?'*
- Teacher: *'oh I know in the real world of statistics-driven education then yeah, yeah that's what you think. But I still think that I would make sure but that child (broken speech) ... they are as individually important and because they have got that difference. If they want to celebrate it and talk about it then I think we have to do that'*

As well as the culture of assessment, the teachers discussed the emphasis on English and maths within the curriculum as leaving little room for other learning, including home language use:

- *‘I’ve got two children that have just come to me one speaks Farsi and one speaks Bulgarian and they’ve hardly got like, literally, no English, so I’ve got all the expectations of year 2’*
- *‘I think that first statement is absolutely true you can’t ignore the fact that English is central and you know particularly for our youngest children now as soon as they get into year one it’s like they’ve got to pass the phonics screening’*
- *‘I don’t think it’s possible [using home languages] there’s too much emphasis on the maths and English now ...’*

As the quotes above show, these pressures appear to be evident across age groups. The importance of achieving *in English* is also raised by the teachers (a theme further discussed in section 5.9.3.b). As previously stated, the concept of there not being enough time to devote to home languages is perhaps linked to teachers’, or schools’, perceptions of how time should be allocated within the curriculum. However, this is, of course, not an issue that should be considered solely attributable to individual teachers. As the teachers discuss, the pupils are expected achieve certain requirements which are externally dictated. The pressure involved in primary teaching is well-documented within educational research (e.g. Ballet & Kelchtermans, 2009; Perryman, Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2011). This intensification of the teaching profession, it has been argued, may prevent teachers from being creative and cause them to lose certain professional skills due their decreased importance (Apple, 1986). It is thus argued by Conteh (2003, p. 122), for example, that valuing and respecting home languages and cultures “gets squeezed into the corners”.

5.6 The classroom environment

Factors which may affect teachers’ readiness to implement home language pedagogies, not related to teachers themselves (as those discussed above) but instead, to the classroom environment, were also referenced by the participating teachers, these are discussed within this section.

5.6.1 Teachers' willingness and confidence and the number of children who use EAL in their current classroom

Teachers were asked to select how many children with EAL they were teaching in their current class as part of the contextual information collected in the questionnaire. Results from the preliminary analysis of the quantitative questionnaire data (see Appendix 4, sections 4.1.4 and 4.2.4) indicate that the number of children using EAL in a teacher's current class did not affect their mean willingness or confidence scores. These results are somewhat contradictory to the prominent discussion of number within the other data (see next section). This could be for a number of reasons, for example, the teachers may have scored the questions for a 'hypothetical' class, rather than considering their own, or they may have discussed number in the text box despite not considering this to have greatly influenced their score.

5.6.2 The discussion of number in the open questions and focus groups

Within the questionnaire, the teachers left comments suggesting they had provided *lower* willingness scores as a result of the number of children who use EAL in their class. Too many different languages (2), too many pupils using EAL (3) as well as no or few children who use EAL (6) were all given as a reason for not being willing to implement the suggested activity. This suggests that the teachers may perceive their practice to be context-driven. However, what is considered appropriate for a given context appears subject to much variation. Again, if this variance is also true of a wider teacher population, it suggests that practice regarding home languages is also likely to greatly differ from school to school, teacher to teacher.

Discussion of number within the focus groups provided some additional insight into teachers' specific concerns. For example, the teacher being able to understand classroom interaction (*'I think it's also very difficult this year especially we have got no two children with the same language have we ...they are speaking a language just having a conversation and I'm like...?'*). This concern is also arguably linked to the broader theme of teacher control which is discussed further in the next chapter. The concept of integration within the school community was also raised in terms of the number of different languages (e.g. *'So at my previous school, we had a lot higher numbers of EAL and they weren't as well integrated because the children that all spoke Polish found everybody and stuck together'*). While this is one report from one teacher, the fact that such anecdotal evidence and

opinions are held and then shared is conceivably still of relevance to this project. As discussed later within the trainee data, teachers are likely to have a considerable awareness of inclusion as a “high-status buzzword” in education (Hodkinson & Vickerman, 2016, p. 7). Such awareness may therefore conceivably influence teachers’ practice regarding home languages.

As well as the difficulties presented by having high numbers of children who use EAL, teachers within the focus groups also referenced having low numbers. This was almost exclusively in order to provide them with a reason for not being able to discuss the quote presented to them (e.g. *‘I guess it’s hard for us because we don’t have many EAL students so we don’t have much experience...’*). As this illustrates, the teachers felt they couldn’t even comment on the issues presented to them due to a lack of experience. Such discussion raises two key issues. Firstly, it can perhaps be deduced that teachers only see home language pedagogies as being appropriate for classrooms with a high proportion of pupils who use EAL, as corroborated in the comments left by teachers in the questionnaire. Secondly, the reluctance to have an opinion on the issues presented, based on a lack of experience, perhaps links back to the issue of teachers’ subject-knowledge regarding EAL education and the role of training in engaging teachers in discussions regarding languages in schools. This reluctance to engage may also, in some cases, highlight a lack of interest in the topic, conscious or otherwise, and the presence of a “need-to-know” attitude about children with EAL (e.g. *‘I am simply not brained in EAL’* – from the questionnaire).

5.6.3 Responding to the languages in the classroom

Most (17/19) comments left within the teachers’ questionnaire suggesting when an activity would be appropriate discussed how *linguistically* appropriate the activity was. All references in this theme stated that the activity was *not* appropriate due to the linguistic make-up of the classroom (e.g. *‘Don’t have any Punjab speakers in my class’* – the activity specified Punjabi) and that the teachers would be more willing to implement activities in languages spoken in their classes (e.g. *‘would prefer a language spoken by one of the children’*). It is important to note that none of the teachers explicitly stated a complete lack of willingness due to the language suggested, yet they did indicate having varying perceptions regarding *where* or *who* the language should be appropriate for. They referenced: children with EAL in the school, the class, new arrivals, the local community, the children’s environment and the county. Again, such variance in perceptions of what is

appropriate is conceivably likely to influence teachers' actual classroom practice as well as their reported hypothetical practice.

5.6.4 The monolingual majority

Unlike previous research which has trialled home language pedagogies (e.g. Kenner et al. (2008); McGilp (2014)) in highly multilingual classrooms, within this project, most teachers were teaching in predominantly, or exclusively, monolingual classrooms (see section 5.6.1). Indeed, within previous research, the monolingual children's experiences of the activities used are rarely mentioned. Teachers' awareness of their monolingual majority was, however, evident within the data from the questionnaire and focus groups.

Within the questionnaire, most codes (4/5) within the umbrella of *the monolingual children* related to support of the activity being used with monolingual pupils, including: the activity's suitability for a monolingual school, monolingual pupils' enjoyment, building their linguistic confidence and raising their language awareness. However, references to both having no EAL children and an activity only being suitable if the teacher currently taught speakers of the language mentioned in the activity were both commonly given comments, as discussed in the section above.

Only one teacher referenced the monolingual majority in terms of the geographical area:

'I carried out most of my teaching career in London so had plenty of opportunity to work with EAL pupils. I also worked in London boroughs/Kent, all of which had a positive attitude to the teaching of languages from the 70's onwards. When I moved to [the county] it was like stepping back many decades in terms of attitude to EAL/MFL/linguistic awareness. A great deal of reluctance was noticed amongst staff/governors/parents groups that often had negative attitudes. This might be due to the low cultural mix in this area/changing views about immigration etc. [sic]'

As the questionnaire data showed that there was not a large amount of mobility amongst the teachers (e.g. almost 60% had only ever worked in the sampled area), this quote offers an interesting 'outsider' perspective, making a connection between teachers' (and others') negative attitudes and the monolingualism of the area. However, perhaps for this reason, no other teachers suggested that the monolingualism of the geographical area, rather than just the school or class, was related to their willingness or confidence.

Within the focus groups, the teachers' discussion of the monolingual children was arguably more prominent and their awareness of the issue of number more apparent.

Dialogue about the monolingual children can be seen as falling into two categories: first, that the point raised in the prompt could be made for *any* child, not just those with EAL and second, that the child with EAL is just one member of the class. The second category was perhaps elicited more explicitly by the quote (prompt in focus group) ... *when there is just one child who speaks Lithuanian and 23 who speak English, using Lithuanian would impact upon their learning more than the one EAL child*. However, within discussions of this quote, none of the teachers explicitly agreed with it in terms of showing concern for the education of the 23 pupils. Instead, disagreement was voiced (e.g. *'why not give them that exposure to something else in the world'*) by teachers on the whole. The presence of the first category was evident within the responses for this quote, however:

- *'I mean I think you've got to value every child in your class'*
- *'as much as you can you differentiate your class for lots of different reasons, not just because they speak a different language'*
- *'but what about the rest of the children? You've got the same problem (agreement in background), just different children, different amounts of children (agreement in background again)'*

So while the teachers appeared to reject the concept that they should worry about the impact on the monolingual pupils, they did seem to take issue with the concept of singling out the needs of one particular child. This was raised within another group in reference to the prompt: *we understand that you value other languages but when they first come in what do you do?...* One teacher stated: *'but at the same time if you got a new child in to class, you do make exceptions for them ('yeah, definitely' – another voice). Whether they've got EAL or any other additional kind of need ... not just in language, we make kind of judgements straight away and we're very good here at doing that'*.

The other quote which caused the most discussion around the topic of the monolingual majority was that of *I think it's difficult to prepare for children with EAL...*, and particularly in terms of the second category regarding the other pupils' needs. For example:

- *'I find it really frustrating because you know there was 26 kids and I was like putting so much effort into one'*
- *'have you got the time to be, you know, going back to the real basics when you've got 31 other children trying to you know prepare for SATs. It's a worry isn't it'*

The teachers therefore demonstrated both strong agreement for the need to value pupils with EAL, as later discussed (section 5.9.1), yet also *conflicting* attitudes regarding focusing on children with EAL's educational needs, despite this being the topic of the focus group. This seemed to be particularly true in terms of their psychological needs (i.e. feeling valued) and these being different from any other child. It is important to note that none of the prompts made any suggestion to the contrary (see Appendix 16), nor did the discussion that followed.

5.7 The influence of individual children and their parents' language preferences on teachers' attitudes

As discussed in the previous sections, teachers appeared to consider their practice regarding home languages to be largely context-driven. Within this, the teachers showed an awareness of children's and their families' wishes regarding the languages they use.

5.7.1 Children's wishes

Within the questionnaire, teachers discussed children's reluctance to be involved in an activity using their home language. This included, their preferences (e.g. *'the EAL children we have do not like to speak in their home language even though we do encourage them'*), their confidence (e.g. *'[the children with EAL] are very reluctant to speak in their home language a school and are often very shy'*) and their desire to assimilate (e.g. *'many want to exaggerate their 'sameness' and might not be keen'*). Specific examples from teachers' current classrooms were also given in the focus group sessions, although these were usually in response to being explicitly asked whether their children liked to share their home languages. As well as the reasons given above, these teachers also provided anecdotal evidence of children becoming frustrated with people saying it wrong (*'I think he takes it as they're being offensive'*), the teachers' desire not to make a child feel uncomfortable (*'you don't want to push them into doing it do you ... to make him feel uncomfortable'*) as well as children simply refusing or being unable to speak (*'I asked two of my children today to tell me something in their language and they just clammed up'*).

These reasons again, all feed into wider themes observable across the data. For example: issues of number and a child 'standing out' or 'fitting in' (i.e. inclusion) as well as the concept that incorrect language use is offensive and problematic. The former, is a dichotomy present within much of the data in terms of the potential for home languages to help or hinder the child's inclusion in the classroom. This tension, that is, being aware of

achieving a balance between the child's skills being recognised, yet not drawing unnecessary attention to them, is one that originates in policy according to Conteh (2012) (the Bullock (1975) and Swann (1985) reports (see section 2.1)). Therefore, without more recent guidelines, this tension is likely to endure, as indicted by the teachers' responses.

Teachers' discussion of children's wishes also furthers the idea that they perceive their decisions to be context- and child-led, rather than by research, or policy, for example. This being said, it is, of course, conceivable that children's responses to an activity would significantly influence teachers' perceptions of it. However, arguably, without planned implementation of home languages into primary classrooms, or even addressing wider issues of entrenched (English) monolingualism, it is difficult to know what children's wishes would be if disassociated with school and societal language traditions.

5.7.2 Parents' wishes

The parents of children with EAL were discussed in two ways within the focus group data (parents' wishes were not mentioned in the questionnaire data). Firstly, in terms of their wishes for their children's education. Secondly, and linked to the previous, teachers discussed parents' level of English fluency.

The teachers discussed parents who had requested that their child not use their home language in school (e.g. *'but I know some of the parents who have come into us have said things like "don't let him speak in Polish, make sure he speaks in English"*). While not explicitly prompted to explain whether the teachers adhered to these requests, no teacher clarified this. Within the data, such requests were associated with a parent who wished to succeed, exemplified by these exchanges:

- Teacher One: *'he said don't let him play with the other children with EAL. (laughter). He needs to be speaking English.'*
- Teacher Two: *'Dad is really driven though isn't he'*

- Teacher One: *'Kasia's mum is a bit like that isn't she (agreement in background) but Kasia is really good at English.'*
- Teacher Two: *'do you think that's because she really wants it to be superb?'*
- Teacher One: *'she just wants it to be the best she can be yeah, yeah, they speak in English to her all the time'*

The focus groups, therefore, did not provide any anecdotal evidence of teachers changing their practice in order to adhere to a parent's wishes. However, the tendency for teachers to demonstrate positive attitudes towards parents with high English proficiency

and their desire for their children to speak English is arguably of interest. Some contradiction was evident within the teachers' discussion of this topic in that they praised families for speaking English at home, yet also showed positive attitudes towards the maintenance of home languages. Such discrepancies in rhetoric will be discussed later within this chapter (section 5.9.1) as these may suggest that teachers are aware of the politically correct nature of supporting home languages and may agree with this in principle, yet other aspects of their dialogue suggest this may, or can, not always be observed in practice. Additionally, parents' level of English was not explicitly mentioned in any of the quotes given to teachers. Yet, as demonstrated within this section, it was a prominent theme within the data. This positivity towards parents' English will be discussed further within section 5.9 as part of a wider discussion of the dominance of English within schools and societies.

5.8 Educational, context-driven and more tangible factors which may affect teachers' willingness and confidence: A summary

The factors which may affect teachers' willingness and confidence to implement home language and multilingual activities discussed up until this point have all been educational, context-driven and more tangible factors, much like those discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.3. Such factors are, on the surface, perhaps easier to address than more attitudinal and ideological factors discussed within the second half of this chapter.

While the factors discussed above may seem easier to address, in order to do so, a focused effort may need to begin long before ITT. For example, attitudes towards languages and language learning as well as number of language qualifications were all shown to be significant factors in determining teachers' willingness and confidence scores. Yet, creating such language-minded teachers arguably requires fostering an interest in languages from an early age. This is just one example of how many of the issues in this project can be seen as cyclical, in that, if primary schools embrace multilingualism (or language learning), they help to create language-minded pupils who then may go on to become language-minded teachers.

Some factors discussed above relate to teachers' experience during their career, however. For example, teacher mobility and access to training in *all* (i.e. monolingual and multicultural) areas. While these may, on the surface, appear to be more tangible factors, they are, however, often out of teachers' control. Top-down support would be required, for example, in order to secure the provision of training. Additionally, the data suggest that

currently, conflicting views on when home language use is appropriate may be held. Therefore, even if teachers experience a more diverse range of classrooms, their perceptions of what may be appropriate for these classrooms, may still differ. Arguably, this is where the importance of initial teacher training is most apparent. If teachers are equipped with the knowledge to make decisions based on the same set of principles and guidelines, less variable practice may, in turn, be observable within classrooms. This is, again, likely to require top-down influence in order to establish such guidelines. However, the likelihood of achieving such change must be considered within the current political context and with reference to language ideologies held on a national level. Such ideologies are the focus of the next sections.

5.9 Language ideologies held by teachers

Language ideologies have been defined as “the abstract (and often implicit) belief systems related to language and linguistic behaviour” (Silverstein, 1998, p. 138). Such ideologies, which emerged throughout the teachers’ data, will be analysed and discussed within this section in reference to how they may affect teachers’ perceptions of adopting home language and multilingual pedagogies. Indeed, it has been argued that such ideologies are *central* in understanding teachers’ practice, above what they may do in the classroom and how they may do it (Martin-Jones, 2009; Young, 2014).

5.9.1 Evidence of pro-home languages (and politically correct) rhetoric

Within both the teachers’ questionnaire and the focus groups, the presence of overtly positive attitudes towards home languages and support for the inclusion of pupils who use EAL were evident. This can be seen as having two important implications for this project. Firstly, positive attitudes such as these suggest teachers *are* willing to consider home language and multilingual pedagogy from an ideological standpoint. Secondly, if such attitudes are not held in unison with classroom practice, or in this case, data provided regarding classroom practice, they may suggest the presence of response or social-desirability bias within the data as well as a more general disparity between rhetoric and practice. Indeed, the latter conclusion was drawn from Mehmedbegovic’s (2008;2011) research looking at attitudes towards home languages.

When the teachers were presented with the open textbox after each suggested activity, they largely used this as an opportunity to provide additional information about their experiences of the activity or a similar one (97 references). While these comments did

not directly explain teachers' willingness, they do indicate that teachers were keen to *show* their willingness. This eagerness to answer or to provide additional detail suggests the data may be subject to a certain amount of response bias which, thus, may also be true for all other data collected within the questionnaire.

While such "showing willingness" comments highlight issues of bias, they also, of course, exhibit a large amount of positivity towards the suggested activities shown by teachers that is not necessarily represented by the previously discussed data which only included *reasons* for teachers' willingness. Indeed, there were 15 comments left which contained only support for the use of the suggested activities (e.g. '*Great idea!*').

The freedom of the focus group dialogue allowed teachers to discuss their (positive) attitudes towards home languages without being constrained by the suggested activities. Across all of the focus groups, the *only* example of a "negative" attitude was one teacher who stated that she didn't think home languages should be spoken in school. However, the teacher in question was not holding the floor at the time and therefore this comment did not spark any further discussion. Without any other teachers initiating criticism of home language use in such a blanket way, it is difficult to gauge whether the absence of criticism in the data is an accurate reflection of teachers' views or is a result of group dynamics in a focus group.

Comments made which celebrated bilingualism in particular were evident within this dataset. For example, '*we always say how cool they are because they can do it in both. Two languages, it's a real skill*'. However, no examples of planned, repeated formal exchanges of knowledge from the child with EAL to the rest of the class were given. Instead, the teachers often talked in hypotheticals '*I think it would be good*', '*why, why? [wouldn't you do that activity] I was going to say 100% yes*'. This may be because they had never taught a child with EAL to reference, however. When the teachers did give classroom anecdotes, for example, '*we used it to do the register sometimes*', '*when it was international week we did Poland for a day and I've got two Polish children they came up to the front of the class and they taught all my children like the basic vocabulary...*', they were often limited in time and in line with the findings from the previous chapter, aural in nature.

Similar pro-home languages attitudes as to those demonstrated by the teachers in this study were also found in Mehmedbegovic's (2011) research. She found her participants (including head teachers and English lead professionals) to express positive attitudes

towards the concept of multiculturalism, in particular. Sadness at language loss and issues such as children losing the enthusiasm for, or the desire to learn, their home languages were also conveyed. However, despite this positive rhetoric, large amounts of variability were reported in whether schools used, or allowed the use of, home languages, despite the schools all being located in highly multilingual areas of the country (Mehmedbegovic, 2008, 2011).

5.9.2 How do the teachers perceive home languages to enhance children's learning experience?

Teachers' perceptions of the potential benefits to using home languages in their classrooms is conceivably likely to affect their willingness to use them. Within their discussion of these in the questionnaire, the teachers predominantly referenced cultural knowledge (7). Only one teacher referenced linguistic knowledge gained by children (*'I ... consider this activity very appropriate and useful not only to introduce an awareness of other languages ...'*). Given that all but one suggested activity involved languages (other than English), this is perhaps surprising. It also may suggest a lack of awareness about, or interest in, any potential linguistic benefits, or perhaps language education more generally.

Potential positive outcomes from the suggested activity, not explicitly related to children's *learning* experiences, were also referenced by the teachers. For example, building children's confidence and self-esteem (5) (e.g. *'this often helps children to develop self-esteem when they are new to a different culture (UK)'*). This was mentioned within two of the focus groups as well (e.g. *'And that would empower them, wouldn't it'*).

As well as educational benefits, pupils' enjoyment and enthusiasm were also commonly referenced within the questionnaire (16), and the focus groups. For example, *'the children enjoyed this immensely'* (from the questionnaire). Teachers specifically referenced monolingual children's enjoyment as well (3), for example, *'English children love this as much as EAL children and have found the English children trying to use these greetings also'*, and from the focus group: *'on the whole I have found the English children love hearing it and having a go'*.

While the first half of this chapter largely focused on potential barriers to the implementation of home language pedagogies, the examples within this section demonstrate how evidence of positive attitudes and indeed, implemented classroom practice, were also evident. If we compare the answers given within this section to the

themes which emerged from Mehmedbegovic's (2008, 2011) research, there are some comparisons which can be drawn. For example, the cognitive advantages that may result from being bilingual were, on the whole, unexplored by the head teachers Mehmedbegovic (2008) interviewed. In regards to using a child's first language in order to improve their English skills, the head teachers stated they were not aware of any benefits. Indeed, the converse was expressed by the interviewees (Mehmedbegovic, 2008). Answers instead, again, focused on the socio-cultural advantages. For example, language was seen as a useful resource that allows families, friends and communities to come together as well as being important for maintaining a child's identity (Mehmedbegovic, 2008). This project, as well as those undertaken by Mehmedbegovic (2008, 2011), also suggest that teachers are less aware of any potential cognitive advantages to being bilingual or using home languages in the classroom. Studies such as those discussed in 2.3.1.b (e.g. McLeay, 2009; Kharkhurin, 2010; Bialystok, 1988), which indicate a bilingual advantage, arguably provide a compelling rationale for the maintenance of home languages. However, as the previous section suggests, such potential advantages may be unknown and unexplored by teachers.

5.9.3 The existence of a monolingual mindset

Within much of the teachers' discussion of languages and language learning, it can be argued that the existence of a 'monolingual mindset' is evident, that is, an assumption that monolingualism is the norm, or a particular prioritisation and focus on one language (English). One example of this monolingual mindset being that within the open responses to the questionnaire, there were 77 references to English, this was the fifth most common word used by teachers (see Appendix 11), despite all suggested activities referencing languages *other* than English. While it is conceivable (and not inherently negative) that English is a priority for teachers and that they may refer to English when discussing other languages, its prominence within this dataset is nonetheless arguably surprising given that the focus of the study was so heavily on using *other* languages. The English language (dominance of) was also the second most prominent theme within the open question data as a whole, further indicating its centrality to the project as well as, perhaps, in teachers' views of their teaching priorities. The different strands of how this monolingual mindset was evident within the data are discussed below.

As discussed in section 1.4, the presence of monolingually-minded viewpoints, or an overall monolingual mindset, is a) perhaps not surprising given the lack of linguistic diversity in this geographical area or even, the proportion of monolingual English speakers in England

and b) not an inherently negative phenomenon. Instead, it is the implications of a monolingual mindset which are important to consider. Such views may influence teachers' perceptions of using home languages and languages more generally in their classroom. A monolingual mindset cannot be considered without the influence of a monolingual environment. Therefore, the teachers' responses discussed in this section which indicate the presence of a monolingual mindset do not necessarily mean this mindset is permanent, nor do they necessarily suggest conscious views of linguistic imperialism are held. However, they do potentially represent a significant, ideological barrier to adopting a more multilingual outlook in schools.

5.9.3.a ***The belief that English should take first priority***

As previously discussed, the pressure to achieve according to the curriculum was evident within the teachers' data (see section 5.5.3). While not explicitly mentioned by the teachers, implicit within this is the pressure for children to achieve the required standards *in English*. Perhaps for this reason, the concept of children's English being *first* priority (18) in particular, was very prevalent within the open questionnaire data. Teachers' comments indicated a strong belief that English should come first at school, but also the importance of speaking English for children's integration at school and within wider society (3) (e.g. '*I would be expecting them to learn and speak English at school as part of integration into this country*'). Again, this is arguably inseparable from a discussion of the curriculum which is implemented *in English*, therefore, the teachers' views regarding English cannot be attributed solely to their own personal monolingual mindset. This pressure to achieve in English is also exemplified in the teachers' language choices when writing their comments, for example, their repeated use of '*need*' in comments such as: '*we need to focus on English*' and '*you need to bear in mind that for children to achieve early years' outcomes lots of the statements can only be achieved in English*'.

Many comments which were coded in the category of *the dominance of English* were also coded in other categories. For example, '*I would not consider doing this in my current school, with so many pupils speaking so many languages we need to focus on English*'. As well implying a belief in English proficiency coming first, the teacher also comments on the number of EAL children. This suggests that teachers' beliefs in the priority of English exist for a reason other than purely its "supremacy". This being said, comments were also left which gave no reason for the prioritisation of English (e.g. '*I would be encouraging the use of English*', '*they need to learn the English before another language*').

The root of such beliefs is difficult to analyse without any further information, although the absence of additional information perhaps does indicate a more straightforward presence of a monolingual mindset in that no justification was considered necessary.

Extending beyond the classroom, the beliefs that English should take priority in England or in schools (in England) were also present within the data (13). Opinions expressed in this category were given with less explanation than those previously discussed in the theme of English proficiency. Comments included what appear to be teachers' or schools' own language policies regarding the use of English, for example '*...whilst still making it clear that we are a school in England where English is taught*' as well as more explicitly referencing integration as the motivation for these policies or beliefs '*I would be expecting them to learn and speak English at school as part of integration into this country*'.

These comments perhaps more explicitly point to more nationalistic views regarding the place of English within English, or British, society (e.g. '*We should all be assimilating together - if you're in an English speaking country then the common denominator is the English language*'). However, they also further indicate the presence of inclusion as a principle which guides teachers' practice and in this case, as a motivation for English-only. Again, the monolingual reality and specifically, context is also important to consider as such views are unlikely to be held in isolation from such factors.

As previously discussed, compared with factors explored in previous sections, such views perhaps represent more significant obstacles when considering the feasibility of using home language pedagogies more widely. They are likely to be both difficult to locate and to address. Additionally, they are likely to be tied to the role of English as the country's official language and thus, the medium of instruction in schools. As García (2009b) argues, mainstream schools adopting a monolingual outlook normalises this within society. As such, students have been described as being "doubly deprived of a multilingual education; first by virtue of a national 'monolingual' culture and low educational priority given to language learning, and secondly by lacking opportunities to observe multilingual practices in their [students'] own lives" (Lanvers et al., 2016, p.3). Indeed, this 'bizarre scenario', as described by Cummins (2005, p. 586), has been observed within other English-speaking countries, thus, the role of English as a *global* language, as well as a dominant language, must not be overlooked. The presence of a powerful language and with this, a monolingual mindset, it has been argued, can therefore be seen as contributing to a general lack of interest in other

languages and an unwillingness (conscious or not) to embrace language learning in any form (Clyne, 2005).

5.9.3.b *Teachers' concern over proficiency in English*

Implicit within the theme of the dominance of English and the pressure to achieve in English, is a discussion of proficiency in English. Within the data from the current project, teachers' references to this were prominent, particularly within the questionnaire. Their responses fell into two categories: a) that the decision to use home languages is based on children's English proficiency and b) English proficiency is children's ultimate goal. The first of these can be seen as an extension of the second. Further indicating the prominence of English within the data, this time within the focus group data, a discussion of parents' English proficiency, rather than children's, was also evident. Each of these themes will be presented below followed by a discussion of their significance for the project.

Basing decisions regarding home language use on English proficiency:

Within the questionnaire, many teachers (18) either stated or implied that if a child had a high proficiency in English, they would be more willing to implement the activity and a low level of English would make them less willing, as they would be encouraging the learning of English first (e.g. *'have done something similar with traditional tales in Y5 but feel English needs to be a priority currently, a lot of my children are still not reading phase 3 books'*). However, three teachers also listed children having a high proficiency in English as a reason why their willingness score was *lower* and seven teachers left comments stating that the given activity was more appropriate for children who are *new* to English. Therefore, this discussion of English proficiency is similar to much of the data within the teachers' questionnaire in that it is subject to variation. Indeed, some of the views expressed by teachers are completely contradictory.

While the view that home languages wouldn't be used as a result of a child's high English proficiency was attributed to less need for academic support generally (e.g. *'The children with EAL currently in my class both speak excellent English and therefore there has been no need to provide additional support as they are able to access all areas of the curriculum in English'*), the implicit assumption that home languages would not be used with proficient users of English was also conveyed (e.g. *'The 1 and only EAL child in the whole school speaks perfect English'*), in line with other data regarding proficiency in this section.

The assumption that proficiency in English is children's ultimate goal:

The assumption or perception that proficiency in English was the ultimate goal for children who use EAL was also present within the data throughout the project. This is reflected in the idea that home languages would only be used as a bridge to English, discussed in the section above. Language use, or language learning (for the monolingual children), was also often referred to as an obstruction to this aim of reaching English proficiency. Such beliefs in the negative effects of home language use will be discussed in section 5.10.1. While this can perhaps be attributable, in part, to teachers' own language ideologies, again, the role of the national curriculum in defining which languages are important to learn cannot be overlooked. The importance of English and its centrality to the curriculum is explicit within the document itself:

English is both a subject in its own right and the medium for teaching; for pupils, understanding the language provides access to the whole curriculum. Fluency in the English language is an essential foundation for success in all subjects (DfE, 2017b).

While the curriculum does not state that the use of home languages impedes the development of English or their use is forbidden, the strong rhetoric regarding English in the document itself is conceivably likely to shape teachers' views towards their practice, consciously or otherwise. Indeed, Overington (2012) states that children's ability to participate in the mainstream curriculum (in English) is the government's priority. The transference of this to schools and teachers is thus unsurprising. It is also important to state that children accessing the curriculum is, of course, essential for their educational progress and beyond. The question perhaps is rather of the extent to which a focus on achieving English proficiency *as quickly as possible* limits the potential for home languages to be used and the potential benefits of such use, to be reaped.

Parents' English proficiency

As previously discussed, within the focus group data, the teachers drew links between parents' English ability and the child's educational progression. One clear example of this is the exchange below:

- Teacher One: *'because it could mean that the children are speaking English here but at home they've no opportunity to because their parents (agreement in background) don't speak English (agreement in background) and we've got children like that'*

- Teacher Two: *'that happens a lot (agreement in background) that's what I thought it meant yeah and then it's almost like they're taking like five steps forward and then two back (agreement in background) all the time because of yeah, I think that's what it could mean, it doesn't help does it.'*
- Teacher One: *'no it doesn't help at all'*

The teachers were discussing how they didn't understand the focus group prompt ... *in our current system, their [bilingual children's] home lives are so different from their school lives, they never get the chance to develop their bilingual identities*, yet focused this discussion on English proficiency rather than identity. As well as having expressed frustration at parents' low proficiency levels, much like the teachers in Flynn's (2013) study, this perhaps also suggests that the teachers did not see a problem with not acknowledging this other side of children's identities within the classroom. This contrasts to the findings in Kenner et al.'s (2008) study, in which it was concluded that *by* introducing home languages into the classroom, the children were afforded the opportunity to develop their bilingual identities.

This explicit link between parents' English skills and children's educational progression observable in the first exchange was also corroborated in other groups:

- *'I also think it's easier with Kaita because of his parents, his mum has got a good grasp of the English language (yeah)'*
- *'because I think the one who is achieving more, seems to probably speak more English out of school, the parents are more interested in what's going on, whereas the other child'*
- *'he speaks Polish instantly out of school and seems a lot less interested in what's going on'*

As demonstrated in these extracts from other focus groups, the teachers did not only make the link between parents speaking English and a child's progression in English (and therefore the curriculum more generally), some also saw those parents and those children as being more engaged with their (child's) education. The teachers also praised the parents for improving their own English (*'they speak English and mum maybe not fluent but she's very good at trying at least to speak English and she says she prefers to speak English'*). While, again, the importance of English for life in Britain is important to recognise, schools' positive reinforcement of English use, explicitly or otherwise, may encourage the adoption of English as the dominant language used within the family setting, as well as the school

setting. Thus, language loss may occur not necessarily as a result of the family's choice, but instead, of conscious or unconscious pressure resulting from such positive reinforcement.

Anglocentric attitudes

Within the focus groups, teachers' attitudes towards their own use of languages other than English were often discussed (see section 5.2.1 also). This was primarily in the context of their experiences abroad. For example:

- *'you do expect people to be able to speak English, that's just the natural thing'*
- *'when me and [my partner] went to France like a few weeks ago I didn't know any French but I was like 'oh all the people in France will be able to speak English' you just like (agreement in background) assume don't you (agreement in background)'*
- *'when I go to another country I don't learn anything (agreement in background) and I rely on going 'here you go' 'this and that' (laughter in background)'*

Within these comments, anglocentric attitudes are arguably evident in terms of the teachers' belief that they do not need to learn other languages to visit other countries. An awareness of this was raised by one teacher, however: *'yes because when they come to England and they're speaking in their language you think they should really (agreement in background) be trying to speak English but then we don't do that when we go there'*. The concept that this was motivated by speakers of other languages was also evident. For example:

- *'I go to Germany a lot, you try and speak German, they just want to speak English to you because they just want to practise'*
- *'and the problem is if you do go abroad and they know you're English they immediately want to practice their English, they want to practise on you.'*
- *'when I went to France just to try and speak French they kind of didn't really want me to try because it wasn't their standard of French and they were like basically 'oh just speak your own language' because you are doing ours no favours.'*

Anglocentric attitudes are arguably further evidenced in these examples in that the teachers perceive the use of English by non-native speakers as them wanting to practise their English or not wanting the them to speak the language. While these attitudes do not explicitly contribute to our understanding of why teachers may or may not wish to use home languages in their classrooms, they do indicate the potential for (albeit fairly benevolent) anglocentric views to be held. These views are perhaps, in some teachers, unlikely to be

conducive to a willingness to celebrate linguistic diversity and incorporate languages in the classroom.

5.9.3.c *The role of English: A summary*

The dominance of English within the teachers' data can be seen as having several significant implications for this project. Firstly, it is likely to represent a significant obstacle to the potential implementation of home language pedagogies, particularly within a more formal capacity (e.g. written work or planned, repeated inclusion in lessons). Indeed, Eisenclas et al. (2015) declare a monolingual English bias to be the biggest obstacle to minority language education. As demonstrated throughout the previous sections, the teachers were very aware of the need for children to achieve the standards set by the curriculum *in English*. For this reason, they are unlikely to consider practice which they feel may hinder children's progression. Additionally, as the language of the nation-state, its status is thus clearly dictated with schools and society and as a result, often also within schools' and teachers' eyes (Duarte, 2011; Young, 2017). This can translate to a pressure to only teach "official" knowledge that teachers may be subject to (Conteh, 2012). For this reason, as argued by Bourne (2001) and Conteh (2012), the inclusion of home languages is seen either as a hindrance to the lesson aims, or as something which is separate from the formal learning process. Both of these perceptions have been demonstrated by teachers within this project (see sections 5.5.1 and 4.4, for example). As discussed throughout, neither a focus on English nor evidence of a monolingual mindset are necessarily problematic in their own right, instead, it is the extent to which both of these create a cyclical monolingual culture which, in turn, may restrict the potential for multilingualism to positively influence schools and classrooms.

Secondly, as formal education is central to the learning process and in this case, the language learning process, it has substantial influence on what is considered "correct" language (Corson, 1993). Subsequently, teachers' and indeed, children's (including those with EAL) own language ideologies are likely to be influenced by the role of English within the curriculum. As a result, children speaking non-standard forms (which may include children with EAL) may devalue their own speech forms (Mugglestone, 2007) and teachers may choose not to promote languages or language forms which deviate from what they perceive to be standard. Such attitudes may therefore lead to discrimination based on language. In experimental conditions, speaking a foreign language has been shown to reduce discriminatory attitudes towards speakers of other languages (e.g. Hansen et al.,

2013). Therefore, exploring, and indeed, speaking, other languages may serve to reduce discrimination within classrooms and perhaps even wider society, thus, arguably providing a strong rationale for the inclusion of languages (other than English) in classrooms.

Thirdly, home language provision remains variable (Tinsley & Board, 2016) and primarily organised by voluntary and private initiatives (e.g. complimentary schools) in the UK (EACEA, 2009). However, evidence from other European countries, suggests that home language policies *can* be successfully implemented within mainstream schools (EACEA, 2009; Roth & Duarte, 2011). More specifically, the EUCIM-TE (Roth & Duarte, 2011), developed a curriculum which demonstrates how home languages can be used as a *resource* within schools. While the current project examines *teachers'* attitudes towards such implementation, conceivably, wider, societal and political factors as to why such initiatives are taking place in other European countries, yet not Britain, must be considered. While perhaps not the sole reason for the lack of policy of top-down initiative, attitudes towards English, such as those discussed within this section, are perhaps a significant contributing factor.

For example, a wider implication of the dominance of English is that of anglocentric ideologies, such as those demonstrated by the teachers in the focus groups. These arguably relate to the position of English as a *global* as well as dominant language (e.g. de Swaan, 2001). The implications of this for all language learning may be more immediately observable, for example, by a lack of motivation to learn languages (Crystal, 2003). However, they may also lead to wider language ideologies held within society. Indeed, results from the British Social Attitudes Survey (National Centre for Social Research, 2017), suggest that speaking English is now more widely prioritised than ever before (in terms of migrant selection criteria). Such views, are also likely to relate to the notion of a nation-state and the importance of monolingualism for this concept (e.g., Duarte, 2011; Young, 2017). Thus, the dominance of English is an issue which extends more widely than the teachers' discussion of speaking English abroad. It is perhaps difficult to gauge the full effect such ideologies had on this data, nonetheless, their importance in limiting the potential for "other" language use should not be overlooked.

5.10 Language learning ideologies evident within the data

Within both teacher datasets, ideologies about how languages are learnt and how these may affect teachers' willingness to use home languages in the classroom emerged.

The two most prominent of these and how they relate to wider themes within the data are discussed within this section.

5.10.1 The belief that additional languages cause confusion and disruption

Within the questionnaire data, the word '*confuse*' was commonly used when referring to problems associated with using two languages in the classroom (8). The comments left suggested that some teachers thought this would be true for the children using EAL as well as monolingual children (e.g. SEN children). No teachers referred to *why* or *what* would cause confusion, other than using or learning the language stipulated. Teachers' perceptions of additional languages causing confusion, and subsequently, hindering educational progression (particularly in English) are conceivably likely to influence their preparedness to use them in the classroom, again, especially within the '*statistics-driven*' climate of teaching (as described in the focus groups). These are not unique to this project, however: similar views were found in both Conteh (2012) and Mehmedbegovic's (2011) studies, thus suggesting such viewpoints may extend further than the particularly monolingual context of the current study.

In the questionnaire, teachers also referred to how activities may cause behavioural issues (6). These comments were primarily in response to the suggested "activity" *allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish*. The latter included '*inappropriate*' words being taught and conversations had, children arguing in their home languages and difficulty in ensuring children are '*on task*'. For example, '*It tends to hamper their learning of English as they are delighted to be able to natter in their own language and tend to lose focus on what they are supposed to be doing*'. Such comments perhaps also feed into the overarching theme of teacher control present within the data, this is discussed later within this chapter.

Within the research that has documented the implementation of home language pedagogies, such potential issues are yet to be explored. This may be because the researchers did not encounter any problems, it may be because such problems are actually unlikely to occur or it may be due to the nature of the existing research (i.e. one activity was implemented at one time-point) (e.g. McGilp, 2014; Kenner et al., 2008). Arguably, above all else, the presence of this theme highlights the importance of involving teachers in discussions about the potential implementation of new pedagogy. As Mehmedbegovic (2011) states, a disparity between research which advocates the use of home languages and

classroom practice can be seen. Implicit within this is perhaps the assumption that teachers are unaware of educational research. Yet, this section demonstrates how this can, in fact, operate in both directions as the practical classroom issues that may result from home language use also appear to have been neglected by educational research thus far.

5.10.2 The belief that languages are best learnt through immersion

Another way in which the relationship (or lack of) between language research and teaching practice is highlighted is through the teachers' discussion of *how* languages are learnt. One of the most prominent language learning ideologies present within the data was that of learning languages through immersion. This concept was referenced in both the focus groups as well as the teachers' questionnaire.

Within the focus groups, the teachers spoke positively of the results of immersion for their pupils with EAL:

- *'he's been spoken to in English constantly at school ... and he's only been in school since September. So that quickly, he's picked that up'*
- *'I've found on the whole children with no English seem to pick it up really quickly (agreement in background) don't they'*
- *'the little boy I had in who spoke no English at all a few weeks ago and really struggling with behaviour and everything now he's asking to go to the toilet now and yes he says please and thank you now and really now after being totally immersed in English (agreement in background) he's definitely speaking some English now'*
- *'he was in my class years ago ... because he's young and he's a sponge and he can soak it and I think that's okay'*

As the quotes demonstrate, the teachers appear to see these as successful examples. No examples of home languages strategically being used in order to help the child learn English were provided within the data, therefore perhaps immersion was the *only* available option to a lot of children whose families may not have the means nor available resources to learn English using their home language. For this reason, such "success stories" perhaps feed the perception that immersion is successful without an awareness of any alternative methods. If teachers were to be provided with training regarding language learning techniques, perhaps such a bias towards immersive learning, likely to have been reinforced through teachers' sharing of success stories, would not be as observable. Yet,

without such training, nor indeed, research implementing other techniques in UK classrooms, we are unable to draw any clear conclusions as to what is effective practice in a primary school setting.

Related to this, the teachers also attributed their own inability to speak languages to having no opportunity to use them in an immersive, monolingual context (e.g. *'Unless you do find a place where you can go and keep them up or go to those countries it is hard to get the experience'*). The monolingual context is again key in this respect and specifically, the potential for a cyclical absence of languages to shape teachers' views regarding language learning and indeed, their own self-efficacy as language learners. Such views can also be seen as contributing to the legitimisation of English-only policies as a result of the monolingual context (i.e. inability to *'find a place where you can go and keep them up'*). In theory, many teachers or children may never be immersed in another language, nor have the motivation to do so. The belief in immersive language learning may therefore contribute to a wider debate about "why should we learn languages?"

5.11 Learning ideologies evident within the data: Teacher control and who provides the (correct) knowledge

As well as language ideologies being evident within the data, beliefs about learning and teaching in a formal setting seemingly unrelated to language, yet potentially affecting teachers' practice regarding home languages, were also evident. As with language ideologies, such beliefs held by teachers hold significance for this project in that they are likely to be deep-rooted and subconscious (Silverstein, 1998). For this reason, they are also likely to be difficult to locate and address.

Teachers' control, their role as the provider of *correct* knowledge and facilitator of lesson content, is a theme which overarches many others within this study. While rarely mentioned explicitly, it can be seen as affecting (subconsciously or otherwise) many of the viewpoints articulated by the teachers.

For example, within the questionnaire data, the teachers expressed that they would be uncomfortable with the idea of not knowing what the children are saying in their home language(s) (3) (e.g. *'I would worry that I didn't know what the children are saying'*). Physically controlling home language use was also referenced (e.g. *'there has to be an awareness of certain boundaries & behaviours, when this is allowed'*, *'I would want to ensure that the children were also taught the etiquette of using a different language around*

others'). This view was corroborated by some, although not all, teachers within the focus groups. When expressed, the teachers indicated that the root of this was an inability to trust the child to teach what they were supposed to be (e.g. *'they could be saying something different than what they actually are saying'*). This objection was hypothetical within one focus group, although an anecdote illustrating the origins of this concern was given in another:

- Teacher One: *'... as long as they are not teaching swear words'*
- Teacher Two: *'like Kaita did (laughter)'*
- Teacher Three: *'Well, it wasn't a swear word. He was calling Eliza 'Mrs [Japanese word]' for weeks and weeks and then he was in the loo shouting the same word and Eliza and I look to each other and we had a little google. He was calling her "Mrs Poo" for weeks (laughter) and giggling about it. And that's when we realised that actually there was more going on in there than we actually thought.'*
- Teacher Two: *'Little monkey!' (laughter)*

The teachers in this example were not necessarily exhibiting serious concerns, yet the anecdote had appeared to change their perception of the child in question and perhaps their willingness to take what the child was saying at face value in the future. Similar concerns were also expressed by teachers in the questionnaire regarding disruptive behaviour and inappropriate words being used, as discussed in section 5.10.1.

In a similar vein to the child providing inappropriate language, concerns over children providing *incorrect* information or not having adequate skills in their home language were also expressed in the questionnaire data (10). One teacher summarised this concern as: *'with children in this age group, they are likely to spell these words incorrectly, if they know them. It would be wrong to accept an incorrect spelling of the words, and not doing the child any favours'*. Within this quote, the teacher exhibits a generalised, fairly blanket rejection of this idea, however, it is important to recognise the deep-rooted ideologies that may be forming this. Such concerns can, for example, perhaps be seen as resulting from a pressure to convey official knowledge (Conteh, 2012) and to succeed within the terms established by the curriculum.

Related to the above concern, within the questionnaire, it was also stated that an activity would only be undertaken if the teacher had the required knowledge *first* as well as concerns over the teacher also providing incorrect knowledge (5). However, a fundamental aspect of the activities suggested in the questionnaire is that the teacher does not need to

provide knowledge (see section 2.3.5 for the rationale behind this). If trusting the child to provide the knowledge is difficult or unfeasible for teachers, this may present a substantial hurdle to the potential implementation of such pedagogies. As the National Curriculum has traditionally established what is official knowledge (Conteh, 2012), the ways in which this knowledge is taught (i.e. through the teacher only) are also, to a certain extent, long-established. As Bourne (2001) argues: if the use of languages (i.e. incorporating home languages) is to be re-considered, the role of the teacher and the way we perceive the learning process must also be re-considered.

Similar concerns were also discussed in the focus groups as one of the statements presented to the teachers explicitly referenced teachers' control. While most groups did not focus on this aspect of the quote, a teacher in one group stated: *'teachers have to be in control. Not like to be in control'*, thereby expressing reasonably strong disagreement with the quote: *the problem of our system is that teachers like to be in control* Another teacher discussed the link between the curriculum and teachers' control:

'I think as well, our new curriculum, is meant to have, well I read it somewhere, about this whole like kids are meant to be in awe of teachers because they've got this knowledge that they didn't have. And I guess if you don't feel like you've got control, or if you don't feel like you've got the knowledge, then they're not going to be looking up to you, they're going to be, they might walk all over you kind of thing.'

This classroom ideology, that teachers must be "in control", may therefore be a deep-rooted perception held about teachers' role in the classroom, one that is perhaps difficult for teachers to be introspective about. As shown above, the only teacher that objectively commented on this part of the quote did so after having read an article about that very issue. This ideology and subsequent practice, may therefore be preserved through the curriculum, as with many of the issues discussed in this section. The maintenance of teacher control is not a theme unique to this data as it was also prominent in Mehmedbegovic's (2008;2011) interview data from a range of practitioners. For example, using home languages was discussed in the context of taking risks by one head teacher interviewed. Despite potentially being a deep-rooted learning ideology, the anecdote from the teacher above (who had read about teacher control) suggests that teachers' awareness of control can be raised. Subsequently, such awareness raising and explicit discussion of teacher control could conceivably be used in teacher training if this potential obstacle to the implementation of child-responsive, home language pedagogies were to be widely addressed.

5.12 The socio-political climate of the time

Within the focus group data, the influence of the socio-political climate at the time of researching was evident within much of the teachers' dialogue. Unlike the factors that may affect the feasibility of implementing more multilingual pedagogy which were discussed within the previous two chapters, the issues discussed within this chapter are much more likely to develop and change. The subsequent effect of these issues on teachers' attitudes and practice is likely also to change, the direction of which is difficult to predict. For this reason, they hold significance for the project in terms of representing factors, often context-driven, which may significantly influence teachers' attitudes as well as their current practice moving forwards.

5.12.1 The impact of Brexit

The UK referendum on whether to stay in the European Union (henceforth Brexit) took place after the teachers' questionnaires had been administered and only weeks before the focus groups took place. Some explicit references to Brexit were made in the data which are discussed within this section. It is also important to consider the effect the Brexit vote may have had more generally on teachers' views and their input to the focus group. However, it is impossible to know how the focus groups would have been any different before this vote, or had there been a different result.

The research area includes some of the regions with the highest proportion of Leave votes from the whole country. There are, of course, likely to be a range of individual motivations for these votes, with education and age shown to have been central to voting patterns (Rosenbaum, 2017, February 6). However, the high proportion of Leave votes does perhaps suggest that the area has not adapted well to a recent increase in immigration, as reported in the national news post-referendum (e.g. "the most divided place in England" (Gallagher, 2016, January 28). It also may suggest some people within the area may hold more nationalistic views which may, in turn, affect their views towards protecting the dominance of the English language as well as which languages, if any, are to be learnt in schools.

There was an awareness of Brexit and the implications for language learning more specifically, within the focus group data. This comment was made by one teacher:

'I think some of the Brexit talks are going to be carried out in French and I almost think that's a punishment to the country that actually, yeah you're not actually going to know what's going on'

The teacher was responding to a quote stating that British people are disadvantaged by poor language learning (see Appendix 16). However, this teacher's comment suggests that she sees this disadvantage in the form of a "linguistic punishment". This is perhaps a surprising interpretation of how monolingualism can be a disadvantage compared with other economic and particularly, social reasons as discussed by the participants in Mehmedbegovic's (Mehmedbegovic, 2008, 2011) study who were given the same quote to discuss. This may be attributable to a difference in participants' views, or it may be as a result of the Brexit vote and rhetoric surrounding it.

In fact, since Brexit, calls for better language learning in schools have been made "not only to avoid isolationist attitudes evolving further, but to ensure that young people have the skills they need to succeed in a global jobs market" (Ridealgh, 2017). While the teachers in the focus groups were generally convinced that the UK population were complacent about learning languages (e.g. *'we do become complacent'*; *'I think we are complacent as a nation'*; *'it's so true'*), the concept that this was detrimental to employability was, on the whole, unexplored by the teachers.

Ultimately therefore, Brexit not only provides a rationale for the inclusion of increased language learning (Ridealgh, 2017, para. 17) and indeed, education regarding linguistic diversity and intercultural understanding, it may also indicate the potential for strong resistance to their inclusion in education in areas such as this. Such paradoxes, where a strong rationale for multilingual pedagogy is also a significant reason why such pedagogy might *not* be implemented, are evident throughout the data, particularly those presented within this chapter. Ultimately, Brexit is one aspect of a wider discussion surrounding nationalism, monolingualism, diversity and tolerance that is central when considering the social justice rationale for home language and multilingual education (e.g. N. Jones et al., 2005; Lanvers et al., 2016; McGilp, 2014; Young & Helot, 2003).

5.12.2 Discussion of Islamophobia in the focus group data

While it was expected that attitudes towards different languages would be central to this project and of course, these are unlikely to be held in isolation from attitudes towards "groups" of people and cultures, the prominence of religion within this project was

not anticipated. Within the focus groups, this took the form of discussions about Islamophobia and in particular, Islamophobia amongst parents. These comments were made in response to the quote: *...the children did some bilingual storytelling even though they were not bilingual themselves ... A few days later, some parents approached the head collectively asking whether their children would be learning "that language" and if they were, could they be withdrawn from it!...*, an anecdote given by a teacher in Conteh's (Conteh, 2007) research.

Within the focus groups, there was not one teacher who said they had never heard of something similar happening, nor could not imagine something similar happening. While the teachers were not surprised to read the anecdote, all the groups condemned what had happened in it (e.g. *'I can imagine that happening but it's embarrassing to even read that'*). Almost of all the anecdotes shared by teachers were in relation to teaching about Islam. The anecdotes shared included:

- *'yeah I had something last year when I was teaching Islam'*
- *'parents saying oh I don't want them to learn anything about Islam or linking to the languages'*
- *'we've had children who have been withdrawn at our previous school been withdrawn from RE when we was learning about erm Islam' [sic]*
- *'I've been in another school, and been asked not necessarily not to teach languages but been asked not to teach certain things for RE and things like that'*
- *'We've had parents (unintelligible) ... they don't want them to do them, it was a mosque wasn't it down in Leicester or something'*
- *'yeah it is, I was just thinking that (another teacher mentions a mosque trip in the background) yeah, initially, but it's getting better the more we do it'*
- *'the only thing I can think of is just one particular parent who took a dislike to a particular reading book erm which had some Asian-sounding names in. That parent didn't want their children reading that book'*

These anecdotes arguably show the pressure parents can put on a school or a teacher to deliver a curriculum that fits with their political and ideological views. None of the teachers referenced changing their practice due to this parental pressure, however. Indeed, the teachers, on the whole, demonstrated very critical attitudes towards such parental pressure (e.g. *'they were egging each other on because on their own, you know,*

surely they'd be too embarrassed', 'you just need one to start and they'll follow like sheep (agreement in background)').

From this dataset therefore, it is difficult to ascertain how much such parental pressure is likely to influence classroom practice and, of course, such anecdotes also have wider societal implications beyond this project. They also indicate a lack of awareness and moreover, tolerance, that may exist within some communities in the research area. This again, paradoxically, can be seen as being both a strong rationale for the inclusion of linguistic and cultural education as well as an extremely troubling potential barrier to its implementation.

5.12.3 The presence of politically-driven linguicism

Discrimination, specifically relating to native languages and accents, is less commonly discussed than discrimination based on race, for example (Fuertes et al., 2012), and is therefore arguably less likely to be detected within educational settings. Yet, beliefs about the supremacy of one language over another is conceivably likely to have implications for language choice in education. This is exemplified by the prevalent discussion of the English language within previous sections.

The presence of such attitudes within society, policy, as well as the presence of a hierarchy of languages and discrimination based on ability in English can all be seen as *linguicism* (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988). The presence of linguicism holds significance within this project as well as for language teaching, learning and use within classrooms more generally.

In order to ascertain the effect that attitudes towards a certain language may have on language choices in schools, where possible, teachers were prompted to discuss whether they could see any potential parental backlash from teaching certain languages. Only one teacher named a specific language: *'I bet you get certain some at the moment if you were learning Arabic or something I bet you'd get some ...'* to which the rest of the group responded with agreement *'oh, oh, definitely, definitely (loud agreement from others)'*. Others stated that they could imagine receiving some backlash (e.g. *'I really think with specific languages you could get some very negative (agreement in background) ... (another teacher) very, very negative'*). Therefore, while the teachers did not contribute any specific anecdotes regarding language learning, their responses suggest that this is certainly not inconceivable to them. Without further research, it is difficult to draw any conclusions as to

the implications of such responses for language learning. As discussed throughout, there are many factors at play when deciding which languages to teach and currently, French remains the norm for primary schools (Tinsley & Board, 2016). However, if teachers are to respond to the languages in their classroom, they are also responding to the pupils in their classroom. Negative attitudes towards languages would therefore represent negative attitudes towards that child. If such pedagogy were to be adopted and such attitudes demonstrated, the implications of this are potentially very serious.

Again, this provides a strong rationale for the inclusion of pedagogy which aims to raise children's awareness of linguistic differences and celebrate these differences. The significance of which is highlighted by the findings from Elton-Chalcraft's (2009) study where it was found that children perceived speaking English to be a necessary requisite of being British. The potential for such exclusionary attitudes to exist amongst primary school-aged children is thus demonstrated. In order to equip teachers with the knowledge and tools to address such issues in their classrooms (and with parents) it has been argued that all trainee teachers should receive diversity education (Nieto, 2000). As King (2004) highlights, teachers who have very little personal experience of diversity may then struggle to successfully represent diversity within their classrooms. Therefore, raising this awareness *before* they enter the profession may have a significant effect on their awareness of attitudes (such as those exhibited within the quotes in this section) as well as their ability to address them.

5.12.4 The socio-political climate of a localised area

While Brexit is a national issue, as demonstrated within the previous section, it is also important to consider the local context and the current socio-political climate. Previous research has shown the local geographical area to influence teachers' preparedness to teach pupils with EAL in particular (e.g. Murakami (2008); Foley et al. (2013)). For this reason, it is arguably important to consider the implementation of policy, or in this case, potential policy and practice, through a local lens (Creese, 2003). Therefore, the issues presented within this section which emerged from the focus group data, are of particular significance to teachers within the research area.

5.12.4.a *Low SES, benefit culture and the need for languages*

As discussed in section 2.4.8, a discussion of language use is arguably inseparable from one of socio-economic status (Block, 2013). We know that education plays a central

role in legitimising certain forms of knowledge and what may be considered “good” to learn (Corson, 1993; Mugglestone, 2007). The SES of language groups can also raise the status of that language within communities, as described in Mehmedbegovic’s (2011) study. The subsequent devaluation of forms of knowledge children with EAL (particularly from low SES backgrounds) may hold (i.e. their language) could have been one way in which the role of SES was evident this project. While the dominance of English and indeed, French in the data can, on the one hand, be seen as an illustration of the social “power” and status of a language, there are many other factors at play in establishing the dominance of these languages in schools (as discussed in sections). We may have seen a more explicit link between the SES of pupils with EAL and the gravitas their language holds, in determining teachers’ practice towards that language. However, such links were not discussed (explicitly or otherwise) by the teachers. Instead, the SES of *monolingual* children was discussed within the data which may be as a result of the research area being predominantly monolingual. Specifically, SES was discussed in terms of parents being benefit claimants.

While benefit claimants and what may be termed *benefits culture* (Milmo, 2015), was only discussed in one focus group in this study, it was very prominent within this dialogue. Each school participating in this phase had slightly different pupil demographics, or socio-economic context, as shown in Table 6 in section 3.6.1. However, this was the school with the highest number of pupils eligible for free school meals (almost two thirds - much higher than the national average of 14.5% (DfE, 2016)). The discussion of benefits is perhaps attributable to this difference in the SES of pupils.

The teachers in this group attributed British complacency regarding language learning and thus, employability, to the benefits culture they believe to exist (in response to the prompt about complacency in language learning): *‘the kids in the school will end up doing the same thing because they know “well I don't need the work” “why should I?”*. Their responses suggest they were very critical of this culture and of the effect it has on children’s motivation: *‘it's all over the news you hear people saying all it's all going to change, benefits change, benefits this... it's made no difference from what I see in the classroom. What you hear kids saying. Mums, dads, getting paid to do nothing. Basically that. So I'll do the same’*.

While criticising this culture, the teachers in this group did not see language learning (as it currently exists) as an effective use of curriculum time for pupils within this socio-

economic environment. For example: *'What are our kids going to get out of learning French?'* This school (as it was an academy) was thus not currently teaching languages. While the teachers discussed their own linguistic capabilities as playing a role in this, they summarised the rationale as being *'it would be lovely to think that we had the ability to teach every single child another language but it's just time and the plausibility of it ... (another teacher) when we failed our Ofsted, French sort of went to the side a little bit'*.

This school can be seen as a clear example of how the socio-economic landscape of a given area, or a given school, can influence curriculum priorities. The link between SES and language learning has previously been explored within educational research. For example, in Gayton's (2010) study, within this, teachers' discussion of language learning motivation and SES was linked to access to foreign travel. While this was never explicitly mentioned in the focus group data, one of the implications of *'What are our kids going to get out of learning French?'* is conceivably that – the children attending this school are perhaps unlikely to travel, or as an extension of this, work, abroad. The ability to travel or have an awareness of beyond the local area was also discussed within another focus group (also within a low socio-economic area of the county). One teacher stated:

'they've got to be able to see out of [the town name] these children (agreement in background) they've got to be able to see that there is a big world out there and even if you're just showing them how to say hello and goodbye and good afternoon and whatever it's just something (agreement in background) and they see that these children have like interesting things going on in their lives and cultural things and it's just good for them to see that it's not that everything is just about within one mile of this school'

This view contradicts that of the first (*'What are our kids..?'*) in that language learning is seen as a positive and necessary addition to the children's education. One possible difference is the quote which elicited these differing opinions, while in the first example, the teacher was specifically talking about what may be considered more formal language learning and specifically, French, the second is responding to the quote: *I would be uncomfortable with allowing my EAL children to teach the rest of the class some Polish because I feel it is my role to teach.*

The second quote (*'they've got to be able to see out of...'*) also corroborates the rationale behind the teaching intervention in Lanvers et al. (2016) (although this was aimed

at secondary school students). The materials aimed to initiate “learning and discussions of world languages, national multilingualism and cognitive effects of bilingualism” (Lanvers et al., 2016, p. 7). As previously discussed, students’ attitudes towards valuing multilingualism and the cognitive effects of learning languages were significantly improved in the post-questionnaire. As Lanvers et al. (2016, p. 13) note, such education is effective in changing students’ attitudes as “it counters anglocentrism, and the ‘monolingual bubble’ that anglophones might live in, especially if they live in a relatively rural, monocultural and monolingual part of the UK”. This intervention was, however, only delivered in three schools and did not examine the role of pupils’ SES in shaping their attitudes towards languages. Therefore, the question of how well such interventions can address issues stemming from low SES areas (e.g. access to travel) is yet to be established.

5.12.4.b ***Local patterns of immigration and cultural work ethic***

Within the discussion of benefit culture in the previous section is also a broader criticism of British, or perhaps more localised, work ethic. Cultural work ethic was discussed throughout the focus groups and often in reference to parents (as also discussed in section 5.9.3.b). Within the focus groups, the teachers specifically compared the work ethic of British pupils to that of other cultures’:

‘I think a lot of it is to do with, in my opinion, attitude. I think because today it's very easy for British people, not just English [to think/say]: ‘I don't need a job’ ‘I get paid enough sitting on my arse’. Whereas people who come from the likes of Eastern Europe they've got the right attitude, they know they've come here to work. So that's why. In my opinion.’

While this quote arguably demonstrates a very negative attitude towards British work ethic and a very positive attitude towards Eastern European work ethic, such comparisons were also evident, although perhaps in less antithetical form, within the other focus group discussions. This discussion was largely in response to the quote, *I look at my children and I think I wish I had more Polish children because it's so rewarding to teach them because they want to learn and they have motivation... the Polish children seem keener to work than the Bengali children I think*, presented to each group. While there was agreement for this statement in terms of Polish children, as also implied by the quote above, (e.g. *‘every Polish child I've ever taught has just been a dream (agreement in background) I've never had any Polish children that have had anything given anything less than 100 percent’*), the only

discussion of negative perceptions of children was in terms of monolingual English-speaking children (e.g. *'I think you could replace Bengali with English couldn't you (agreement in background)'*), linking back to the original quote regarding British work ethic.

Previous research has examined teachers' perceptions of Eastern European children in particular. Similar to teachers in the focus groups, Flynn (2013) also found the eight teachers interviewed in her study to demonstrate positive attitudes towards Polish children. Teacher perceptions of the family are also central to this, as in Archer and Francis's (2005) data, teachers in the focus groups tended to associate good academic achievement with family as well as cultural work ethic. This is demonstrated in this quote given by a teacher in the focus groups:

'We've said that before though haven't we about different cultures and how, the attitudes of some of our children and obviously with the parents as well isn't it, you know. The parents almost feel like it's a privilege that the children are coming to school to learn and that those children have a better attitude to learning than our English children. The Polish children in particular.'

As Li (2005) argues, such attitudes can place the responsibility for achieving with the pupil and with the family. It is expected that they will work hard as a prejudgement made about their culture. This, in turn, can take the responsibility away from the school. Additionally, this creates a potential difference in perceptions of the monolingual British pupils and the pupils with EAL if the monolingual British pupils *are* seen as the school's responsibility. Of course, this may not exist in all teachers' eyes and may be sub-conscious, but the potential implications of such a distinction could play a larger role in the amount of training, support and funding available for EAL education. Additionally, if teachers do see these children as "different" and perceive them to feel "privileged" to be at school, they may be less inclined to make changes to their practice for their benefit (which may include using home languages, for example). This may also operate contrariwise, in that, due to their *model minority* (Li, 2005) status, teachers may wish to change their practice as a result of their positive perceptions of their pupil.

In sum, research suggests that seemingly positive perceptions of minority ethnic students *can* cause teachers to change their classroom behaviour, have different expectations of children and react to behaviour differently (Connolly, 1998). Yet, it remains

unclear as to what extent teachers' positive (or negative) perceptions of children with EAL may influence their practice regarding issues such as using home languages.

5.13 Attitudinal and ideological factors which may affect teachers' willingness and confidence: A summary

As previously discussed, the factors which may affect teachers' preparedness to use home languages within this section are different in nature to the ones in the previous sections in that they are likely to be deep-rooted beliefs that the teachers hold. Language ideologies were particularly prominent within the data and within this, the role of English as the majority language in schools and society. Some attitudes expressed or discussed by the teachers were also topics that were timely and context-driven. Their presence in the data show how the social and political climate of the time can affect educational issues, despite many of these issues not appearing to be directly related to the research topic. As discussed in Chapter 2 (section 2.4) and arguably elucidated further through this project, many of the factors within this section also represent paradoxical rationales for home language use, in that, the same issue which creates the rationale, also represents an obstacle to their implementation (e.g. the existence of a monolingual mindset, Brexit and social divisions).

Chapter 6: Implementing and evaluating a home language awareness workshop on teacher training programmes

Within this chapter, results from the intervention with trainee teachers will be presented and discussed. As explained in Chapter 3, section 3.5.1, pre- and post-questionnaires were given to 293 trainee teachers. Throughout this chapter, the trainees who took part in the workshop ($N = 163$) will be referred to as the workshop group which is abbreviated to WG in all tables and graphs and the control group ($N = 130$) to CG.

6.1 The training received by the participating trainees

In the post-questionnaire, the trainees were asked to briefly outline the training they had received regarding teaching pupils who use EAL (other than that received as part of the research) on their course so far. As the groups (workshop or control) were largely determined by teacher training institution, though not exclusively, the coding for this question was analysed in terms of whether the trainees took part in the workshop or not as well as according to their initial teacher training institution (ITTI). An analysis of ITTI differences therefore gives some indication of the different training experiences that the trainees had had until this point and may continue to have, whereas the inclusion of workshop and control group differences are designed to give insight into the differences the trainees may have approached the workshop with.

Firstly, answers were coded as “yes” (I have received training) or “no” (I haven’t). Overall, 67 trainees answered that they had received some training regarding the teaching of EAL pupils and 107 reported that they had not (39% and 61% of all responses given). However, of the 124 responses given by ITTI1, 69% of these had *not* received any training by the post-questionnaire, whereas from ITTI2, 63% *had* received training in EAL education, indicating quite a substantial difference. In terms of the assigned groups for the intervention, 74% of the control group were yet to receive any training, whereas 59% of the workshop group had received training at this point. This difference could have had an influence on the group differences seen within the next chapter. However, none of the trainees had had explicit training on using home languages or multilingualism specifically.

Generally, the trainees did not give many details regarding the training they had received. The most prominent piece of information was that the training had been in the form of a lecture (39% of “yes” responses). Only three trainees from the same ITTI (2), who were all in the workshop group, specified that training had been given on their teaching

placement (e.g. ‘On my placement my mentor gave me some advice on this issue in regards to differentiating my lessons’). The only other prominent detail given by trainees was a reference to the brevity of training (e.g. ‘Been mentioned at university but not full lecturers’ and ‘A bit of a lecture’). Indeed, of the 67 “yes” responses to this question, 33 contained some reference to the brevity of this training. Not only does this suggest that, as the trainees report, training regarding EAL education had not been extensively provided, but also that the trainees themselves are aware of this. Their motivation to note such detail was perhaps their dissatisfaction with this amount. If so, this would corroborate the findings from the newly qualified teachers’ (NQT) survey which reported high levels of dissatisfaction with this element of training. For example, only 34% of primary-trained NQTs reported feeling well prepared to teach pupils with EAL (Pye et al., 2016).

6.1.1 The number of children with EAL the trainees have taught on their teaching placements

As part of the trainees’ courses, they were expected to undertake teaching placements in schools. During this time, trainees operationalise the more theoretical knowledge they receive from the university within the classroom (Hobson et al., 2008). Therefore, if student teachers are not afforded the opportunity to teach pupils with EAL, they are unable to put into practice any theoretical training they have received as part of their course.

Table 14 The number of children with EAL taught by the trainees

“In total, how many children who use EAL have you taught since you started your teacher training?”						
no. of children	CG		WG		Total	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
0	46	43	27	28	73	51
1	16	15	24	24	40	28
5+	14	13	10	10	24	17
20+	3	3	3	3	6	4

As Table 14 shows, the trainees taught varying numbers of pupils with EAL on their teaching placements. Some of this variation may be attributable to the different lengths of teaching placements undertaken on the different training placements. Within the control group, almost half had yet to teach a pupil with EAL on their training, conversely, only three trainees within each group had taught in highly multilingual classrooms. It is important to recognise that the trainees were not yet at the end of their training and these numbers may

change. However, already at this early stage of training, the trainees are likely to have had very different classroom experiences regarding pupils who use EAL.

Without any further input, it is conceivable that those trainees who had experienced very few pupils with EAL may continue to feel ill-equipped to implement strategies to ensure these children receive effective education, as shown in Murakami's (2008) research. Such strategies may, of course, include the use of home languages. As Murakami highlights, in areas with very low numbers of pupils who use EAL, it is often an issue of *how* training providers can ensure trainees gain experience. Additionally, it is not currently compulsory for trainee teachers to have *taught* a pupil who uses EAL, only to "have a clear understanding of the needs of all pupils, including ... those with English as an additional language" (DfE, 2011, p. 1).

The potential consequences of such variable training experiences are also illustrated by Foley et al.'s (2013) research which demonstrated how even within a very localised context, practice regarding pupils with EAL can be very inconsistent. Additionally, these studies looked at educational provision for children with EAL, rather than the use of home languages. It can therefore be assumed that practice which falls further outside of what is explicitly required by teachers is likely to be subject to much more variation.

6.1.2 "On your teaching practice(s) this year, did you ever teach your pupils about diversity in languages and cultures? Please explain your answer: For example: If yes, what did you do? Or, why do you think you didn't?"

In the post-questionnaire, the trainees were asked to provide information about the teaching they had done on their recent placements. It is important to recognise from the outset that depending on the course they were on they would have had a different amount of teaching practice experience. For example, those on the PGCE had just returned to university after their first placement whereas those on the School Direct pathway would have been in schools for four days a week for just over three months. As a result, the level of autonomy they had over their teaching was likely to be different.

Far fewer answers were given for this question than others in the questionnaire which could be attributable to a number of factors. Firstly, respondent fatigue, as this is the final question asked; secondly, the trainees may not have been sure whether what they did qualified for what the question was asking if they were still unsure about what diversity

education may entail and finally, the trainees may not have wanted to give a “negative” answer. The proportions given throughout this section are proportions of all the written answers given for the final two options stated in the question i.e. *how* was diversity taught (if it was) and *why wasn't* it taught (if it wasn't). The numbers and proportions for *whether* linguistic and cultural diversity was taught (yes/no/not sure) are given in Table 15.

As Table 15 shows, there is very little difference between the two groups in terms of whether they taught pupils about diversity in languages and culture on their teaching placement(s). However, of course, this was not completely dependent on their own personal choice. The trainees were asked to provide information about the reason for their answer and the majority of these (80%) for both groups stated that this was because they did not have the opportunity.

Table 15 The number and proportion of trainees who had received training regarding linguistic and cultural diversity

Group	Yes		No		Not Sure		Total
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
CG	38	43	50	57	0	0	88
WG	40	38	61	58	5	5	106

The workshop group in particular (20% vs. CG 13%) often attributed this lack of opportunity as being dictated by the teacher whose class they were assigned to (e.g. “*No - wasn't told to by teacher*”). These comments did not all explicitly reference the teacher but all indicated planning that had been undertaken out of their control. The workshop group also discussed how they had not been given the opportunity due to it not being applicable for the lessons they were assigned to teach (18% vs CG 7%) (e.g. “*The lessons I have had to teach so far have been mainly on core subjects such as maths, English and science*”). Such responses may indicate that contrary to an emerging trend in the data presented later, where the workshop trainees saw diversity education as being more cross-curricular in the post-questionnaire, in practice, the view that such education fits only within certain times and lessons was still held. However, it is important to recognise that the trainees were working within classrooms, alongside practising teachers, where the patterns of learning and more than likely, the plan of learning, were already established. Suggesting changes to this at this early stage in their training is conceivably unlikely.

The only other factor prevalent with this set of data was that of classroom demographics. The groups made almost equal references (proportionally) to the

demographics of the classroom as being a contributing factor which dictated their practice regarding diversity education. The workshop given to some of these trainees discussed how a diverse class was not needed in order to teach pupils about linguistic and cultural diversity, yet the workshop group did not demonstrate this awareness within this question. This may be as a result of them not taking on board this concept or it is perhaps because these views were held within the schools they were teaching in.

6.1.2.a *The 'activities' the trainees used*

The activities the trainees listed were very similar in nature which is conceivable given that they were all likely to be in classes following the national curriculum. The most commonly referenced activities were saying the register in different languages (CG=12%, WG=9%), studying R.E (CG=44%, WG=36%) and in particular, looking at a festival (most of which were religious) (WG=44%, WG=24%). The reoccurrence of these activities highlights how there may be little room for individual variation in lesson content within the training process. Additionally, the 'activities' the trainees listed tended to be focussed on religion rather than languages (e.g. *'We spoke about where Muslims go to church, what they believe as we were learning about bible stories in R.E and I allowed the two Muslim children in the classroom to share their experiences.'*) or any other aspect of culture.

The trainees therefore seem to have been very much constrained by what would have been covered by the class teacher with little room for interpretation outside of this. Some did mention discussions they had had with the children, in particular, based on their own cultural background. However, the place for discussions about diversity when the teacher shares the same ethnic and language background with the children seems to have not been established. This again follows a theme observable within some of the data in this project where diversity is only seen as important to address when it is already evident within the classroom. Only five references were made to 'using' the child as a source of information as in the example above. Two of these involved the child teaching some language (e.g. *'...I did encourage those 5 learners in the class to teach me some of their language'*). All five of these references to the children sharing their expertise were from trainees who had received the workshop. The data throughout this section indicated that the workshop group were more 'pro-languages' from the outset, therefore we cannot know whether or not it was the workshop that prompted the trainees to ask the children for their input.

The trainee data, and indeed, the teacher data from the previous chapter, also highlight the influence of the established curriculum. This is arguably especially true within this final question. The strong link between what the trainees carried out on their placements and their view of what diversity education is (section 6.4.1) can clearly be seen. The trainees' responses suggest some conscious efforts were made to provide diversity education beyond the planned curriculum content, yet the presence of so many commonly referenced activities and topics also suggests that these examples may be few and far between. While we cannot know, nor make assumptions about the schools' curriculum choices, this question does highlight the significant role that the curriculum can play in not only shaping classroom practice, but also in shaping trainees' beliefs and knowledge. The curriculum may be trainees' and teachers' only point of reference for what diversity education is and what it should involve. In the absence of any other cultural or linguistic education, this may constitute the only education trainees and teachers themselves ever receive on linguistic and cultural diversity.

6.2 Comparing the trainee data with the teacher data: What might this tell us about their future practice?

Some, though not all, of the same questions were asked in the trainee questionnaire as the teachers' questionnaire. We can thus compare the responses given and draw some tentative conclusions about what these may mean for trainees' future practice.

6.2.1 Trainees' language learning experience

Results from the teachers' questionnaire (see section 5.1) suggested that language learning experience plays a significant role in determining teachers' practice regarding home languages. As Figure 11 shows, almost 20% of the trainees (who completed a pre-questionnaire) did not have a GCSE qualification in a language (other than English). In terms of the languages the trainees were confident to teach, over 30% were not confident to teach any, a finding which may also have significance for language teaching more generally. As the "3+" category indicates, there was only a small number of trainees who were more "multilingual", with 5% of trainees feeling confident to teach more than 3 languages at primary level.

These findings are in line with those in Cajkler and Hall’s (2012a) study which found 83% ($N = 71$) of the NQTs surveyed to have a qualification in a language other than English and only one to have a language degree. However, unlike the current study, within Cajkler and Hall’s (2012a) sample, 36% of the NQTs were multilingual, with 25% of these speaking Gujarati, for example. Yet, despite having these linguistic repertoires, the NQTs reported using French in their teaching more than their home languages. Instead, these tended to be used for supporting children with EAL if they were struggling. Therefore, while language-minded teachers may be more open to home language use, it does not appear to be as straightforward as if a teacher speaks a given language, they would use it with the class. Thus, language repertoire, or qualifications are unlikely to solely explain a teacher’s classroom practice.

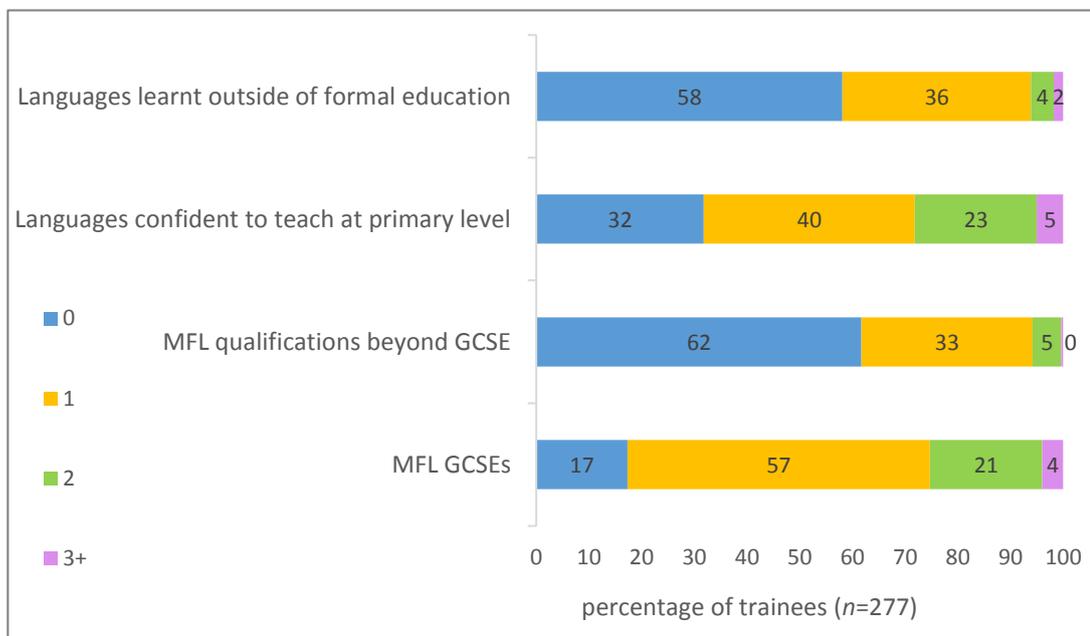


Figure 11: Bar chart showing the percentage of teachers with number and type of language qualification(s)

Additionally, the increase in school-based training is of relevance here (as earlier discussed in section 2.3.6) and alongside this, the question of whether existing teachers (supporting student teachers) would be able to provide adequate input regarding language teaching. The Language Trends survey suggests that this may be an issue nationally, with schools that are “struggling with classroom teachers who do not feel confident, and schools where language teaching is not prioritised at all” (Tinsley & Board, 2016, p. 44).

6.2.2 Trainees' future practice regarding home languages

While the teachers were asked about their current practice regarding pupils with EAL (see section 5.5.1), the trainees were asked to predict what their practice would be. Scores for each of these three “How often...” questions are given in Appendix 15. The scores for “How often would you ... incorporate their home language into classroom activities” only are shown on Figure 12. . The scores for this question from the teachers’ questionnaire are also displayed on this graph.

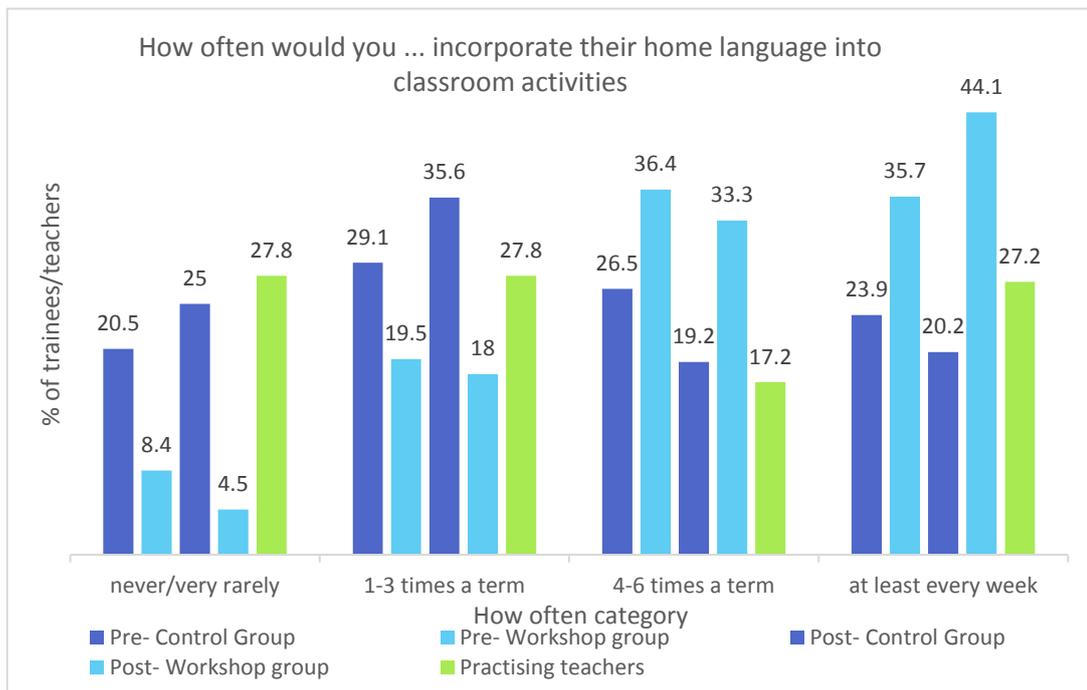


Figure 12 Histogram of the percentage of teachers choosing each time-point for the question: 'How often... incorporate home languages into classroom activities'

The “never/very rarely” category is the only time category in which the percentage of teachers who chose that category is higher than for the trainees. At the other end of the graph, in the most frequent time category (“at least every week”), a higher percentage of teachers chose this category than the control group participants, yet a much higher percentage of workshop group trainees chose this category. This indicates not only differences in how the two trainee groups perceive their future practice but also a difference compared with practising teachers in the area. The data collected in the questionnaire cannot elucidate the reasons for any differences. They may be attributable to the (pro-languages) attitudes of the workshop group from the outset, or perhaps differences attributable to age or background. Without any input on what is an appropriate amount of

time to devote to home languages, or even how this may be done, such differences are likely to be observable in the trainees’ classroom practice from the start of their careers. The teachers’ responses to the ‘How often...’ questions also indicate the potential for this variance to endure. However, time for such input would have to be found in what are already, very full initial teacher training programmes (Cajker & Hall, 2009).

6.3 Differences in the trainees’ attitudes

The trainees were asked to score six statements (e.g. “Teaching children about diversity in languages and cultures is important”. See Figure 13) from 0-100 depending on their level of agreement in both the pre- and the post-questionnaire. The results of analyses conducted on these variables are presented and discussed within the next sections.

6.3.1 From pre- to post-

Figure 13 shows the mean scores for the two groups at the two time points (95% confidence intervals are given in brackets). Eta- and partial eta-squared values for the between-group differences are shown on Table 16. A full list of the mean and standard deviation scores, as well as the results of the one-way (between group) ANOVA for all attitudinal variables (ten in total) are presented in Appendix 14.

The overall picture of these results is that the workshop group’s mean scores were
Table 16 Eta-squared and partial eta-squared values for the between-subjects differences on the attitudinal variables

Item	η^2		η_p^2	
	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
All primary children should learn French	0	0	.13	.01
Teaching children about diversity in languages and culture is important	.01	.01	.18	.2
I would feel confident to incorporate home languages...	.09	.10	.6	.66
Learning languages is important	.02	.05	.28	.45
I would feel confident to teach my class about diversity...	.01	.00	.19	.13
EAL children’s home languages should be used...	.13	.21	.8	1.01

higher than those of the control group in both questionnaires (with the exception of “... French” where there was an extremely small difference). Therefore, from the outset, fairly substantial group differences can be seen. As shown in Appendix 14, of the ten attitudinal questions trainees were asked, there was a significant between-subjects difference for

seven of these (the workshop group's scores being higher) at the pre-questionnaire and five at the post-questionnaire. The two variables which were not significantly different at the post-questionnaire related to teaching English rather than the workshop content.

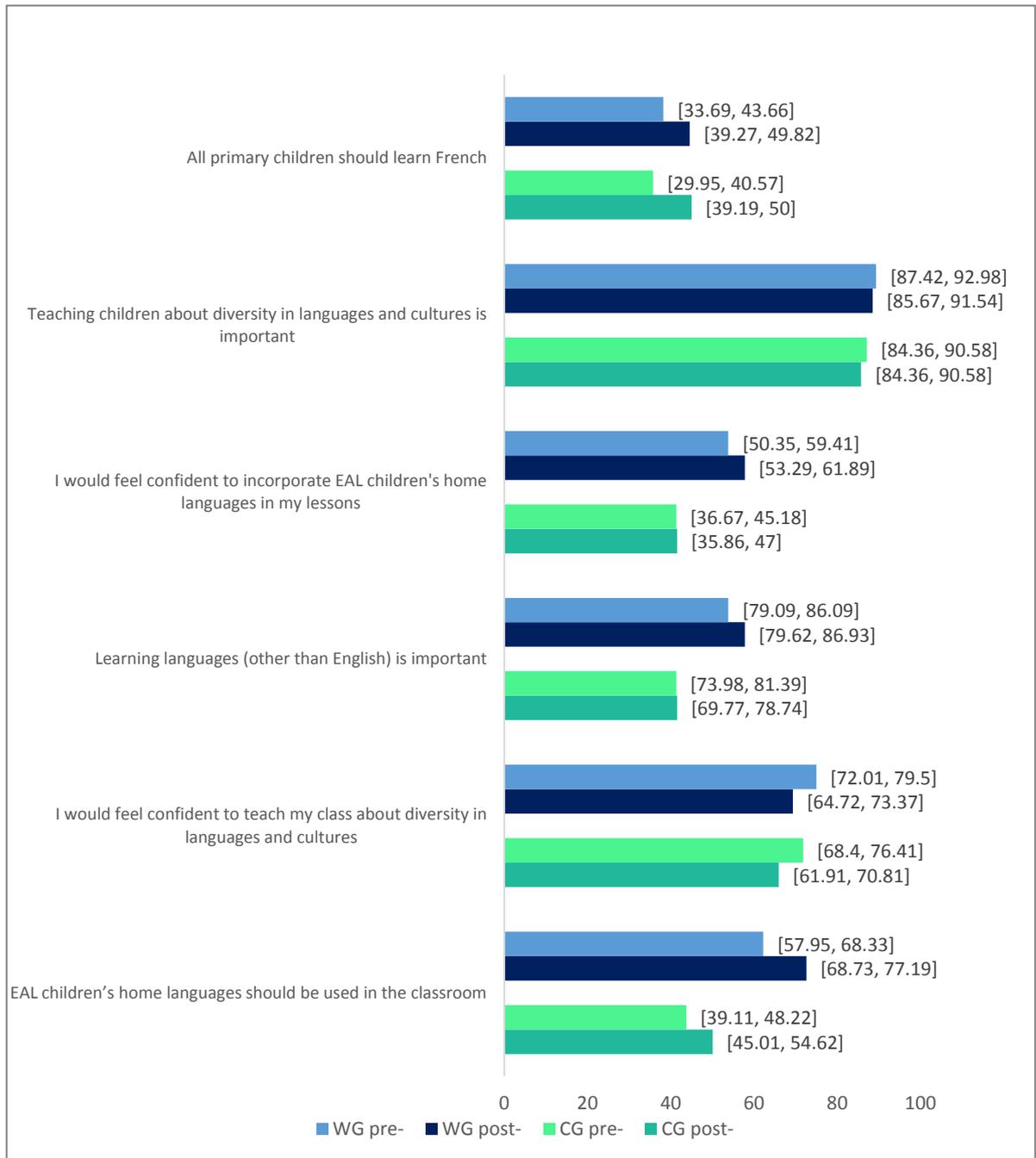


Figure 13 Between-subjects and within-subjects differences for the attitudinal variables from the trainee questionnaire

It can therefore be deduced that the workshop group appear to be more ‘pro-languages’ from the outset. For example, the difference between the two groups’ scores for “I will enjoy teaching languages” (11.88) is significant at the pre-questionnaire time point and represents a medium effect (see Appendix 14). In terms of the variables displayed on Figure 13, there is a significant difference between the groups’ scores for “home languages should be used...” at the pre-questionnaire and this represents a large effect. While this difference is also observable at the post-questionnaire (as discussed in the next section), it is important to note this important baseline difference for both its effect on the analyses in the next section as well as its exemplification of the differences which would have existed regardless of this project.

The workshop group’s scores increased from pre- to post- on all but two measures: a slight decrease for “I would feel confident to teach my class about diversity in languages in culture” and “Teaching children about diversity... is important” were observable. This decrease was also observable in the control group’s scores, suggesting that regardless of the workshop, these variables may be likely to decrease with time spent training. A decrease in reported confidence is perhaps understandable given the large amount of new information and new skills the trainees are developing at this time. Similarly, the trainees are under pressure to improve their teaching in all aspects of the curriculum throughout their training and without any other input from training providers regarding the importance of teaching linguistic and cultural diversity, it is again conceivable that these scores would not increase.

Additionally, a significant between-group effect can be seen at both pre- and post-time points for the variable “I would feel confident to incorporate EAL children’s home languages in my lessons”, these also represented a medium-sized effect, although the effect size was larger for the post-questionnaire. Again, this difference exists in the pre-questionnaire, thereby further highlighting the attitudinal differences that can exist between two groups training at the same time.

6.3.2 Between-group and pre- and post-differences: the influence of the workshop

The between-group pre- to post- differences were analysed using a one-way repeated-measures ANOVA. A one-way ANCOVA was then run to examine group differences in the post-questionnaire whilst controlling for the baseline differences in the pre-questionnaire. The results of both these tests for each variable are shown in Table 17.

The initial ANOVA results indicate that there was no significant effect of which group the trainees belonged to on their scoring of the attitudinal variables from the pre- to the post-questionnaire. This would suggest that receiving the workshop did not significantly affect trainees' scores for these particular variables. However, if the baseline differences are controlled for (see final column on Table 17), there is shown to be a significant difference between the groups for the following variables:

- EAL children's home languages should be used in the classroom (this represented a small effect)
- Learning languages (other than English) is important
- I would feel confident to incorporate EAL children's home languages in my lessons

A significant difference between the groups' scoring of the two home language variables was therefore evident as might be expected given that this was the focus of the workshop. Indeed, "EAL children's home languages should be used in the classroom" was the variable with the biggest difference in scores from pre- to post- and between the two groups (see Figure 13). The standard deviation scores for this variable, indicating the level of agreement regarding score assignment within the groups, also highlights that there was more disagreement about this question amongst the workshop trainees than the control group in the pre-questionnaire (WG, $SD=27.40$; CG, $SD=21.79$) yet more *agreement* amongst workshop trainees after they had received the workshop (WG, $SD=23.03$; CG, $SD=22.77$). In terms of confidence to use home languages, a significant between-group difference could be seen at both time points, yet the workshop appears to have increased this distance in scores. Implicit within the workshop content was also the idea that language learning is important and beneficial so, again, it is perhaps unsurprising that this item was scored higher by the workshop group. Therefore, despite significant initial differences between the groups, the input the workshop group received appears to have further increased this difference for some items.

The workshop was not specifically aimed at increasing trainees' scores on the attitudinal variables in the questionnaire, yet a more salient difference in post-questionnaire scores may have been expected for some of the other variables. In particular, "Teaching children about diversity in languages and cultures is important" and "I would feel confident to teach my class about diversity in languages and cultures".

However, as shown in Appendix 14 and Figure 13 and as discussed in the previous section, the pre-questionnaire scores for the former were very high so a significant change was unlikely to be seen. For the latter, this is perhaps an issue of overall confidence and experience of teaching placements. The workshop group were more confident than the control group at the pre- and post-questionnaires (these differences represented a small-sized effect), yet both groups' scores slightly decreased by the post-questionnaire.

Table 17 One-way repeated-measures ANOVA and one-way ANCOVA results for the attitudinal variables from the trainee questionnaire

Variable	Main effect (of time)	Interaction (of group)	Baseline differences controlled for (ANCOVA)
EAL children's home languages should be used in the classroom	$F(1,197) = 17.93, p = <.001, \eta p^2 = .083$	$F(1,197) = 1.06, p = .31, \eta p^2 = .005$	$F(1,196) = 26.57, p = <.001, \eta p^2 = .12$
I would feel confident to teach my class about diversity in languages and cultures	$F(1,199)=11.63, p=.001, \eta p^2=.055$	$F(1,199)=.003, p=.958, \eta p^2=<.001$	$F(1,198) = .569, p = .452, \eta p^2 = .003$
Learning languages (other than English) is important	$F(1,199)=1.23, p=.269, \eta p^2= .006$	$F(1,199)=1.007, p=.317, \eta p^2= .005$	$F(1,198) = 7, p = .009, \eta p^2 = .034$
I would feel confident to incorporate EAL children's home languages in my lessons	$F(1,199)=1.23, p=.27, \eta p^2= .006$	$F(1,199)=1.01, p=.32, \eta p^2=.005$	$F(1, 198) = 12.18, p = .001, \eta p^2 = .058$
Teaching children about diversity in languages and cultures is important	$F(91,199)=.69, p=.406, \eta p^2= .003$	$F(1,199)=.040, p=.842, \eta p^2=<.001.$	$F(1,198) = .962, p = .328, \eta p^2 = .005$
All primary children should learn French	$F(1,199)=17.59, p=<.001, \eta p^2=.081$	$F(1,199)=1.01, p=.32, \eta p^2=.005$	$F(1,198) = .258, p = .612, \eta p^2 = .001$

Additionally, given that the workshop was only an hour-long, it is perhaps not surprising that a more substantial effect on these scores could not be seen. It is important to also note the potential for a test effect to have been observed in these results. By asking questions about home languages in the pre-questionnaire, the trainees' scores may have increased in the post-questionnaire due to their raised awareness as a result of the questionnaire itself. In order to mitigate this issue, future research could include a 'test only' group to use as a comparison. Finally, the trainees' experiences beyond the workshop (or questionnaire) must be taken into consideration. For example: teaching practices, life experiences and university experiences may have all had an effect on trainees' scores. Such factors cannot easily be controlled for, yet they may account for some of the differences (or lack of) between the groups.

6.4 A thematic analysis of the trainee questionnaire open responses

Within the questionnaire administered to trainee teachers, the following questions were asked:

1. How do you think you can teach your pupils about diversity in languages and cultures?
Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.
2. How do you think you can use home languages in the classroom? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.
3. Some people think we should use pupils' home languages in the classroom. What do you think are the reasons for this?
4. What are some reasons why teachers might not use home languages in the classroom?

Themes emerging from the four questions from the pre- and post-questionnaire will be discussed below. Please see section 3.5.6 for the coding procedure. The questions are discussed separately in the order they are given above. As the number of participants in the control group and the workshop group were not equal, both the number of responses as well as a proportion for that question are given throughout. How the proportion was calculated is explained in each section as this changed according to what was considered most suitable for a given question. In some instances, the numbers and proportions reported are very small, however, it was deemed important to retain these because, in some cases, the size of the number is an important finding in itself; in others, the size of the number may appear small as a result of how it has been calculated (e.g. the proportion of responses within a theme which is a sub-theme and also divided by group) and finally, all themes discussed are also reported numerically in order to maintain consistency in

reporting, regardless of their size. Throughout, the term ‘aggregate code’ is used to convey the hierarchical structure of the coding (i.e. themes and sub-themes). Numbers and proportions given for aggregate codes are the sum of all the codes within the given umbrella (aggregate) code.

6.4.1 “How do you think you can teach your pupils about diversity in languages and cultures? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful”

The analysis of this question is divided into the activities the trainees suggested and the reasoning for these activities. Proportions given are a proportion of the comments for each category for the pre- or post- questionnaire. Therefore, for the activities, for example, the proportions reflect which types of activities are more commonly referred to when an activity is given, rather than how commonly an activity suggestion appears overall in the dataset.

6.4.1.a *Specific activities*

Within the data relating to activities, there were some general patterns in the trainees’ responses. For example, the suggestions made tended to be aural, informal and discussion-based (e.g. *‘Talk about how different languages are used’*, *‘Use students with EAL as starting point for a discussion’* and *‘Discuss my own language (Arabic) with children’*). These suggestions all involve linguistic education yet are all limited to a discussion, rather than a more formal exchange of knowledge. Such “activities” are perhaps more in line with traditional PHSE teaching as suggested by this example *‘PSHE - Lesson about various cultures, their traditions. Develop a casual group discussion. Is it important to respect other cultures? ...’* An assumption may therefore have existed amongst the trainees that teaching about culture, and also perhaps languages, is done through such informal methods. In fact, results of a word analysis of the data showed “discuss” (and variants of) to be the tenth most commonly used word in the data for this question. Culture in general was also more prominently referenced than languages. As Table 49 in Appendix 17 illustrates, culture was the most prominent word for both groups at both time points. Language was only second to culture in the post-questionnaire data for the workshop group, otherwise it was used far less frequently.

It is important to note from the outset that even proportionally, the workshop group made more activity suggestions than the control group. These differences are shown in Table 18. An “individual answer” is the portion of a response that was coded under a certain theme and the “number of responses” is the number of full responses given. Therefore, the percentages are above 100 as some trainees gave more than one answer within one question.

Table 18 Differences in number (and percentage) of responses coded and number of responses given by the trainees

Questionnaire:	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Group	No. of individual answers coded (% of total responses coded)	No. of responses given by trainees	No. of individual answers coded (% of total responses coded)	No. of responses given by trainees
WG	186 (122)	153	161 (153)	111
CG	128 (115)	111	94 (107)	88

‘Using’ the child with EAL

Many activities referenced by the trainees involved “using” the child with EAL and there was little difference between the proportion of references made in the pre- and the post-questionnaire for both groups, despite this being discussed in the workshop. However, the control group made far fewer (proportionally) suggestions relating to the “use” of an EAL child in both questionnaires. Breaking down this sub-theme further also highlights key group differences. These are shown in Figure 14. As the theme has been categorised further, the proportions shown appear small, particularly for “peer support and translation”. Answers in this category implied there would be little to no teacher involvement in this “activity”, therefore it is perhaps not surprising that it was not more commonly given as an answer as the questionnaire specified “how do you think *you*...”. The differences in the proportion of references for the other sub-themes highlight more significant differences, however.

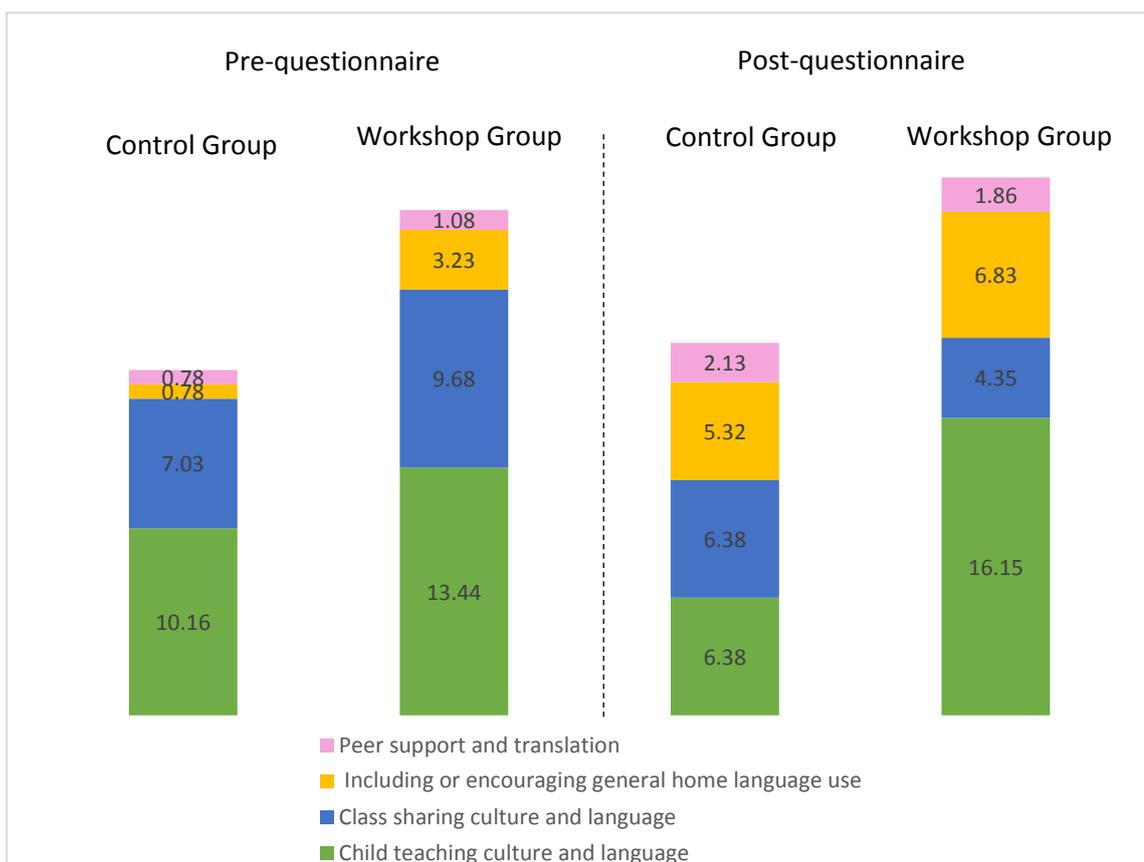


Figure 14 'Using' the child with EAL: number of references across the different groups

Within this aggregated node, two coding distinctions were made: “child teaching culture and language” and “class sharing culture and language”. References in the former had to specify that the child was providing the knowledge, not the teacher, and in the latter, the child’s language or culture was the basis for the activity but the activity would be teacher-led. From pre- to post-, for the workshop group, the concept of the child teaching became more prominent and the class sharing the knowledge much less prominent. In the post-questionnaire, more suggestions of the home language being used or incorporated into the classroom were also evident (e.g. ‘using their own language’). For the control group: both suggestions of the child teaching and the class sharing cultural and linguistic information decreased from pre- to post-, yet suggestions of using home languages in the classroom more generally increased. Finally, for both groups, more references were made to using languages for peer support and translation in the post-questionnaire than the pre-questionnaire. It is important to acknowledge, however, that much of the questionnaire related to home language use and children with EAL so the effect of this exposure to the concept of “using” EAL children (even before the workshop was given) must be taken into account.

“Using” external people

External people visiting the classroom to provide the children with linguistic and cultural information was another commonly referenced activity (CG, pre=17, 13%, post=10, 10.64%; WG, pre=25, 13 %, post=26, 16%). In both the pre- and the post-questionnaire, the control group more commonly gave the answer of “visitor” with no further elaboration. This lack of detail can be seen within much of the control group’s data and while there may be a number of reasons for it, a lack of knowledge or ideas can be seen as one of them.

Asking parents to visit the classroom and provide linguistic and cultural education as a means of taking the burden off teachers, as well as demonstrating respect to the parents and their knowledge, was something that was briefly discussed in the workshop. While responses suggesting inviting parents in decreased from pre- to post-questionnaire amongst the control group, they increased within the workshop group. Therefore, the workshop group’s willingness to invite parents in can perhaps be seen as a result of this input they had received.

Learning language(s)

As the word tree diagrams in Appendix 13 show, references to language(s) were far more varied from the workshop group. The prominence of ‘their’ ‘their own’ and ‘home’ languages on this diagram are of interest, suggesting an increased awareness and perhaps, openness to, the use of children’s home languages. For both groups, the word ‘language’ was used more frequently in the post-questionnaire than the pre-, perhaps suggesting increased knowledge about ways in which languages can be used, or, again, an increased openness to their use.

The concept of comparing languages, or discussing more than one language at once, was discussed within the workshop trainees received. They were shown simple ways to look at differences between languages (e.g. dual language books). The concept of comparing languages was not mentioned by either group in the pre-questionnaire and was not mentioned once in the control group’ post-questionnaire data. Yet, 8 references (5%) were made by the workshop group in the post-questionnaire. This is one of the starkest differences observable, not in terms of the number of references in the post-questionnaire, instead, due to the fact that the trainees don’t appear to have considered this use of languages before the workshop.

Making a visual/physical change in the classroom

Visual learning aids (e.g. *'Foreign language resources around the classroom e.g. numbers, phrases'*) were also one of the most commonly reoccurring suggested activities (see Table 20). References included: classroom 'makeover' (e.g. *'Transform the classroom into (for example) a Japanese restaurant at lunchtime'*); displays, with no example of what it may illustrate and finally, visual learning aids (e.g. *"Have visual aids for the languages spoken in the class"*). As Table 20 shows, making a physical change to the classroom was generally mentioned more by the control group, particularly non-specific displays in the post-questionnaire. In both the pre- and post-questionnaire, the workshop group referenced specific learning aids, again in line with the general trend observable in the data where more detail is provided by this group. Examples to illustrate this category further include: *"Label key areas/ draws in classroom in children's home language"* and *"Create signs for the school in their own language"*. Using signs in different languages (e.g. *"home corner"*) had been briefly mentioned within the workshop, this may therefore have influenced their post-questionnaire responses.

Displays, alongside trips and visitors, which were three of the most commonly referenced activity ideas, arguably all have something in common. That is, the cultural and linguistic learning is separate from that of the classroom learning. It is not clear, of course, whether trainees thought the displays would form part of a lesson, or whether they would teach pupils in a more indirect way. The learning involved in all of these is, however, likely to require very little teacher input, or change to the classroom routine over a substantial period of time. Although, of course, trips and visitors may require a large amount of organisation, showing a commitment to providing this knowledge, they are also "separate" from everyday learning.

Books or stories

The category of "books and stories" demonstrates one of the most noticeable differences between the groups and the time-points. Again, it is important to bear in mind that the themes discussed within this section are a result of several phases of categorisation, thus proportions reported may appear small on the surface. However, a comparison of the changes between the groups over time highlights important differences.

Table 19 Number and proportion of references to 'books or stories' in the trainee data (within-subjects and between-subjects differences)

Theme	no. of references (%)			
	Pre-questionnaire		Post-questionnaire	
	CG	WG	CG	WG
books or stories (general)	7 (5)	1 (0.5)	4 (4)	9 (6)
to teach about culture specifically	1 (0.8)	2 (1)	3 (3)	5 (3)
using books in different languages	0 (0)	1 (0.5)	0 (0)	12 (7)

As Table 19 shows, initially, in the pre-questionnaire, the control group made more references to using books, yet, again, with no specified focus. However, in the post-questionnaire, the workshop group made *more* references to using books (than in the pre-questionnaire) and stories, particularly books in different languages.

Table 20 Number and proportion of references to making a visual / physical change in the classroom in the trainee data (within-subjects and between-subjects differences)

Theme	no. of references (%)			
	Pre-questionnaire		Post-questionnaire	
	CG	WG	CG	WG
Aggregated theme	10 (8)	14 (7)	11 (12)	15 (9)
Display non-specific	5 (4)	3 (2)	10 (11)	5 (3)
Visual learning aids	5 (4)	10 (5)	1 (1)	10 (6)

Additionally, the term 'dual-language book' did not appear once in the pre-questionnaire nor post-questionnaire control group data, yet these were mentioned by 5 trainees from the workshop group. How stories may be used, both in terms of promoting language awareness, as well as providing cultural insight, formed part of the workshop trainees were given which is likely to explain this difference. Again, while this number is not substantial in its own right, the trainees could have chosen to focus on *any* activity for this question, thus the fact that it is mentioned this many times in the post-questionnaire, yet not at all in the pre-questionnaire is arguably still of significance.

6.4.1.b *When learning takes place*

Two "time periods" for learning about diversity were mentioned by the trainees which were coded as activities. These were: having a multicultural day and having a language of the week.

The concept of having a multicultural day was prominent in both groups at both time points. However, it was mentioned slightly less frequently (proportionally) in the post-questionnaire. Across the entire data set this was suggested 60 times by the trainees within the workshop group. While the code was named 'multicultural day', responses included weeks as well as days and 'R.E', 'theme' and 'language' days. While numerically there is little difference between the control group and the workshop group, thematically within this group of responses there are some observable differences. For example, in the post-questionnaire, all suggestions from the control group specified a *day* whereas 4/16 references were made to *weeks* in the workshop group data and 5/16 references were made to *language* days/weeks specifically (control group=1/8).

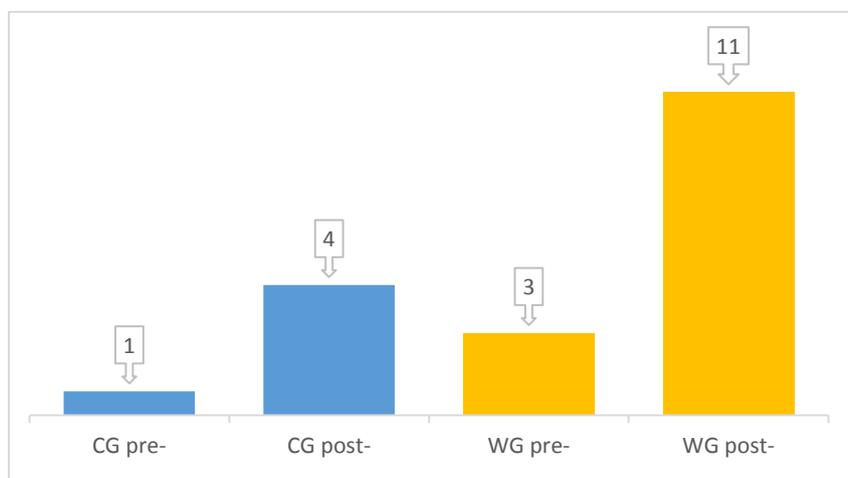


Figure 15 Having a 'language of the month': Pre- and post- and between-group coding reference differences (as a proportion of all 'activity' references)

While these isolated differences seem very subtle, they do contribute to the developing trends across the dataset whereby the workshop group appear more aware of linguistic diversity and this taking a more prominent role in the classroom. In the pre-questionnaire, for example, only 3 (/36) references to a language day were made, all alongside another aspect, for example, "A day celebrating a different culture e.g. clothes/food/language" and all references were made by workshop group members. Therefore, as throughout, the workshop group appear to be more aware of linguistic education from the outset, but they also appear to have increased awareness compared to the control group after the workshop they had received.

The second of these time frame activities was having a language of the month (/term/half term). This is another of the activity suggestions which demonstrates a substantial difference between the groups in the post-questionnaire which is likely to be as

a result of its inclusion in the workshop content (see Figure 15). 17 trainees suggested having a language of the month in the post-questionnaire (from the WG), despite there having been up to ten weeks between the workshop and the post-questionnaire. Additionally, unlike having a multicultural *day* where perhaps the focus is on differences between cultures for one day a year, or a term, having a language of the *month* arguably shows a deeper commitment to incorporating linguistic (and cultural) diversity within the classroom more permanently and certainly implies a more extensive learning process.

Lessons and pre-existing periods of learning

Lessons, either the name of, or as a time-limited focused period of learning, were prominent throughout the dataset. *When* to implement diversity education was not explicitly asked about within this question, therefore proportions given in this section are a proportion of *all* references made by each group.

While some of these references were to a lesson with an activity idea, indicating knowledge of *how* diversity may be taught, many were the name of a lesson only (e.g. R.E, PSHE, Geography). Within the control group, from pre- to post-questionnaire, references to lesson names (with no further detail) increased from 14% (15) to 32% (28) of all their references. However, references in the pre- and post-questionnaire were similar within the workshop group (14% and 15%). This may indicate two key assumptions held by trainees: firstly, that diversity education is being provided within this lesson already and secondly, that diversity education should “fit” within the established curriculum and more specifically, allotted time periods (i.e. lessons) within this. Therefore, while the workshop group may still have held these assumptions at the post-questionnaire, the control group, without having had an awareness-raising workshop, seem to hold them more as their training continues.

Within the workshop group’s post-test data there was arguably much more emphasis on providing diversity education across the curriculum, as perhaps indicated by their less frequent use of lesson names alone. Additionally, for example, eight trainees within the workshop group specifically stated that learning should take place *across* the curriculum, for example, ‘*by incorporating diversity and different cultures into everyday teaching as much as possible, not just RE or special events*’. Such comments were made by only two trainees within the control group post-questionnaire.

6.4.1.c Reasoning for activities

Reasoning for activities was less commonly given than activity suggestions themselves, particularly by the control group (WG pre=46, 21%, post=30, 16%; CG pre=19, 13%, post=15, 14%) (proportions of responses coded for both question parts). Again, this is in line with the lack of detail or elaboration observable across all the control group's data and may suggest that they were less aware of why the activities they suggested would be useful. The proportions given throughout this section are a proportion of comments relating to why the suggested activities would be useful ("reasoning"). As this one element of the question, in which the trainees could focus on *any* reasoning for their activity, many themes reported below appear to have low proportions of references. Though sometimes subtle, these differences in proportion contribute to our understanding of *why* trainees chose to suggest the activities they did and how this differed between the groups and at the two time points.

The workshop group made more references to the educational benefits of reflecting linguistic and cultural diversity in the classroom compared to the control group, yet both groups made fewer references to these benefits in the post-questionnaire (CG pre= 5, 4%, post=2, 2%; WG, pre=13, 6%, post=6, 3%). However, references to socio-cultural knowledge and the benefits of this did increase for both groups from pre- to post-, although only marginally (CG, pre= 6, 4%, post=6, 6%; WG, pre=15, 7%, post=15, 8%). Therefore, in general, the trainees seem to be more aware of these potential benefits, which included: teaching children about empathy, reducing misconceptions and prejudice, valuing and respecting others and providing children a better understanding of the diverse world they live in.

Of all of these sub-themes, it was the latter ('better understanding of diversity') which trainees most commonly cited (CG, pre=6, 4%, post=6, 6%; WG, pre=12, 6%, post=4, 2%). An example of an answer coded, '*to make children aware of other languages*' highlights the fact that answers given often failed to provide little additional reasoning beyond that implied within the question itself. Therefore, its prominence arguably highlights a lack of knowledge about *why* activities that promote linguistic and cultural diversity would be useful. More responses were coded in this theme from pre- to post- for the control group and fewer for the workshop group which is perhaps attributable to the workshop content.

6.4.1.d **Summary of question: “How do you think you can teach your pupils about diversity in languages and cultures? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful”**

Trainees’ knowledge of culture (and indeed, languages) is arguably central to a discussion of whether multilingual and multicultural education could be effectively delivered. As demonstrated by the data for this question, in order for this education to be delivered at primary level, teachers need to be provided with the opportunity to develop their *subject* knowledge as well as their pedagogical knowledge. The prominence of very “separate” learning activities throughout this question perhaps highlights trainees’ own awareness of their lack of subject knowledge.

The input that the trainees received provided them with some activity suggestions which were then evident in the post-questionnaire data from the workshop group. For example, the use of dual-language books. Even after such limited input, observable differences in their knowledge of how to represent linguistic and cultural diversity were evident. However, in order to replicate this and indeed, provide further input for all future trainees, a substantial commitment from training providers would be required and in the current absence of policy, this is perhaps unfeasible.

6.4.2 **“How do you think you can use home languages in the classroom? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.”**

As this question has a similar format to the first, the discussion of the results below is organised in the same way. Specific activities suggested by the trainees will be discussed thematically first, followed by their reasoning for these activities. Due to the similarities in these two questions, they are discussed in sequence here, although the trainees were not presented with them in this order. Throughout this section, the previously discussed question will be referred to as “How to ... diversity” and as above, percentage values given in this section are separate proportions for activities and reasoning.

6.4.2.a **Specific activities**

Similar patterns can be observed within the answers to this question and ‘How to ... diversity’ and the suggestion of visitors as an “activity” is one of these. While the proportions of reference do not indicate a substantial change in how often this was

suggested (CG, pre= 3, 2%, post=2, 1%; WG, pre=3, 1 %, post=6, 3%), a change in *perception* can arguably be seen. For example, in the pre-questionnaire, the use of displays was suggested in order to help parents understand their children’s learning (e.g. ‘*On displays - useful for when pupils’ parents come in that don’t speak fluent English. They can still see what their child has been involved in*’). Such comments are perhaps motivated by the desire to make the classroom an inclusive environment for both children and their parents. However, they focus on this change being necessary due to their English proficiency (similar to the discussion by the teachers in section 5.9.3.b). In the post-questionnaire, an inclusive motivation is specifically mentioned which instead, seeks to value parents (‘*allowing EAL families to feel included and valued in the school*’). The parents are invited in to share knowledge, rather than to observe the learning that had taken place. While this difference may be subtle, it arguably shows a key shift in some trainees’ perceptions.

Language learning

Trainees’ suggestions for *using* home languages commonly referred to *learning* the language (in a number of different ways). Responses that involved the class learning the home language in any way were coded as “language learning”. In the pre- and post-questionnaire, the workshop group responded more commonly with language learning suggestions (CG, pre= 23, 18%, post= 22, 15%; WG, pre= 46, 20%, post= 55, 27%), yet from pre- to post- the number of responses coded from the control group decreased quite significantly.

Table 21 Language learning activities (within-subjects and between-subjects differences)

Theme	no. of responses (%)			
	Pre-questionnaire		Post-questionnaire	
	CG	WG	CG	WG
Class learning and using home language	4 (3)	6 (3)	3 (2)	4 (2)
Learning common vocabulary	9 (7)	16 (7)	8 (5)	15 (7)
Child with EAL teaching the class	8 (6)	13 (6)	5 (3)	17 (8)
Having a language of day, week or month	3 (2)	7 (6)	1 (1)	6 (3)
Songs, rhymes etc.	4 (3)	3 (1)	3 (2)	12 (6)

It is difficult to hypothesise why this decrease may be, for example, it may be as a result of the trainees not developing their awareness of language learning in their

placements or at university. However, the increase amongst the workshop group can be attributable to the workshop they received, where strategies to incorporate and learn languages were discussed and encouraged. The workshop also aimed to build trainees' confidence to try new and different languages and language learning activities which is likely to have increased the range of activities they gave within this theme.

As discussed in relation to the previous question, another strategy proposed in the workshop was that of “using” the child with EAL to teach the rest of the class. Again, the proportion of responses made by the control group decrease over time, yet the converse is true for the workshop group (see Table 21 above). As with “How to...Diversity”, this can be compared to ‘class learning and using home language’ where responses suggested that the class would learn the language without the help of the child i.e. through the teacher (e.g. *‘teach other children parts of their language’*). It is perhaps unsurprising that there is a decrease in responses for this category in the post-questionnaire as this would require a great amount of teacher commitment to learn the language themselves. This is a “misconception” that can be seen throughout the data, whereby some students interpret using home languages to mean that the teacher would need to speak the language.

Using books

The theme of using books to learn (or learn about) home languages again represents one of the most obvious between-group differences as illustrated by Figure 16. References given by the control group decreased from pre- to post- and are lower than the workshop group's at both points, whereas responses from the workshop group were above double (proportionally) than those in the pre-questionnaire. This is similar to the increase in

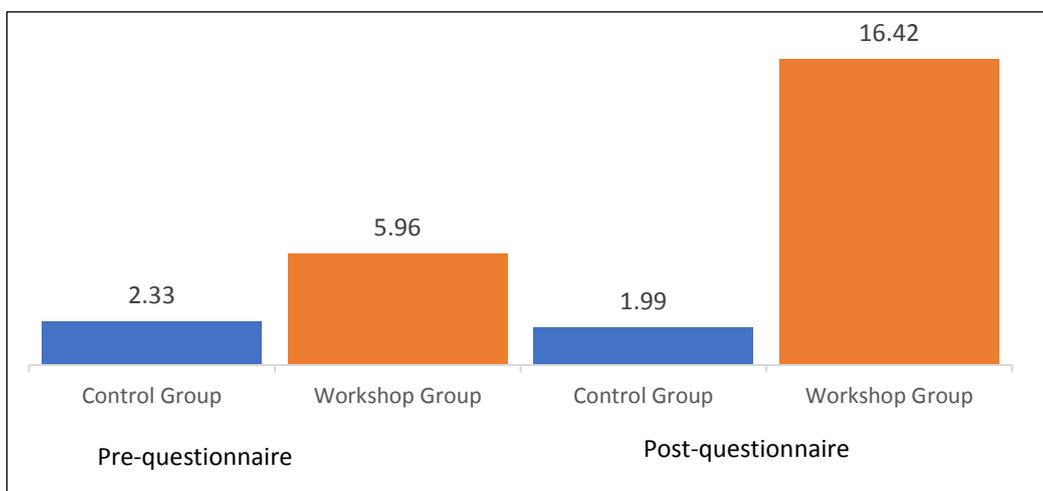


Figure 16 Using books: pre- and post- and between-group differences in the proportion of responses coded

references to books that was observable in the 'How to ... diversity' question previously discussed and again, is arguably attributable to the focus on books and more specifically, 'dual-language books, in the workshop given to the trainees.

Additionally, the level of detail given in the post-questionnaire for this theme was extremely unusual compared with answers given in other themes and within the pre-questionnaire. Instead of writing 'dual-language books' in isolation, eight trainees offered *specific* activity suggestions. Examples of these include: 'Well known books could be read together as a class in a different language and discuss which words they know or recognise, or can guess the meaning of' and 'Books in different languages and EAL children can help to say the words in their home language for others to learn in class'. Both of these activities using books were mentioned in the workshop and unlike answers in the pre-questionnaire, demonstrated how books in different languages can be used as well as how the child with EAL can be involved with this.

Using the register

Using the register was a prominent theme within the data from this question, particularly in the post-questionnaire. Unlike the previously discussed language learning activities, yet in line with suggestions made in the 'How ...diversity' question, the control group suggest the use of the register considerably *more* often (than the workshop group) in the post-questionnaire (CG, pre= 12, 9%, post=36, 24%; WG, pre=32, 14 %, post=34, 17%). While the register may be one way in which languages can be regularly heard in the classroom and thus requires a substantial time or routine commitment, it is also an activity which provides less depth of linguistic knowledge or cultural insight. It was briefly mentioned within the workshops given to trainees, although the importance of also implementing activities which provide more linguistic and cultural education was also highlighted.

Translation

Figure 17 and Figure 18 illustrate the difference in the groups' suggestions regarding the use of translation (who does the translating and who it is for). Figure 17 illustrates the fairly considerable differences in the proportion of suggestions regarding translation (i.e. from English to a home language) for the child with EAL only (presumably to help them access the lesson content more easily) and for the entire class (so they are also exposed to

the content in both languages). While translation was suggested fewer times overall in the post-questionnaire, Figure 17 shows that more suggestions involved using translation for the *whole* class particularly from the workshop group.

Figure 17 illustrates the differences in *who* is doing the translation. In the pre-questionnaire, there was a distinctly observable difference between the proportion of suggestions involving the child with EAL translating, compared with the teacher translating within the workshop group data. However, the control group suggested both “translators” equally. Again, this can be seen as a misconception or perhaps an unrealistic perception, as either they perceive the teacher will learn the language required beforehand, or they see this to be undertaken in classrooms with a bilingual teacher. Both are arguably unlikely scenarios in many primary classrooms. The realisation of this is perhaps demonstrated by the decrease in references to translation in the post-questionnaire.

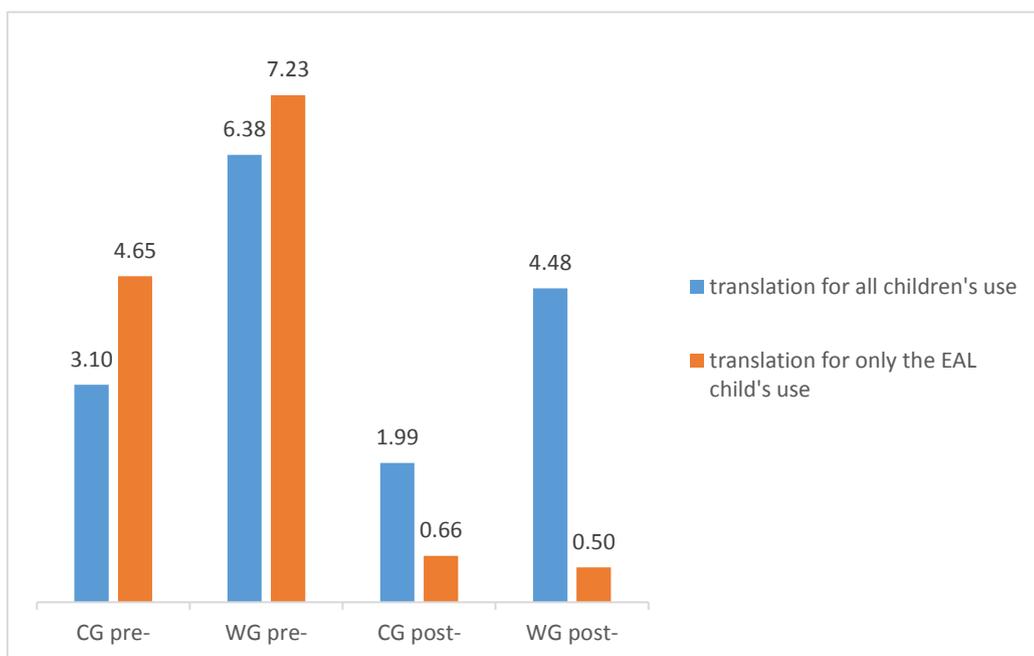


Figure 17 Translation: Differences in the proportion of responses coded regarding translation (and who this is for)

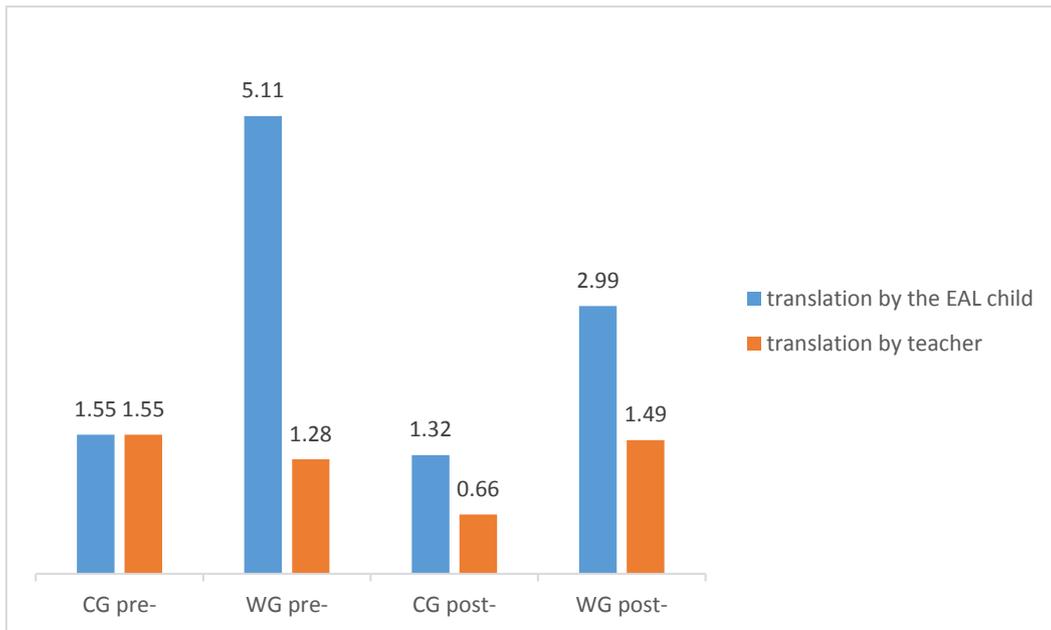


Figure 18 Translation: Differences in the proportion of references to translation and who is providing the translation

Visual use of home languages

Visual displays of home languages was a prominent theme with this dataset, much like for 'How...diversity'. In fact, this was the most commonly referenced theme within the umbrella of activity suggestions. Examples of answers (and sub-themes) within this category included: displays, labels, signs and other permanent classroom visuals (e.g. 'date on board'). The aggregate number of coding references for this umbrella theme were as follows: CG, pre=32, 28%, post= 50, 31%; WG, pre=65, 28%, post=51, 25%. Generally speaking, the control group therefore made more references to the visual usage of home languages than the workshop group at both time points. As previously discussed, the prominence of this theme could represent a lack of awareness, or even willingness, to make more substantial classroom changes, i.e. pedagogical changes. However, having visual recognition of the languages spoken in the class is one a way of recognising and valuing these languages. Again, we cannot know what the trainees would do with the displays in practice, if anything.

6.4.2.b Reasoning for activities

Again, in general, far fewer comments were made which gave reasoning for the activities suggested by trainees (WG pre=71, 26%; post=30, 11%, CG pre=26, 15%; post=19, 13%) (proportions are of responses coded for both question parts). Both groups also made fewer reasoning comments in the post-questionnaire, particularly the workshop group. This may indicate a lack of awareness about why the activities would be useful, however, it is also possibly as a result of the trainees becoming fatigued with the questionnaire.

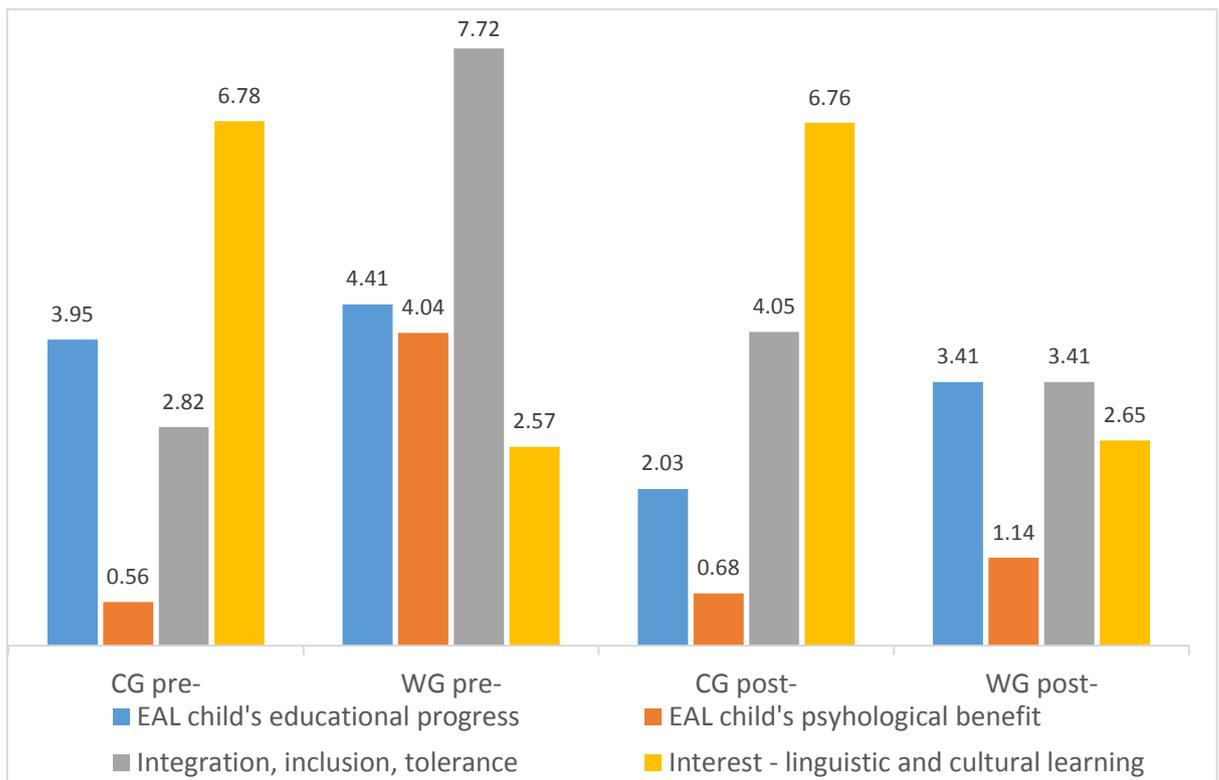


Figure 19 Reasoning categories: Pre- and post- and between-group differences

It is important to note that reasoning for using home languages more generally is the subject of the next question, the reasoning discussed here relates to the reason given by the trainee as to why the activity would be useful. The proportions of reasoning comments given are shown in Figure 19. Again, these proportions appear low due to how the coding distinctions have been made, yet arguably nonetheless offer important insight into the reasoning behind the trainees' activity choices.

Additionally, as so few comments were made in the post-questionnaire compared to the pre-, it is difficult to make comparisons between the two time points. However, for the

control group, the same pattern is generally observable, with ‘interest – cultural and linguistic learning’ being the most highly mentioned at each time point (e.g. ‘*Cultures - knowledge of*’). As the example given illustrates, such reasoning is closely tied to the previous question (‘How ... diversity’) and therefore perhaps shows the least understanding of why activities may be beneficial. The main difference for this group was for ‘integration...’ which, in the post-questionnaire, was referenced more commonly. Conversely, reasoning relating to the EAL child’s educational progress was given less frequently (e.g. ‘*children can understand better*’).

For the workshop group, the reasoning that the activity would help to promote integration, inclusion or tolerance was far more prominent than any of the other categories in the pre-questionnaire (e.g. “*This would make the pupil feel included and the other children may be able to relate to the child*”). As for the previous question, in the post-questionnaire, the reasoning answers were much more evenly distributed across the main themes. Again, this can be seen as resulting from the workshop content.

6.4.2.c **Summary of question: “How do you think you can use home languages in the classroom? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.”**

Much of the data for this question followed a similar pattern to that of ‘How to...diversity’, therefore the main conclusions to draw from this question are not necessarily regarding the activities the trainees were aware of. This being said, the input the workshop group received appears to have provided them with a deeper understanding of ways in which home languages could be incorporated in the classroom. For example, trainees from this group discussed ways dual-language books could be used in detail and how a language of the month policy could be adopted. Both of which were discussed in the workshop they received. Such examples of practice diverge from what can be considered more tokenistic uses of the language, as argued by Ludhra and Jones (2008). For example, their study reports the use of a newsletter (written in the different home languages, by children who spoke those languages) to demonstrate how purposeful uses of home languages can more sincerely reflect their value. The workshop group thus suggest what can be considered a stronger commitment to the presence of home languages in the classroom, for example, in permanent, written form (i.e. books or displays). Additionally, by working in both (or more) languages simultaneously (i.e. reading in both), it is also argued, that their equal importance is demonstrated to pupils (Ludhra & Jones, 2008; McGilp, 2014).

6.4.3 “Some people think we should use pupils' home languages in the classroom. What do you think are the reasons for this?”

For this question, the trainees were asked to provide reasons why home languages may be used. Such reasons formed a substantial part of the workshop that some of the trainees received. For this question, proportions given are for all responses given for each group as the question involved only one part. Proportions for each aggregate theme and each sub-theme within these are displayed in Table 22. All sub-themes are shown on the table, regardless of the number of references coded for that theme. As the table demonstrates, two of the aggregate themes contain several sub-themes in order to demonstrate even subtle differences in trainees' answers. For this reason, proportions in the sub-themes are often low and the aggregate theme offers a clearer overall picture of the group and time-point differences for a particular theme.

6.4.3.a *Using home languages for inclusive practice*

A distinction was made in the coding process between using home languages to make the child *feel* included and using home languages for inclusive practice. While there is perhaps a fine line between the two and knowing what the trainee intended by their answer may not always be achievable, this distinction could represent important differences in how home language use is perceived. More explicitly, making the child *feel* included suggests a more emotionally-driven, empathetic use of home languages while “inclusive practice” may be used in reference to more educationally inclusive practices rather than the child's social inclusion (for example, ensuring the child understands the worksheet). Additionally, ‘*inclusive practice*’ was often given with no further elaboration thereby creating the sense of an educational “buzzword”. There is no way of knowing whether the trainees fully understand the concept of inclusive practice or what it may entail, particularly in terms of home languages. However, if their use is seen as more of a tokenistic gesture to *show* inclusive practice, or trainees know it *shows* inclusive practice, but not what this means, this could have a significant impact on whether such practices are used and when they are, the extent to which they are intended to enrich children's whole educational experience.

Both the control group and the workshop group referenced inclusive practice more often in the post-questionnaire, with the control group making the most references at this point (CG, pre=9, 7%, post=16, 21%; WG, pre=19, 10%, post=17, 17%). However, as explained above, these references were to inclusive practice from the point of view of

providing or ensuring inclusive practice. Equality, another aspect of inclusive practice: ensuring pupils are equally included in the classroom, also emerged (yet far less prominently) from the workshop group's data in particular (CG, pre=1, 0.8%, post=2, 3%; WG, pre=6, 3%, post=4, 4%). This social justice perspective was not discussed in the workshop, yet the workshop group focus on this aspect more than the control group at both time points, further highlighting the difference in perspectives and knowledge that can exist between trainees that are likely to enter the profession at the same time.

6.4.3.b *Using home languages for increased knowledge*

As Table 22 shows, overall, "gains in knowledge" (aggregate theme) were discussed the most (proportionally) by the control group in the post-questionnaire. This theme was broken down into four main sub-themes: the EAL child's linguistic repertoire in English, their repertoire in terms of their home language knowledge, the linguistic and cultural educational of the whole class and finally, non-language related learning (i.e. curricular knowledge).

The trainees appeared to be more aware of developing home languages in the post-questionnaire (an aggregate theme), although a significant difference was observable between the two groups at both time points and particularly in the post-questionnaire. This difference is largely attributable to differences in references to *encouraging* the use of home languages (a sub-theme). Related to this, the workshop group (proportionally) made more references to *facilitating* home language use. Arguably, this is a step further than encouragement, whereby teachers are not just promoting the use of the home language, but seeing school as a place where its use *should* be developed. Both groups did also show an awareness of preventing language loss, particularly in the post-questionnaire. As with all four questions in this section, we cannot know whether the trainees themselves would implement or even believe in what they have written in these questions, but their answers do provide an indication of their awareness of such issues.

Aiding English

The trainees also explored the concept that using home languages can aid the development of, and children's understanding in, English. Both groups made more references to this than to the development of the home language in the pre-questionnaire by a considerable amount (see "in English 'second' or 'other' language (aggregate)" and "in

home language” on Table 22). Yet, in the post-questionnaire, the control group continued to reference progression in English more, whereas the workshop group discussed the development of the home language significantly more (proportionally double, in fact).

Responses relating to English were also further broken down into “development of knowledge” and “understanding in”. While the differences between these (and the references coded at them) are subtle, this is arguably an interesting distinction to explore. The difference between these being that comments relating to “development...” suggest a knowledge of *how*. As discussed throughout, neither a focus on English nor evidence of a monolingual mindset are necessarily problematic in their own right, instead, it is the extent to which both of these create *sed* use and the latter, a more need-based use. As Table 22 shows, the workshop group made more references to “development...” at both time points, whereas the control group’s responses changed from mentioning “development...” more in the pre-questionnaire to “understanding in...” in the post-questionnaire. Perhaps without having had the workshop, instead of becoming more aware of the potential *benefits* to home language use, the control group, with time, had instead become more focused on the more practical, classroom-based challenges of teaching a child with EAL. They may therefore have been more aware of helping the child to access learning more easily compared with other aspects of knowledge development.

Answers coded in the “non-language related learning” theme concerned children’s access to the curriculum (in English) more generally. Helping them to understand lesson content and using their subject knowledge in the home language, for example. The control group referenced such rationale substantially more than the workshop group at both time points. This is in line with the general trend in this question where the control group’s responses tend to be less language-focused.

The linguistic and cultural education of monolingual pupils

The linguistic and cultural education afforded to monolingual pupils (or the whole class) was also considered by the trainees, as shown in Table 22 (see “Linguistic and cultural education (aggregate)”). Using home languages for this purpose was explicitly discussed within the workshop and differences in coding references (as shown in the table) suggests this had an impact on the workshop group’s awareness.

The number of references made by the control group also increased from pre- to post-questionnaire, although there was a difference in their focus within this. Their responses focused on broadening the children's knowledge and experiences in the post-questionnaire, whereas the workshop group were more focused on increased awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity. Responses in the "broadening..." category referred to expanding children's knowledge and learning experiences in aspects other than languages and culture. Responses included: *'other children in the class can expand their knowledge'* and *'allows other students to learn more'*. Responses in the other category, "increased awareness...", all referenced either linguistic or cultural knowledge specifically (e.g. *'To help others understand culture'*).

6.4.3.c ***Using home languages to promote children's wellbeing***

Making the child feel included or involved was the most frequently referenced reason why home languages may be used in the classroom for the workshop group in both the pre- and post-questionnaire and the control group in the pre-questionnaire (CG, pre=27, 21%, post=15, 20%; WG, pre=37, 19%, post=40, 40%). In the post-questionnaire, the control group referenced making the child feel comfortable more commonly which is arguably a very similar concept (pre=21, 17%, post=18, 24%). Overall, an extremely high proportion of comments left referenced making the child feel included and involved (e.g. *'So EAL students feel included and wanted in the classroom'*). This demonstrates a general trend observable within the data where such socio-emotional needs of children are more prominent than educational ones.

A wide range of different socio-emotional needs were evident in the data: making the child feel comfortable, providing them with familiarity, supporting their emotional wellbeing and happiness, preventing them from feeling overwhelmed, reassuring and supporting them and ensuring they feel safe. This final concept is arguably an interesting one. Again, it illustrates the more emotional, empathetic perspective the trainees had (e.g. *'To enable them to feel safe and secure in their classroom environment in order for them to feel secure in their learning environment'*).

Table 22 Reasons why home languages may be used: pre- and post- and between-group differences

Themes	No. of references (%)				Example [sic]
	Pre-		Post-		
	CG	WG	CG	WG	
Knowledge (aggregate code)	56 (44)	91 (45)	55 (73)	69 (69)	
EAL child's linguistic education and repertoire (aggregate code)	20 (15)	38 (19)	17 (22)	26 (26)	
in English 'second' or 'other' language (aggregate code)	13 (10)	28 (14)	10 (13)	9 (9)	
development of knowledge	9 (7)	17 (8)	3 (4)	6 (6)	<i>Helps to learn English</i>
understanding in	4 (3)	11 (5)	7 (9)	4 (4)	<i>To assist with understanding for the EAL pupils</i>
in home language (aggregate code)	5 (3)	11 (5)	7 (9)	18 (18)	
cognitive benefits	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (1)	<i>cognitive benefits</i>
encourage use (and or culture)	1 (0)	5 (2)	2 (2)	6 (6)	<i>Because it shows pupils that it is important to keep using their home language</i>
facilitate use (or maintain culture)	2 (1)	3 (1)	1 (1)	4 (4)	<i>To enable the child to develop both languages</i>
family wishes	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (1)	0 (0)	<i>Some parents want their children to speak home lang at school</i>
linguistic benefits	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (2)	<i>linguistic benefits</i>
Prevent attrition (lang. or culture)	2 (1)	3 (1)	3 (4)	5 (5)	<i>To ensure they don't lose their first/home lang</i>
Linguistic and cultural education (aggregate code)	14 (11)	33 (16)	19 (25)	33 (33)	
broadening children's knowledge and experiences	1 (0)	4 (2)	9 (12)	5 (5)	<i>Because it gives the English speaking children the chance to experience different languages</i>
increased awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity	6 (4)	18 (9)	6 (8)	18 (18)	<i>Teaching the children that they are a part of a multicultural society</i>
promote or facilitate language learning	5 (3)	8 (4)	1 (1)	7 (7)	<i>Encourage other children to learn a new language</i>
provided by EAL child	2 (1)	4 (2)	3 (4)	3 (3)	<i>Pupils are able to teach other children about their language and culture</i>
non-language related learning (EAL child's)	24 (19)	24 (12)	19 (25)	11 (11)	<i>To encourage them to use what they already know to aid their learning</i>

As Figure 21 and Figure 20 show, both the groups referenced psychological (including the previously discussed socio-emotional needs of the child) reasons why home language use may be beneficial more in the post-questionnaire than the pre-questionnaire,

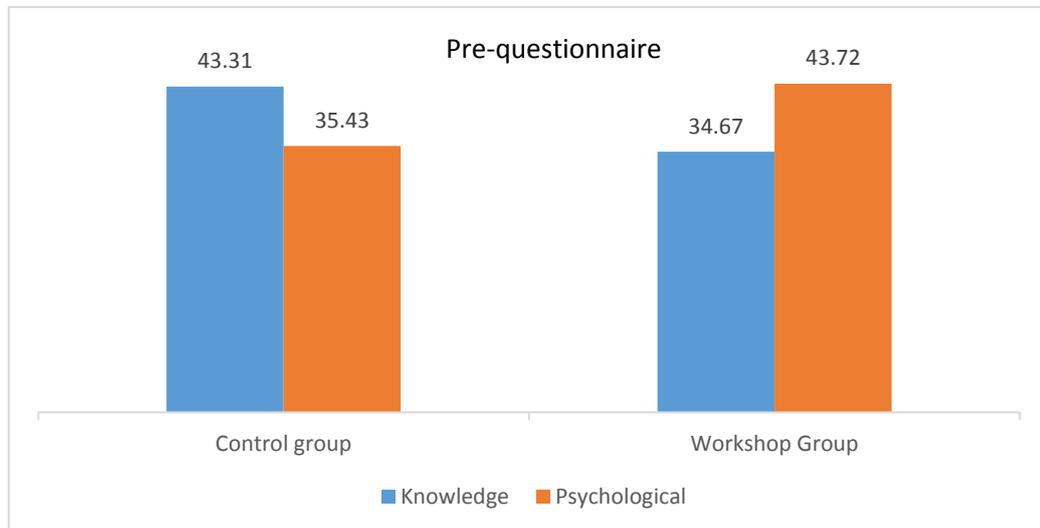


Figure 21 Pre-questionnaire coding differences between the themes of “knowledge” and “psychological” benefits

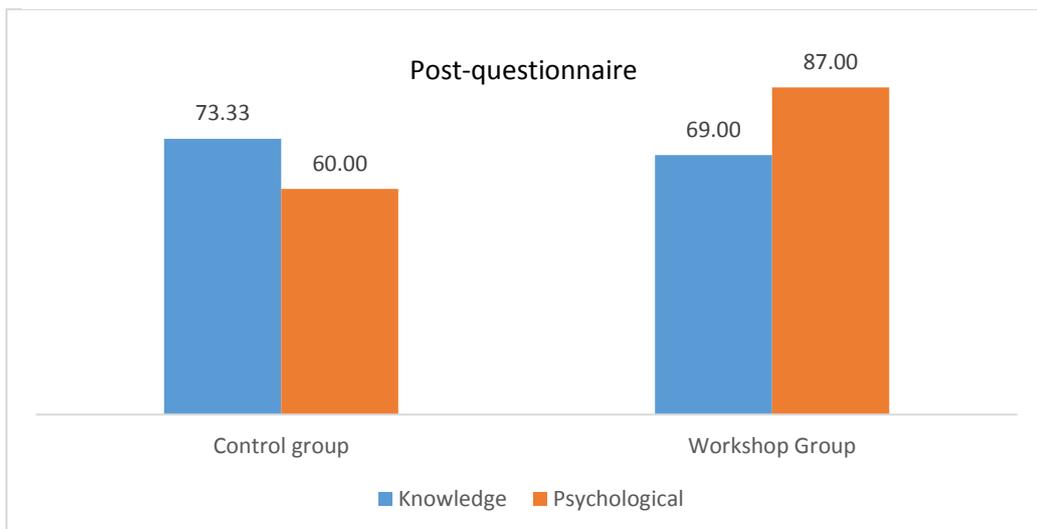


Figure 20 Post-questionnaire coding differences between the themes of “knowledge” and “psychological” benefits

thereby showing their continued awareness of such potential benefits. For the workshop group, the difference between references to “knowledge” benefits and “psychological” benefits is, in fact, greater in the post-questionnaire. However, for the control group, there is much less difference between the number of responses coded at these categories. Therefore, despite receiving input on a range of potential benefits to using home languages, the workshop group appear to retain an increased awareness of psychological ones.

6.4.3.d **Summary of question: “Some people think we should use pupils' home languages in the classroom. What do you think are the reasons for this?”**

This was the question in which the most obvious pre-existing group differences could be seen. As these groups existed within their training institutions regardless of this project, these differences also existed before any intervention. Therefore, without such interventions, these differences are likely to translate into variable classroom practice. The teachers' questionnaire found no statistically significant effect of training on teachers' views towards home languages (see section 4.4 and 4.5). However, data from the trainees suggests that such differences are likely to have originated prior to training and if unaddressed by training courses, are likely to endure into practice. This arguably highlights the importance of coherent policy and the actualisation of this on teaching training programmes.

One aspect which the trainees appeared to demonstrate some consistency regarding is the concept that home languages can be used to help “settle in” pupils with EAL (as proposed by Coelho (1998)). This suggests that the trainees may think of these pupils as recent first-generation immigrants, or that the incorporation of home languages is only appropriate for pupils who are new to English. The trainees may therefore have overlooked, or been unaware of, the potential benefits of home language use for children from second or third (etc.) generation immigrant homes. These were explicitly explored in Kenner et al.'s (2008) bilingual poetry project with British Bangladeshi children in a London primary classroom. Within this study, it was found the children accessed difficult (metaphorical) content more easily through the use of both their home language as well as being afforded the opportunity to explore their bilingual identities within the classroom context. This project was conducted within a class with a large proportion of *Bangla* speakers, unlike the classrooms the trainees were training in. Therefore, the adoption of bilingual techniques within formal teaching was unlikely to have been observed by the trainees on their teaching practice(s). Arguably this highlights the importance of initial teacher training institutions in being able to provide trainees with access to recent research regarding issues such as home language provision. Indeed, the research culture of higher education institutions which provide ITT and the question of what an increase in school-based training means for developing trainees' awareness of research, has received recent attention within the discussion of changes to ITT provision (Hodgson, 2014; Murray & Passy, 2014).

The previously discussed distinction between *encouraging* home language use and *facilitating* home language use (section 4.3) can again be seen within this set of data. For example, in the post-questionnaire, the control group made more references to encouraging, and the workshop group, facilitating. The latter arguably demonstrates a more substantial commitment to the maintenance of home languages, yet strategies relating to the former are more common in classrooms according to the Language Trends survey (Tinsley & Board, 2016). Additionally, after the workshop, the workshop group demonstrated more awareness of a variety of reasons why home languages may be maintained and used. In contrast, the control group appear to become more aware of the need for development *in English* and the role that home languages may play in this development.

Another important aspect of the data from this question was the presence of “inclusion” which has been described as a *high-status buzzword* (Hodkinson & Vickerman, 2016). This term was used most prominently by the control group in the post-questionnaire. Crucially, the use of such terms raises the question as to whether the trainees have enough subject knowledge to support their understanding in a more practical sense. As Hodkinson and Vickerman (2016) state, while inclusion may, on the surface, appear to be a straightforward concept, in reality, the definition and its application in educational practice is far from straightforward.

6.4.4 “What are some reasons why teachers might not use home languages in the classroom?”

Proportions given in this section are of all coding references for a particular group as there was only one part to this question. It is important to note that unlike the other questions, reasons why teachers would not use home languages were not explicitly discussed in the workshop. However, the trainees’ concerns over using home languages were addressed throughout as they were invited to ask questions. This question was phrased “what are some reasons why *teachers...*” in order to gain a picture of trainees’ awareness rather trainees own viewpoints. While the themes that emerged may give some indication of trainees’ viewpoints, they do not necessarily reflect them.

Across this question, fewer between-group differences can be observed compared with other questions. This may, in part, be attributable to the absence of this subject in the workshop input. Similarities in the number of coding references can also be observed in the

pre-questionnaire unlike the previous questions. The findings from this question will be presented thematically below.

6.4.4.a ***Confidence and lack of experience***

Confidence was the most commonly given reason why teachers would not use home languages for both groups in both the pre- and post-questionnaire (CG, pre=32, 20%, post=45, 33%; WG, pre=64, 26%, post=60, 35%). Both groups also gave this reason more often in the post-questionnaire. However, at both time points, the workshop group seemed to be marginally more aware of teachers' confidence. This follows a general pattern that is observable across this question in terms of the workshop group showing more awareness of the challenges teachers may face. For example, a teacher's confidence is largely beyond their control and does not exhibit an unwillingness, more an incapability, whereas the reasons more commonly cited by the control group tend to focus on a belief in the negative consequences of home language use. This trend will be discussed throughout as the themes contributing to it are presented below.

Related to confidence, the theme of having enough experience or "know-how" emerged within the data. The workshop group cited this as a reason marginally more commonly in the pre-questionnaire (CG=5%, WG=6%), yet in the post-questionnaire data there was a more noticeable difference (CG=3%, WG=11%). Additionally, within the post-questionnaire data, both groups cited a lack of training specifically as a reason why teachers might not use home languages, yet made no references to this in the pre-questionnaire. Perhaps as their training had progressed, they had become more aware of its importance, but also, any gaps that existed in their training. Being ignorant to the benefits of home languages was another theme which emerged in the workshop group's post-questionnaire data yet nowhere else (4, 2%) (e.g. '*they might not realise thoimportance of using home languages*'). While the number of references is small, the presence of this theme in the pre-questionnaire and not the post-questionnaire is arguably significant in that it is perhaps as a result of the trainees becoming aware of what their training doesn't teach them. These trainees *had* received input on the potential benefits to using home languages yet would be aware that others had not.

6.4.4.b *Other teacher-driven factors*

While the themes of confidence and know-how represent an externally-dictated inability or unwillingness, the concept of more teacher-driven inability was also evident. For example, teacher inertia was evident in the control group's pre-questionnaire data (10, 6%). Perhaps with the passage of time and with it, an increased understanding of the demands associated with being a teacher, fewer references were made in the post-questionnaire.

Responses from trainees suggested they were also aware of the individual variation that may exist amongst teachers' political viewpoints. The workshop group in particular, in both the pre- and post- questionnaire, cited teachers' own political / ideological views as a reason why they might not use home languages. These included: '*prejudice*', '*xenophobic values*' and '*political affiliations*' (pre=13, 5%, post=11, 6%). This perhaps conveys a sense of judgement towards teachers, or responsibility placed with teachers, which can be seen within the workshop group's responses in particular.

Related to these, the theme of "teacher fear" emerged within the data, particularly in the post-questionnaire. (CG, pre=1, 0.6%, post=2, 2%; WG, pre=4, 2%, post=8, 5%). While this theme is not significant in terms of number, its presence within the data is arguably nonetheless important. The workshop group reference fear in the post-questionnaire in particular. Examples of this include: "*Scared as they don't understand*"; "*Fear of being wrong*" and "*Scared of change*". The final three examples feed into the theme of teachers' linguistic ability which is discussed in the next section as well as teacher inertia (discussed above). However, their use alongside fear is perhaps additionally meaningful due to the strength of this word. It also highlights the centrality of teacher control to this project. Not understanding, being wrong and an unwillingness to change, all have one issue in common: they all relate to the teacher maintaining control over the classroom. The trainees therefore perhaps perceive that the use of home languages could threaten this control.

Finally, the theme of "time and additional workload" was also prominent in this dataset. This diverges slightly from the other themes in this section in that it is not purely teacher-driven. External pressures, differences in schools and school management, for example, are all likely to affect teachers' time and workload. The control group referenced this factor more prominently in the post-questionnaire, yet for the other group, there was little difference in the number of responses from pre- to post- (CG, pre= 13, 8%, post=17, 12%; WG, pre=21, 9%, post=15, 9%). Time spent in the classroom experiencing the demands

on teachers' time and workload may have affected the number of responses in this category. The trainees' awareness of such issues also corroborates the data from the teachers' questionnaire in which time and workload demands were a prominent theme (see section 5.5.3). It is interesting that even at this early stage, before they have teaching positions, the trainees are aware that the demands of the job may prevent them from incorporating such pedagogies.

6.4.4.c *Teachers' linguistic ability*

Teachers' linguistic ability also emerged as a prominent theme within this question. This was broken down into further sub-themes which are displayed on Figure 22. As throughout, even those sub-themes which have no or few references coded for them are shown in an effort to fully elucidate the trainees' responses for this theme as a whole.

As Figure 22 illustrates, the teacher not being able to speak the language (e.g. 'They do not know them, can't use them') was a commonly given reason in the control group in the pre- and post-questionnaire. The workshop group, however, generally gave fewer answers in this umbrella theme of teachers' knowledge.

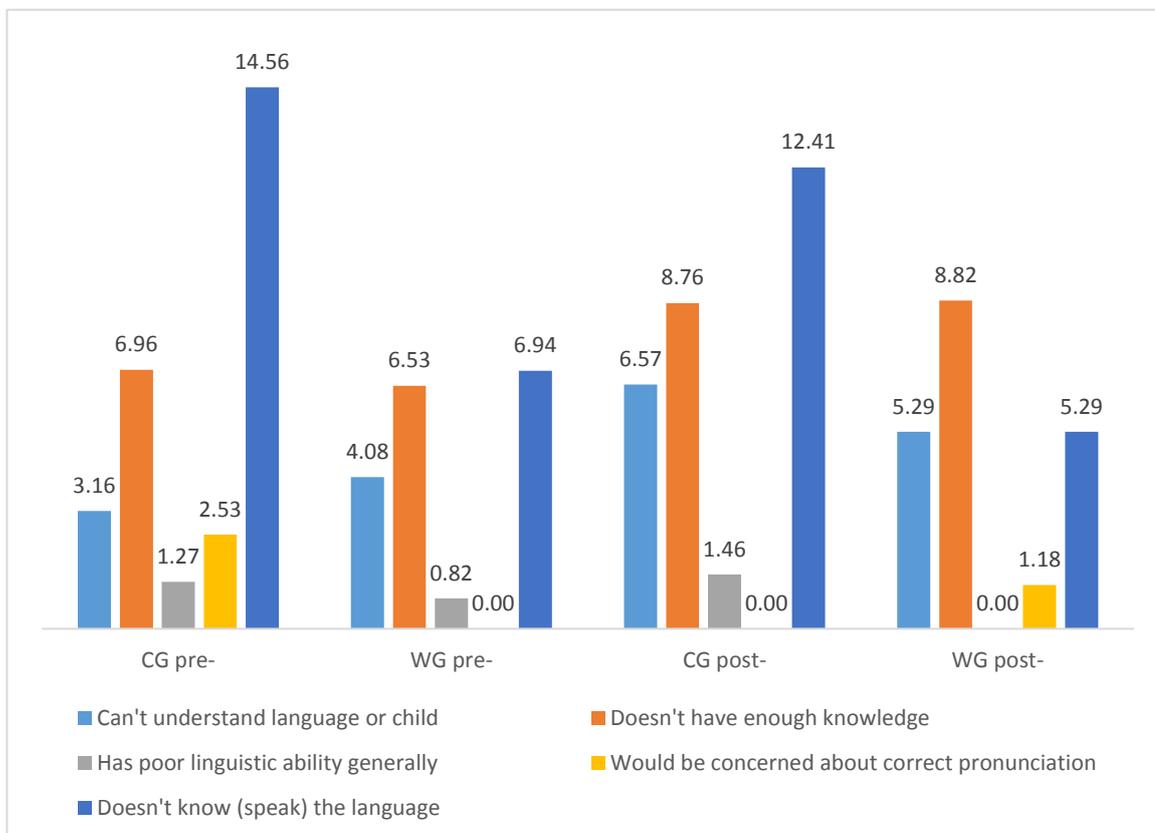


Figure 22 Teachers' linguistic knowledge: Between-subjects and within-subjects coding reference differences

The concept that the teacher does not have *enough* knowledge was prominent in both groups' data at both time points (e.g. "*Lack of knowledge*") suggesting that again, the trainees felt *some* teacher knowledge was necessary in order to incorporate home languages into the classroom. In general, the trainees appeared to be very aware of the teacher needing to provide correct knowledge (as discussed in section 5.11 in reference to the teachers' data). The concept of teachers being incorrect and in particular, teaching incorrectly, was presented as having serious consequences by the trainees. These included offending parents (*'scared of pronouncing the words wrong and offending parents'*) and negatively affecting the children's education (*'If untrained adults it might do more harm than good'*, *'They don't want to cause misconceptions'*).

The monolingual peers'/whole class experience

The monolingual children's experience of using home languages, as an umbrella theme, included many different ways in which home language use could affect their education. The control group cited reasons within this umbrella theme more commonly in both the pre- and post- questionnaire (pre=19, 12%, post=16, 12%), with little difference across these two time points. However, references to this made by the workshop group decreased marginally with time (pre=23, 9%, post=12, 7%). Sub-themes within this included the monolingual children being disinterested (*'lack of interest from peers'*) or excluded by their use (e.g. *'Because it excludes other children'*).

From a more educational perspective, the concept of home languages inhibiting the learning of the class in general was also evident in both data sets (e.g. *'Hold other children back'*). Again, this was particularly observable in the control group data. However, references to this did decrease in the post-questionnaire for both groups, yet was still mentioned 12 times in the control group data (8.8%) (WG= 5%).

As used within the teacher-driven factors, three trainees also stated that home languages may make the monolingual children feel *'uncomfortable'* (e.g. *'May make other children feel uncomfortable'*). While this is a very small number of trainees, the concept that the presence of languages other than English would make monolingual children feel uncomfortable is arguably still of significance. The choice of this word is again interesting. The trainees provide no additional information about the exact cause of this discomfort, it is therefore difficult to draw any further conclusions regarding this concept and this word choice. Perhaps what it does indicate is the presence of entrenched monolingualism within

classrooms as these trainees perceived simply hearing other languages to potentially cause pupils discomfort.

6.4.4.d *The importance of English*

The importance of English was a prominent theme in both pre- and post-questionnaire data for both groups. At the pre-questionnaire, references to this (as an umbrella theme) were marginally more frequent from the workshop group (CG= 13% WG= 16%) yet at the post-questionnaire, the control group cited this more commonly as a reason why home languages wouldn't be used (10%, WG=8%). This is in line with previous data where the control group tended to focus on progression in English more. Statements which cited English as the reason for not using home languages yet did not elaborate further (e.g. *'Children should be learning English'*) were, in fact, only found in the post-questionnaire responses from the control group (3, 2%). While the number of comments is again low, it is arguably significant as all are phrased, as in the example, as if they are the trainees' viewpoints and with no justification for this view offered.

Both groups, at both time points, made references to the fact that English should not be neglected, or should be encouraged (e.g. *'Some children may try and stick with their home language and not develop their English skills'*). In the post-questionnaire, references to this increased from the control group, yet decreased from the workshop group. Within this theme, the language choice made by the trainees offer additional insight into their perceptions. Firstly, some powerful verb choices were made to describe the process of learning English instead of the home language as in these examples: *'To get children to use English and are forced to learn it'* and *'So children begin to divorce from their home language and practice English'*. This emotional, or personal, language was not as observable in the teachers' data, yet throughout, the trainees make links to the emotional nature of home language use (see also their focus on comfort and safety in section 6.4.2.b).

The trainees' responses also showed an awareness of where the pressure to learn English comes from, although these were less common than the theme of language loss (see Figure 23). These comments fell into two categories: English is important a) as determined by the education system (e.g. *'Children are only assessed on their ability to speak in English'*) and b) for school and for British society (e.g. *'Because if a child is living in England he/she needs to be able to speak good fluent English in order to succeed in this country'*). As

throughout, these don't necessarily reflect the trainees' viewpoints, but instead, their awareness of the perceptions teachers may have.

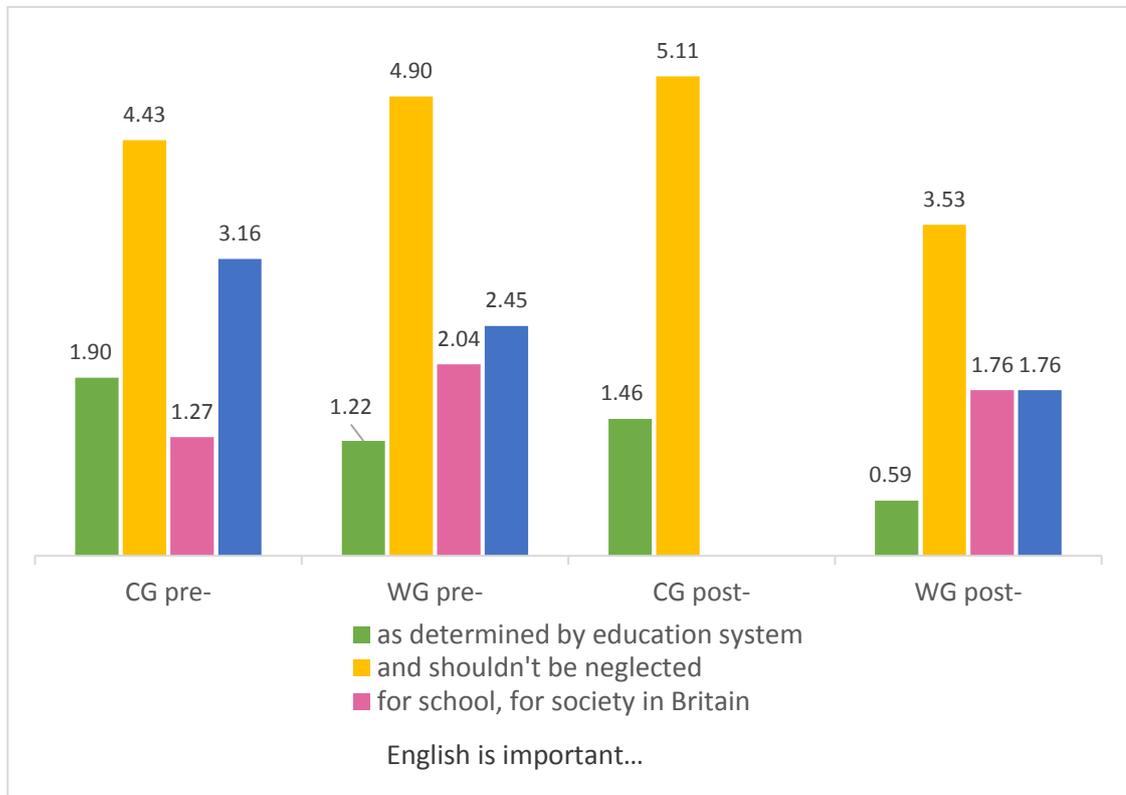


Figure 23 Bar chart of coding differences within "English is important" theme

6.4.4.e **Summary of question: "What are some reasons why teachers might not use home languages in the classroom?"**

There were a number of themes which highlighted group differences for this question. However, these were generally less salient than for the questions above. In the post-questionnaire, the workshop group showed more awareness of teacher know-how as well as lack of subject knowledge (e.g. ignorant to potential benefits of home language use). This follows the general pattern described throughout whereby this group were more likely to suggest teacher-related factors, or place responsibility with teachers. For example, the workshop group also discussed teachers' political views more commonly. The control group, however, were more likely to discuss factors outside of teachers' control. For example, time and additional workload. The control group also discussed perceived negative implications for the monolingual pupils more commonly at the post-questionnaire than the workshop group. Again, this is in line with more general trends in the data where the control group tended to focus on educational progress more. The workshop group, in turn, in both the

pre- and post- questionnaire were more likely to express more positive attitudes towards the use of home languages.

Many themes that emerged from this analysis also corroborated the results from the teachers' questionnaire. For example, the trainees discussed teachers' confidence, their linguistic knowledge and negative effects of home language use for the education of both children with EAL as well as English mother-tongue speakers. The implications of such barriers to the potential implementation of home language activities were discussed in detail within the discussion of the teachers' questionnaire, therefore these will not be discussed further within this section. However, their presence within the trainee data demonstrates how early in one's career an awareness of reasons not to use home languages may emerge.

The unique contribution the trainees' data makes to the discussion of reasons *against* home languages use is that the trainees both have first-hand classroom experience (they have spent time with teachers and in classrooms), yet as they are not currently teachers themselves, their responses are also perhaps less likely to be affected by social desirability bias (Spector, 2004). Perhaps for this reason, the trainees, particularly in the workshop group, were more inclined to be critical of teachers' attitudes and to provide reasoning relating to teachers' individual personalities. Examples of these discussed within this section included teacher inertia, political views, feeling 'uncomfortable', 'fear' and choice.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

The data from this project show there are substantial, yet often addressable, obstacles to the potential wide scale implementation of home language and multilingual pedagogies. The teachers demonstrated neither outright unwillingness, nor a complete lack of confidence to undertake the activities that were suggested to them and in general, pro-home language views were expressed. Though, importantly, they were found to be related, willingness and confidence appear to operate slightly differently. For example, while the teachers reported to feel more willing than confident to undertake all of the activities suggested to them, the qualitative data revealed a wider range factors that may influence a teacher's willingness than their confidence. However, again, a factor which affects one is likely to affect the other. Therefore, on the surface, the questionnaire data suggest that teachers' confidence may be the most important aspect to address if similar pedagogies are to be implemented. Yet, actually, the multiple, interrelated and often, deep-rooted ideological issues that affect teachers' willingness may, in fact, represent the most significant obstacle to any wide-scale implementation.

Perhaps due to their familiarity with such language learning activities, the teachers were in general agreement about their higher scoring of more informal, aural activities, rather than those which involved written use of languages. Conversely, disagreement with the concept of allowing children to use their home languages as they wished was particularly evident. In largely monolingual classrooms this is perhaps unsurprising due to the substantial change in linguistic outlook that would be required and thus ultimately, teachers' unfamiliarity with such flexible use of languages. While the teachers did not appear to object to "using" the child with EAL in terms of their scoring, neither did they demonstrate overtly positive attitudes towards doing this.

Much of the qualitative data from the teachers in the questionnaire and the focus groups corroborates the patterns that could be seen in their scoring of the questionnaire items. For example, concerns over having enough time, or an activity taking up too much time in a very full curriculum, were prominent within both these datasets. This may be another reason why the less formal (and less time-consuming) activities were preferred by the teachers. Indeed, the curriculum (as in, perceptions of and adherence to) proved to be an important thematic thread through all of the data sets. Its influence over the teachers' practice was clear and often explicitly discussed. However, perhaps expectedly, as a result of

there being no reference to home languages in any policy documents, there was some variation exhibited in how home languages were seen to align with the current curriculum. This represents a potentially very significant barrier to any systematic use of home languages in the absence of a top-down change guiding such implementation.

The role of the curriculum in establishing learning traditions could also be seen within the data. This perhaps also links back to the teachers' discomfort with linguistic flexibility and implicit within this, language use which they cannot understand. For example, in previous research looking at attitudes towards home language use (Mehmedbegovic, 2008, 2011), teachers' control over the classroom emerged as a prominent theme, much like within the current project. In a system with a long-established tradition of the teacher providing knowledge and being at the centre of the learning, that is, planning the lesson content and understanding this lesson content themselves before teaching it, allowing children to provide input and have control over their language choice (when the teacher may not understand) may feel somewhat alien.

The reinforcement of English as the dominant language of schools and society through the curriculum also emerged as being of paramount importance. The presence of an, often anglocentric, monolingual mindset was clearly evidenced in the data. It is perhaps this above all else which represents the largest obstacle to wide-scale home language use in schools as there is no easy way of measuring its influence, nor is it likely to be easy to address. The role of English is tied to many other wider societal issues, such as English as a global language, as well as the notion of a nation-state (Young, 2014). It can also be seen as a cyclical concept whereby monolingual (English) mindsets are fostered within monolingual communities or societies. Within contexts such as the research area, monolingualism is inevitable and is not problematic in itself. Instead, it is the *influence* of a monolingual culture (or mindset) and specifically, an English-speaking monolingual culture, which is central to this study as ultimately, the dominance of English can make convincing schools and wider society that other languages should take a more prominent role a difficult argument.

These wider sociolinguistic issues have yet to be fully explored by the current body of research looking at home language use in schools. These studies have largely been conducted in individual schools and often without the involvement of class teachers (e.g. Kenner et al. 2008; McGilp, 2014). Perhaps for this reason, potential issues stemming from individual classroom dynamics were not identified within these studies. For example,

individual classrooms comprise different numbers of pupils, speaking different languages and with different language preferences. Data from the current project suggest that teachers are aware of such differences and they are in turn, likely to consider such factors when deciding whether to use home languages. For example, teachers showed an awareness of their children's level of English proficiency as well as parents' English proficiency, they discussed how many children with EAL they had, how many different languages were spoken in their class with a particular focus on how *few* children with EAL. Not only does this indicate that teachers perceive their decisions to be context-driven but often, based on conflicting ideas about when home language is 'appropriate' (the word commonly chosen by teachers). For example, home language use is only appropriate for children with high English proficiency and conversely, those with only low English proficiency. Discussions about context and number also highlighted the teachers' awareness of their school's monolingualism. Within the focus groups in particular, the impression was often given that having few pupils using EAL meant teachers felt they were not entitled nor informed enough to have an opinion on home language use. In fact, teachers used this reasoning for not being able to respond to the quote presented to them.

While the actual number of children (who use EAL, or a particular language) cannot be controlled, teachers' perceptions of their classroom demographics perhaps can be. Perhaps if teachers were to receive training regarding how home languages can be used within a broader range of classroom contexts, their (often conflicting) perceptions regarding number may be changed. In order to explore this further, classroom or teacher training interventions could be implemented and assessed within future research.

The significance of language learning and being language-minded must also be acknowledged. From the quantitative data collected from this project in particular, teachers' language learning experiences and attitudes towards languages were shown to influence their willingness and confidence scores. The cyclical quality of this is also important to highlight: if schools do not foster pupils' interest in languages, the next generation of teachers is also unlikely to be language-minded and thus, the cycle continues.

The influence of language-mindedness (or a tendency to have favourable views towards home language use) was further emphasised within the trainee data. Significant pre-questionnaire differences between the trainees in the workshop group (who demonstrated far more pro-language attitudes) and the control group could be seen. In the

post-questionnaires these differences thus became even more observable. This arguably provides a strong rationale for the inclusion of more input regarding home languages as well as language learning more generally within teacher training curricula as these vast differences existed regardless of this project. Therefore, without intervention, such differences are likely to endure as trainees take up their teaching positions.

As this questionnaire would not have been administered were it not for this project, the participating training providers are likely to have been unaware of these differences in perceptions regarding home languages (and again, languages more generally). Therefore, conceivably, if more significant change is to be realised, a more substantial commitment to expanding this aspect of trainees' education must be made. However, it is well-documented that there is very little space on ITT programmes (e.g. Cajkler & Hall, 2009) therefore there is a question as to whether this would be considered feasible by training providers. Additionally, as the education of EAL pupils in general forms only one part of a teaching standard ('have a clear understanding of the needs of all pupils ... including those with English as an additional language' (DfE, 2011)) this perhaps further suggests that such input may not, or could not, be allocated more time in ITT. The intervention did, however, highlight how even small amounts of input (one hour within this project) have the potential to make a difference, particularly in terms of trainees' knowledge of *how* to represent linguistic and cultural diversity and use home languages.

However, currently, whether looking at the teachers' data, where the reported training has taken place over a fairly large timespan, or the trainee data, where training in the two institutions was happening simultaneously, the picture of the training received by the participants was variable. One of the main points of variance was whether the trainees or teachers had yet to receive any training regarding the teaching of pupils with EAL. Data from the trainees highlight another key issue in that no guarantees regarding the demographics of the classrooms trainees are assigned to on their placements can be made. Within areas with low and variable numbers of pupils with EAL, which are likely to be common, particularly outside large cities, it is likely to be difficult to manipulate placements so that every trainee experiences a classroom with many, or sometimes even one, pupil(s) who use EAL.

This is one of the ways in which geography (or localised-context) emerged as significant within the project. Namely, the geographical location of training can be seen as

being central to the experience of trainees and their preparedness as teachers. It is likely to affect the number of children with EAL encountered by a trainee, although within limits, as discussed above. Not only this, training in general is likely to have an increasingly localised focus with the rise in school-based training (Hodgson, 2014). Therefore, a given school's practice regarding EAL education may potentially be a trainee's only reference point. Ensuring a standardised approach to using home languages (or educating pupils with EAL more generally) is therefore also likely to be increasingly difficult, again, particularly given that it is not currently part of the teaching standards framework (2011).

To conclude this section, it seems the key findings from the current project could be summarised and exemplified using one of the suggested activities from the questionnaire, that is: using the children's home languages, or multiple languages, to answer the register. Teachers overwhelmingly indicated they would be happy to implement this activity, indeed, many of them already were. This indicates the level of multilingualism teachers are perhaps currently comfortable with. It is an aural, informal activity, that can fit within an existing part of the day. It therefore requires no additional time to plan or implement and no linguistic knowledge from the teacher. It is conceivable why it seems so popular and demonstrates how *if* such pedagogy is to be implemented on a wider scale, the same ease of use would be critical in determining take-up.

Additionally, the prominence of this activity arguably demonstrates the central role of the curriculum and long-established learning patterns, not only in determining current practice but also, future practice. This not only includes the teacher-led learning process, as discussed above, but also the way in which the day is divided into 'times' and lessons (something which the teachers and trainees frequently assigned hypothetical home language use to). The prominence of using the register within *both* the teachers' and the trainee data also highlights how learning traditions can feed into future practice through school-based training and teacher training practicums. However, a more cross-curricular, fluid, approach was suggested by the trainees who had received the workshop (which exemplified how this could be done). Without such input, continued division of home languages into 'times' may lead to a failure to achieve one the commonly-cited rationales behind their inclusion (e.g. Conteh (2003), Young and Herlot (2003), McGilp (2012)). Namely, that their use as part of 'normal' classroom life (in conjunction with English) exhibits equal respect for that language.

Lastly, if home languages are to be used within classrooms, teachers must be provided with ways in which they can do this without prior linguistic knowledge. Asking teachers to have prior knowledge of all or any of the languages they may encounter is of course, unfeasible, particularly given the demands already on their role. Not only this, all three datasets also suggest that training or resources would need to provide them with the *confidence* to allow a child to provide language input, or to be a learner themselves, alongside the children (as in the Discovering Languages Project (ASCL, 2016)).

As explored above, while a snapshot of one activity can provide some insight into teachers' preparedness to use home languages, one of the central rationales of this project was to more widely evaluate the current view we have of this preparedness. We can then begin to establish to what extent the potential benefits to using home language *could* be accessed by all pupils. Such benefits may include, for example: fostering a child's bilingualism and their access to the potential cognitive benefits of this (e.g. Bialystok, 1988); developing all students' language awareness (Hawkins, 1984); as well as their intercultural competence, global world knowledge and understanding; creating a classroom which demonstrates a respect towards other languages and the speakers of those languages and ultimately, preparing children for the multilingual global world in which they are entering (Lanvers et al., 2016). The data from this study, however, suggest that teachers do not necessarily share the same beliefs in whether using home languages in the classroom advantages bilingual and/or monolingual children. When potential advantages were discussed, an awareness of potential socio-cultural benefits appeared to more prevalent, particularly within the trainee data. As later discussed, providing teachers with evidence of any educational advantages which may be afforded to their pupils by using home languages is arguably an essential step in promoting their increased presence in classrooms. The argument therefore remains for future research to *assess* such benefits within classrooms.

What this project contributes is an understanding of what it would take in order to be able to implement pedagogy which may *lead* to such benefits. Indeed, as discussed above, simply implementing home language activities and then reaping the rewards is not a straightforward, nor feasible, option in many schools - for the wide variety of reasons evidenced in this study.

7.1 Limitations of the present study

Both design and implementation limitations are discussed within this section.

Researching within a primary school context created some difficulties which affected the implementation of the research. This was perhaps most apparent in terms of gatekeeping issues while accessing participants. It proved extremely difficult to recruit teachers as emails could only be sent to school administration addresses thereby affecting the numbers of participants for the questionnaire and the focus groups. While a large number of different schools were accessed (in terms of the questionnaire), the overall response rate (which was estimated at 6.3%) was still low, reducing the reliability of the dataset.

The data is likely to have been subject to a certain amount of bias. Firstly, due to the response rate. This may have led to response-bias, where a biased view of the research area results from low participation rates. But also, self-selection bias, as the teachers who did participate are likely to have had some interest in the topic of languages; they may have also been teachers who had strong opinions on this subject (positive or negative) as well as being the specific teachers who were sent the invitation to participate from the administrative staff. Anecdotally speaking, many school administrators had thought the questionnaires were designed for the MFL teacher(s) only and on numerous occasions were therefore requested to send it to all staff instead. While efforts were made to minimise such issues, it is conceivable that purely by having the word 'languages' in the research project, this assumption may have been held. Such issues must be kept in mind when considering the teachers' questionnaire as well as the focus group data. Although this represents a validity problem, it also arguably makes the conclusions drawn more striking as the teachers involved were more likely to be pro-languages and yet still showed many concerns regarding home language use.

Due to the difficulty in securing time in schools, an additional phase of the project which assessed the implementation of home language and multilingual pedagogies would not have been feasible. This meant that while this project can report on teachers' perceptions of hypothetical practice, it cannot assume that teachers would hold the same views after real-life classroom implementation of the activities. Connected to this, conclusions regarding children's experiences of undertaking such activities cannot be drawn. This is a substantial gap in the current body of research which this project therefore fails to contribute to.

7.2 The implications of this project for future research, practice and policy

A follow-up study should therefore extend the scope of the present study by focussing on measuring the educational effects that can be observed from implementing home language and multilingual pedagogies. 'Educational' as used here, is not intended to mean purely in terms of the curriculum, cognition or language development. Instead, it is intended to encompass *all* educational change, including social skills, intercultural communication, tolerance and understanding of global multilingualism, for example.

Provided within the existing body of research, including this project, we have an understanding of what *can* work in specific classrooms in a small number of different contexts and from this project specifically, an awareness of the obstacles that may exist for any wider scale implementation is provided. However, what is arguably still missing is the combination of knowing what *can* work, what teachers *could* do (e.g. within their skill set) and they *would* do (e.g. in line with the curriculum and how an activity affects classroom learning). This could take the form of a planned intervention, for example, using classroom teachers, implementing activities that they feel comfortable with, in order to assess what learning gains can be made. The current project suggests that teachers and trainees have conflicting views on what effect using home languages may have (e.g. "home languages cause confusion" – a commonly expressed viewpoint within the teachers' and trainees' data). If further evidence could be provided of what educational implications there may be in a wide range of classrooms, this would conceivably have substantial influence over teachers' future practice as well as any policy formulation.

In terms of the implications of the current project for teaching practice and educational policy, these are more difficult to determine in the absence of any current requirements regarding home language use. What is clear, however, is that teachers' practice may be governed by many different perceptions they hold. Many of those explored within the current project were subject to much variation and, indeed, contradiction amongst the teachers. They were also often based on deep-rooted learning and teaching ideologies. As an umbrella to all of the above, the role of English as the most dominant language within schools and society (and as a global language) is of paramount importance.

Armed with this knowledge, however, any future attempt to implement home language and multilingual pedagogies could focus on raising teachers' awareness of these specific issues and in particular, address the conflicting perceptions exemplified within this

study. What this project therefore provides is detailed insight into the obstacles to such implementation and thus, what needs to be addressed if such pedagogies are to be implemented in the future. Additionally, if training is to be provided to pre- and in-service teachers, as well as knowing the issues they may face (practical and ideological), this study provides an example of training workshop content which has the potential to change attitudes and equip teachers with knowledge which they would be able to carry forward into their practice.

However, what is clear from the many factors which may govern teachers' practice regarding home languages that are elucidated within this study, is that if systematic, planned and effective home language pedagogies are to be employed, this is likely to only be as a result of a top-down change, particularly in the current climate of target-driven culture (as often referenced by the teachers in this study). Teachers' perceptions aside, educational policy would also need to allow room for linguistically responsive teaching, to encourage flexibility in classroom language choice and even to alleviate the pressure faced by teachers and pupils to meet standards in English. Without the official endorsement nor provision of resources and training afforded by policy being in place, ultimately, the wide variation in attitudes and thus, practice, seen within this project are likely to endure.

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Appendix 1 Suggested activity questions and their codes

Table 23 Suggested activity questions and their codes

No.	Activity	Code
1	Asking the children to answer the register with “hello” in different languages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Vocabulary - multilingual - aural - Some teacher knowledge required - Some use of children as resource - Classroom dialogue - Short time - Language learning - Linguistic comparison
13	Using bilingual storybooks to teach the children about how words are ordered in different languages.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Grammar/Word Order - Multilingual - Linguistic comparison - Use of physical recourse - Some teacher knowledge required - Long time - Literature
9	Singing a Spanish alphabet song using an online video to help (e.g. “a” “asno” “b” “bici” “c” “casa”)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Phonology - Some teacher knowledge required - Aural - Monolingual - Short time - Comparison with L1 - Physical resource - European language
2	Practising writing the children’s names in Punjabi script (using an online translation tool), writing from right to left as in Punjabi, and preparing a final version.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Scripts - monolingual - non-European language - Use of physical recourse - No teacher knowledge required - Long time
5	Using classroom instructions an EAL child has taught you and the class in their home language.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Using an EAL child as a resource - Vocabulary - Grammar - Aural - Monolingual - Short time - Classroom dialogue - No teacher knowledge required - Language learning - Translanguaging

12	Asking EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their culture and tell the other children about them.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Using an EAL child as a resource - Culture - No teacher knowledge required - Short time - Culture - Aural
8	Using two poems with a similar theme. One poem is in English and the other, in the home language of an/the EAL child(ren). The EAL child(ren) translates the poem for the class and together you look at the cultural information in the poems and any other interesting differences.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Literature (poetry) - Reading - Using an EAL child as a resource - No teacher knowledge required - Culture - Long time - Monolingual - Use of physical resource - Linguistic comparison - Comparison of cultures
11	Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre. E.g. a newspaper, an advert, a novel.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reading - multilingual - Some teacher knowledge required - Long time - Culture - Use of physical resource - Linguistic comparison
7	Splitting the class into pairs, giving each pair a conversation sequences in a different language and asking them to make a puppet/doll of the speakers and practise the dialogue together.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Phonology - Reading - multilingual - Use of physical resource - Long time - Linguistic comparison - No teacher knowledge required - Aural
15	Learning the words and actions to "Head, shoulders, knees and toes" in Polish from a Polish speaking child in the class and using a video to help.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Aural - using EAL child as a resource - comparison with L1 - Language learning - Short time - Use of physical resource - European language - Monolingual - No teacher knowledge required
6	Asking a Lithuanian-speaking member of the community to come in to school and teach the children some basic language.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Using the community/parents as a resource - No teacher knowledge required - Long time - Monolingual - Language learning - Aural - European language - vocab
3	Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Culture - Multicultural

	children about the differences between people, their environments and their lives.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use of physical resource - Long time - Some teacher knowledge required - Comparison of cultures - Aural
14	Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Translanguaging - No teacher knowledge required - Aural
4	Teaching topic vocabulary in French alongside English. E.g. "minibeasts" (a caterpillar = une chenille)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - MFL - Linguistic comparison - Some teacher knowledge required - European language - Monolingual - Short time - Language learning - Bilingual activity - vocab
10	As part of the children's science work, asking an EAL child (or children) to help the other children label the parts of a flower in both English and the EAL child's home language.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Language learning - Short time - Using an EAL child as a resource - Bilingual activity - Vocabulary - Linguistic comparison - Monolingual - No teacher knowledge required - vocab

Appendix 2 Results for “Have you done this activity before?” question

Table 24 Frequencies for "Have you done this activity before?" questions

Scenario	Yes	Yes %	No	No %
Asking the children to answer the register with “hello” in different languages	158	94.61	9	5.39
Practising writing the children’s names in Punjabi script ...	13	7.78	154	92.22
Using pictures of playgrounds across the world ...	69	41.32	98	58.68
Teaching topic vocabulary in French alongside English...	65	39.39	100	60.61
Using classroom instructions an EAL child has taught you and the class in their home language.	59	35.76	106	64.24
Asking a Lithuanian-speaking member of the community to come in to school ...	35	21.21	130	78.79
Splitting the class into pairs, giving each pair a conversation sequences in a different language ...	35	21.21	130	78.79
Using two poems with a similar theme. One poem is in English and the other, in the home language of an/the EAL child(ren)...	13	7.93	151	92.07
Singing a Spanish alphabet song using an online video to help ...	37	22.7	126	77.30
As part of the children’s science work, asking an EAL child (or children) to help the other children label the parts of a flower ...	21	13.13	139	86.88
Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre...	11	7.01	146	92.99
Asking EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their culture ...	76	48.41	81	51.59
Using bilingual storybooks ...	61	38.85	96	61.15
Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish	54	34.39	103	65.61
Learning the words and actions to “Head, shoulders, knees and toes” in Polish ...	37	23.57	120	76.43

Appendix 3 Teachers' Questionnaire



THE UNIVERSITY *of York*

Ethical preamble

This questionnaire is designed to investigate the use of languages and the teaching of diversity in primary classrooms across [REDACTED]

The questionnaire:

The questionnaires will be anonymous from the outset. Codes will be used instead of school names in the data analysis and reporting of the research. The list of codes and school names will only be accessed by the researcher. Teachers and schools will therefore not be identifiable in any reporting of the findings. Similarly, head teachers will have no access to the original data given by teachers.

The data you give:

All data will be kept indefinitely, it will be kept securely in a password protected file to which only the researcher will have access. This anonymous data may also be used in future research projects. As the questionnaire is anonymous, there will be no opportunity to withdraw once it has been submitted. Once this project is completed, the anonymous data may be used in presentations, future research projects, publications and within the PhD thesis.

If you have any queries or complaints you can contact the researcher directly or the Chair of the Education Ethics Committee at the University of York.

Researcher: Elizabeth Bailey - eb652@york.ac.uk
Education Ethics Committee: education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

By submitting the questionnaire you are giving your formal consent to your anonymous

data being used within the study.

Your teaching experience

Which school do you currently work in? (This will remain anonymous)

Which of the following apply to your teaching experience?

I have only worked in schools in the

I have worked in more than 5
different schools

I have worked in (a) multi-ethnic
school(s)

I have never taught an EAL child

I have mostly worked in schools that
have very low numbers of EAL pupils

How many years have you been teaching for?

Which year group do you currently teach?

Where did you complete your teacher training?

**Which of these did you receive during your initial teaching training?
(Please click all that apply)**

Lecture(s) on EAL education/the teaching of EAL pupils

A practical workshop on teaching EAL pupils

A study visit/trip/observations

A placement in a multi-ethnic school

No EAL-specific training

Other

Teaching and learning languages

Your language learning experience:

Please select a number

How many modern foreign language GCSEs/O-Levels do you have? (e.g. French)	0	1	2	3+
How many foreign languages have you learnt beyond GCSE/O-Level ?	0	1	2	3+
How many foreign languages would you be confident to teach at primary level?	0	1	2	3+
How many foreign languages have you learnt outside formal education ?	0	1	2	3+

Do you speak a language other than English at home?

Yes

No

Do you teach a language/languages (other than English) to your class currently?

Yes

No

Please show your level of agreement with the two statements by dragging the slider to select a number between 1-100

totally disagree	generally disagree	slightly disagree	slightly agree	generally agree	totally agree
0	20	40	60	80	100

I enjoy teaching languages (other than English)

I feel confident
teaching
languages (other
than English)

I enjoy teaching
English

I feel confident
teaching English

EAL pupils and their home languages

Some questions will refer to an EAL child's "home language" by this, we mean any language (other than English) the child may speak in their home environment. For example, a child may speak to one of his/her parents in Lithuanian.

How many EAL pupils do you currently have in your main class?

Exact number (if known)

Less than 5 (if exact
number not known)

More than 5 (if exact
number not known)

When you have an EAL child (or children) in your class, how often would you...

	never/very rarely	1-3 times a term	4-6 times a term	at least every week
Mention in passing their home language(s)?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide them with additional language support?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Incorporate their home language(s) into classroom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

into classroom
activities?



Teaching ideas

For this final set of questions:

You will be given a suggested activity (please assume it is age appropriate and fits your current topic)

Please indicate by dragging the slider to select a number between 1 and 100:

1) How **confident** you would feel about doing the suggested activity

AND

2) How **willing** you would be to do that activity

(There are two sliders: one for confidence and one for willingness)

For each question, please also indicate whether you have ever done the suggested activity before and add any comments you wish to make.

1) Asking the children to answer the register with "hello" in different languages

not at all not very a little moderately very extremely
0 20 40 60 80 100

How **confident**
would you be to
do this?

How **willing** would
you be to do this?

1) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

1) Please add any comments you wish to make

2) Practising writing the children's names in Punjabi script (using an online translation tool), writing from right to left as in Punjabi, and preparing a final version.

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

2) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

2) Please add any comments you wish to make

3) Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the children about the differences between people, their environments and their lives.

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

3) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

3) Please add any comments you wish to make

4) Teaching topic vocabulary in French alongside English. E.g. "minibeasts" (a caterpillar = une chenille)

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

4) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

4) Please add any comments you wish to make

5) Using classroom instructions that an EAL child has taught to you and the class in their home language.

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

5) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

5) Please add any comments you wish to make

6) Asking a Lithuanian-speaking member of the community to come in to school and teach the children some basic language.

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

6) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

6) Please add any comments you wish to make

7) Splitting the class into pairs, giving each pair a conversation sequence in a different language and asking them to make a puppet of the speakers and practise the dialogue together.

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

7) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

7) Please add any comments you wish to make

8) Using two poems with a similar theme. One poem is in English and the other, in the home language of an EAL child. The EAL child (or children) translates the poem for the class and together you look at the cultural information in the poems and any other interesting differences.

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

8) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

8) Please add any comments you wish to make

9) Singing a Spanish alphabet song using an online video to help (e.g. "a" "asno" "b" "bici" "c" "casa")

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

9) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

9) Please add any comments you wish to make

10) As part of the children's science work, asking an EAL child (or children) to help the other children label the parts of a flower in both English and the EAL child's home language.

not at all not very a little moderately very extremely
0 20 40 60 80 100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

10) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

10) Please add any comments you wish to make

11) Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre e.g. a newspaper, an advert, a novel.

not at all not very a little moderately very extremely
0 20 40 60 80 100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

11) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

11) Please add any comments you wish to make

12) Asking the EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their "home" culture and tell the other children about them.

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

12) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

12) Please add any comments you wish to make

13) Using bilingual storybooks to teach the children about how words are ordered in different languages.

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

13) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

13) Please add any comments you wish to make

14) Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish.

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

14) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

14) Please add any comments you wish to make

15) Learning the words and actions to “Head, shoulders, knees and toes” in Polish from a Polish speaking child in the class, using a video to help.

not at all	not very	a little	moderately	very	extremely
0	20	40	60	80	100

How **confident** would you be to do this?

How **willing** would you be to do this?

15) Have you done this activity before?

Yes

No

15) Please add any comments you wish to make

Appendix 4 Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary analyses were conducted on the teachers' questionnaire data in order to establish what would be the most effective and concise final analysis to be conducted. As this project is exploratory and thus no previous research has (statistically) indicated what may affect teachers' willingness and confidence, it is arguably first necessary to gain a picture of which variables correlate with these (i.e. the variables 'mean willingness' and 'mean confidence' - see Methodology, section 3.4.5.a for an explanation of these variables). Please also see section 3.4.5.a for procedures observed regarding normality and outliers.

4.1 Willingness as an outcome variable

The following sections present and discuss the finding regarding teachers' mean willingness (minus Q14) as a dependent variable.

4.1.1 Willingness and teaching experience

Following visual inspection of a box and whisker diagram plotting mean willingness scores for teachers who had answered 'true' or 'false' for the teaching experience variables from the questionnaire, it was decided statistical analysis would be run on these variables.

Table 25 Bootstrapped independent-samples t-tests analysing differences in teachers' mean willingness scores between groups with certain teaching experiences

Variable	"true"	"false"	Test statistic [95% confidence intervals]
"I have only taught in schools in [this county]"	<i>N</i> = 98 <i>M</i> = 66.43 <i>SD</i> = 18.08	<i>N</i> = 56 <i>M</i> = 66.46 <i>SD</i> = 20.9	<i>t</i> = .010 (152), <i>p</i> = .989 [-6.15, 7.19] <i>d</i> = 0.002
"I have taught in multi-ethnic school(s)"	<i>N</i> = 44 <i>M</i> = 70.29 <i>SD</i> = 20.46	<i>N</i> = 110 <i>M</i> = 64.9 <i>SD</i> = 18.39	<i>t</i> = -1.59 (152) <i>p</i> = .147 [-11.52, 1.21] <i>d</i> = 0.29
"I have only taught in schools with low numbers of EAL children"	<i>N</i> = 69 <i>M</i> = 65.77 <i>SD</i> = 19.53	<i>N</i> = 85 <i>M</i> = 66.98, <i>SD</i> = 18.82	<i>t</i> = .391 (152) <i>p</i> = .697 [-4.47, 7.19] <i>d</i> = 0.06
"I have taught in more than five different schools"	<i>N</i> = 44 <i>M</i> = 72.42 <i>SD</i> = 17.72	<i>N</i> = 110 <i>M</i> = 64.05 <i>SD</i> = 19.17	<i>t</i> = -2.5 (152), <i>p</i> = .008 [-14.17, -1.98] <i>d</i> = 0.45

Bootstrapped independent-samples t-test were run to analyse these differences. The independent variables are listed in the left-hand column of Table 25.

As Table 25 shows, differences in mean scores for teachers who had chosen “true and those who had chosen “false” were not significant for all but one of these variables. The only variable in which the difference was significant was “I have taught in more than five different schools”. This represented a medium-size effect. This therefore suggested that this variable should be used within the later analysis (section 5.1.1).

4.1.2 Willingness and Key Stage

Table 26 shows the mean willingness scores for teachers according to which year group(s) they were teaching in. As the table illustrates, teachers teaching across year groups had the highest mean willingness scores. These teachers are likely to be language teachers, therefore their higher scores are perhaps unsurprising. Teachers from KS1 and KS2 had extremely similar mean willingness scores. We may have expected teachers from KS2 to have higher scores given that teaching a language is compulsory according to the curriculum at this stage.

Table 26 Number and percentage of teachers teaching different year group categories and their mean willingness scores

“Year group”	<i>n</i>	Mean willingness score
KS1	46	73.78
KS2	87	75.89
Across year groups	10	82.16
Head teacher	3	87

However, teachers do not necessarily provide this language instruction themselves (Tinsley & Board, 2017) and academies are not obligated to follow the curriculum. Therefore, while there are some slight differences in mean scores, the differences between these groups of teachers and particularly, between teachers teaching in KS1 and KS2, where we may have expected to see some difference, are arguably not large enough to warrant any further analysis on this division of scores.

4.1.3 Willingness and training

Following visual inspection of boxplots which plotted the mean willingness scores for teachers who had undertaken different training types, differences in scores for these training categories were deemed large enough to run further analysis on. A Mann-Whitney-U test was then run to analyse the differences between those teachers who had undertaken the named training type and those who had not. This was chosen as the data were not normally distributed within the groups. The results are shown in Table 27.

Table 27 Results of a Mann-Whitney U test conducted on the training variables and mean willingness

Variable	Test statistic
Lecture(s) on EAL education/the teaching of EAL pupils	$U = 2,982, z = .092, p = .93, d = 0.01$
A practical workshop on teaching EAL pupils	$U = 2,386, z = 1.01, p = .31, d = 0.001$
A study visit/trip/observations	$U = 3,290, z = 1.68, p = .094, d = 0.27$
A placement in a multi-ethnic school	$U = 2,389, z = -2.08, p = .038, d = 0.34$
No EAL-specific training	$U = 2,741, z = 1.02, p = .31, d = 0.16$

Mean willingness scores from teachers who had undertaken a training placement differed significantly from the other training categories. This represented a medium-sized effect (J. Cohen, 1988). None of the other groups' scores were significantly different from one another. The difference between mean willingness scores from teachers who had undertaken a visit, trip or observations and those from the other training categories did represent a small sized effect, however.

Therefore, results from this analysis suggests that while mean scores from teachers who have received lectures, workshops and no training (as we may expect) were not vastly different, teachers who had undertaken a visit, trip or observations as well as a placement in a school, may be more likely to have higher willingness scores. Consequently, these variables will be considered in further analysis of factors affecting willingness scores.

4.1.4 Willingness and number of pupils with EAL

Figure 24 shows a box and whisker diagram of teachers' mean willingness scores according to how many children with EAL they were currently teaching. Table 28 shows the mean scores and number of teachers in each category. From the diagram and it can be concluded that on the whole, there was very little difference between teachers who taught different numbers of pupils who used EAL. The only striking difference is for the category 7-13 children. However, as the group of teachers within this category is much smaller than for the others. If we split the categories into fewer than 7 and above seven (M = 65.68 and M

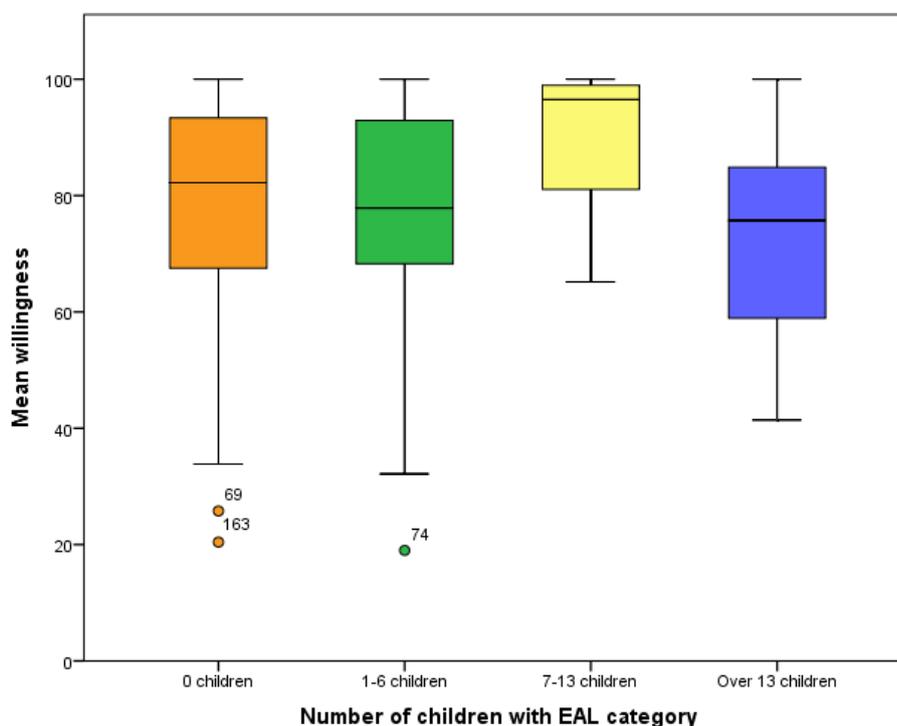


Figure 24 Boxplots showing the mean willingness scores for teachers teaching different numbers of children with EAL

=74.35) a difference can still be seen. However, the numbers of teachers within these groups remains very uneven even when split into two. For this reason, alongside the temporary nature of the linguistic make-up of a teacher's current class, no further analysis will be conducted on this "number" variable.

Table 28 The number and percentage of teachers teaching different numbers of pupils with EAL

Category	N	%
0 children	49	65.68
1-6 children	63	65.68
7-13 children	7	80.04
13+ children	13	68.66

4.1.5 Willingness and years teaching

A Spearman's rank-order correlation (Spearman, 1904) was run on the "years teaching" variable (i.e. how long a teacher had been teaching for) and the mean willingness variable. This was chosen as the data were not normally distributed and there was a non-linear, monotonic relationship between the variables (Sheskin, 1997). It was found that years teaching was not significantly related to teachers' willingness scores $r_s = -.023$, 95% BCa CI [-.186, .126] $p = .776$. Years of teaching thus appeared to have very little influence on teachers' scores and thus, no further analysis will be run on this variable.

4.1.6 Willingness and the enjoy / confidence attitudinal variables

For the results presented in Table 29 regarding teachers' willingness scores and the variables relating to enjoying and feeling confident to teach languages (other than English), a Spearman's rank-order correlation was run (Spearman, 1904). Again, this was selected as the data were not normally distributed and there was a non-linear, monotonic relationship between the variables (Sheskin, 1997). As the table shows, mean willingness was significantly related to both the "enjoy" and "confidence" variables. This represented a medium-large effect for both variables.

Table 29 The results of Spearman correlations between mean willingness and the MFL attitudinal variables

	"I enjoy teaching languages (other than English)" [95% confidence intervals]	"I feel confident teaching languages (other than English)" [95% confidence intervals]
Spearman correlation:		
Mean willingness	$r = .331, p < .001, [.192, .491]$	$r = .353, p < .001, [.203, .492]$

The results presented in Table 30 are from the same set of variables, except instead of languages (other than English), they asked teachers about teaching English. These were intended to be used as a point of comparison to the variables presented above. A Pearson's product-moment correlation run between mean willingness and the "English" variables as the relationship between these was linear as assessed by visual inspection of a scatterplot.

Table 30 The results of a Pearson's product-moment correlation between mean willingness and the English attitudinal variables

	"I enjoy teaching English" [95% confidence intervals]	"I feel confident teaching English" [95% confidence intervals]
Pearson correlation:		
Mean willingness	$r = .273, p = .001, [.114, .428]$	$r = .29, p < .001, [.124, .425]$

As Table 30 shows, mean willingness was also significantly related to both the “enjoy” variable and the “confidence” variable for teaching English. This represented a medium-sized effect. This therefore perhaps indicates a general “keenness” amongst some teachers, in that, if they enjoy and are confident to teach other subjects, they are also more likely to be willing to implement home language pedagogies (or report to be). While the “English” variables do not hold a great deal of relevance to the project, the language variables will be considered within the next stage of analysis (see section 5.1.1).

4.1.7 Willingness and language learning

A Spearman’s rank-order correlation (Spearman, 1904) was also run to analyse the relationship between teachers’ mean willingness scores and their language learning experiences. As shown in Table 31, teachers’ mean willingness scores were significantly related to the number of MFL GCSEs they had as well as they number of languages learnt beyond GCSE.

Table 31 Results of a Spearman rank-order correlation run on mean willingness scores and language qualification variables

	No. of MFL GCSEs [95% confidence intervals]	No. of languages learnt beyond GCSE [95% confidence intervals]	No. of languages learnt outside formal education [95% confidence intervals]	No. of languages confident to teach [95% confidence intervals]
Mean willingness	$r_s = .208, p = .010$ [.038, .363]	$r_s = .327, p = <.000$ [.176, .478]	$r_s = .100$ ns, $p = .219$ [-.072, .250]	$r_s = .334, p = <.000$ [.191, .468]

However, mean willingness scores were not significantly related to the number of languages learnt outside of formal education. While GCSEs and other language qualifications are standardised, language learning outside of formal education is arguably much more variable. For example, such learning may have been for a shorter period and may therefore have had less of an effect on teachers’ perceptions of languages and ultimately, their willingness to incorporate them in their lessons. See section 3.4.5 for how these language qualification variables were used in the main analysis.

4.2 Confidence as an outcome variable

The following analyses use the same independent variables as those above with mean confidence (again, excluding Q14) as the dependent variable.

4.2.1 Confidence and teaching experience

Following visual inspection of boxplots which plotted the mean confidence scores for teachers who had had different teaching experience and those who had not, differences in scores were deemed large enough to run a Mann-Whitney-U test. This test was again chosen as the data were not normally distributed within the groups.

As Table 32 shows, for all four of the teaching experience variables, in terms of mean confidence scores, there were no statistically significant differences between those teachers who had selected “true” and those who selected “false”. For “I have taught in multi-ethnic school(s)” and “I have taught in more than five different schools”, there was a small-sized effect, however. These two variables will therefore be included in the main analysis in section 5.1.2.

Table 32 Results of a Mann-Whitney U test for mean confidence and teaching experience variables

Variable	Test statistic
“I have only taught in schools in [this county]”	$U = 2,647, z = -.57, p = .57, d = -0.09$
“I have taught in multi-ethnic school(s)”	$U = 2,934.5, z = 1.84, p = .066, d = 0.3$
“I have only taught in schools with low numbers of EAL children”	$U = 2,840.5, z = -.604, p = .546, d = -0.09$
“I have taught in more than five different schools”	$U = 2,951.5, z = 1.78, p = .076, d = 0.29$

4.2.2 Confidence and Key Stage

Figure 25 shows a box and whisker diagram of teachers’ mean confidence scores according to the key stage they were currently teaching and Table 33 shows the mean scores and number of teachers in each of these.

Table 33 Number and mean confidence scores of teachers in each key stage group

	N	%
KS1	46	62.14
KS2	87	67.05
Across year groups	10	88.84
Head teacher	3	52

From the diagram and results shown in the table, it can be concluded that, on the whole, there was very little difference between teachers who taught in different key stages, much like the willingness data. Indeed, the same subtle differences can be observed. For this reason, again, no further analyses will be conducted on this variable.

4.2.3 Confidence and training

After visual inspection of a box and whisker diagram plotting mean confidence scores for teachers who received certain training types and those who had not, it was decided to run a statistical analysis of these variables.

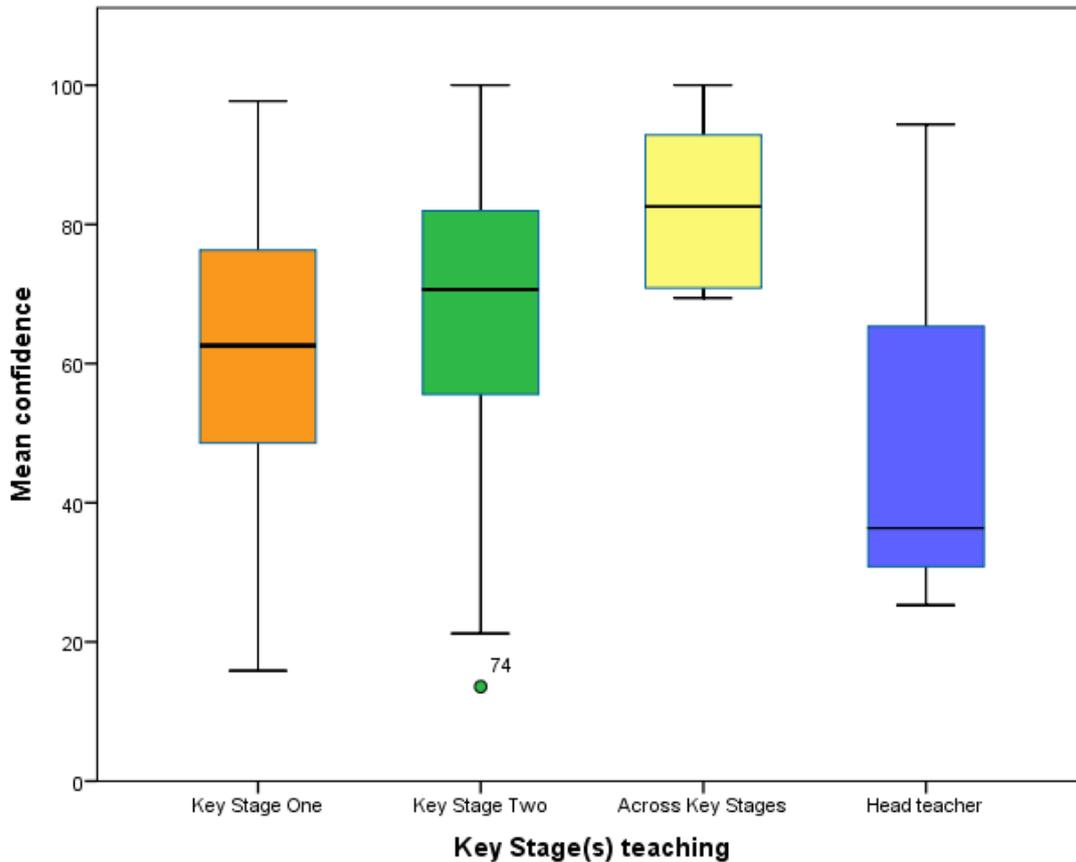


Figure 25 Box and whisker diagram of teachers' mean confidence scores by the key stage they are currently teaching

Bootstrapped independent-samples t-test were run to analyse these differences. The independent variables (which are the same as for willingness) are listed in the left-hand column of Table 34.

Table 34 Results from bootstrapped independent samples t-tests conducted on training variables and mean confidence

Variable	Received group	Did not receive group	Test statistic [95% confidence intervals]
Lecture(s) on EAL education/the teaching of EAL pupils	$N = 73$, $M = 67.66$, $SD = 16.97$	$N = 81$, $M = 65.34$, $SD = 20.86$	$t = -.75$ (152), $p = .48$ [-8.81, 4.13] $d = -0.12$
A practical workshop on teaching EAL pupils	$N = 28$, $M = 70.25$, $SD = 19.69$	$N=126$, $M=65.59$, $SD=18.93$	$t = -1.17$ (152) $p = .242$ [-13, 4.47] $d = -0.25$
A study visit/trip/observations	$N=61$, $M=70.6$, $SD=15.85$	$N=93$, $M=63.71$, $SD=20.57$	$t = -2.34$ (152) $p = .035$ [-12.64, -1.13], $d = -0.39$
A placement in a multi-ethnic school	$N=77$, $M=63.63$, $SD=19.7$	$N=77$, $M=69.24$, $SD=18.15$	$t = 1.84$ (152) $p = .061$ [-.4, 11.49] $d = 0.3$
No EAL-specific training	(i.e. received no training) $N = 46$, $M = 67.55$, $SD = 21.8$	(i.e. received some training) $N = 108$, $M = 66$, $SD = 17.9$	$t = -.47$ (152), $p = .37$ [-8.75, 5.56], $d = -0.08$

As Table 34 shows, the difference in scores between teachers who had received a training type and those had not was significantly different for the variable “A study visit/trip/observations”. This represented a medium-sized effect. Unlike for willingness, the difference for the variable “a placement in a multi-ethnic school” was not significant, it did represent a medium-sized effect, however. As for willingness, these variables will be used within later analyses.

4.2.4 Confidence and number of pupils with EAL

Figure 26 shows a box and whisker diagram for teachers’ mean confidence scores according to the number of children who use EAL they are currently teaching and Table 35

shows the number of teachers in each category and the mean score for each. The results are very comparable to those for willingness, with little difference between the first two groups and a more observable difference between the latter two. Again, the group numbers are small and differences not stark enough to warrant further analyses on these variables, particularly as number of EAL children is largely out of teachers' control.

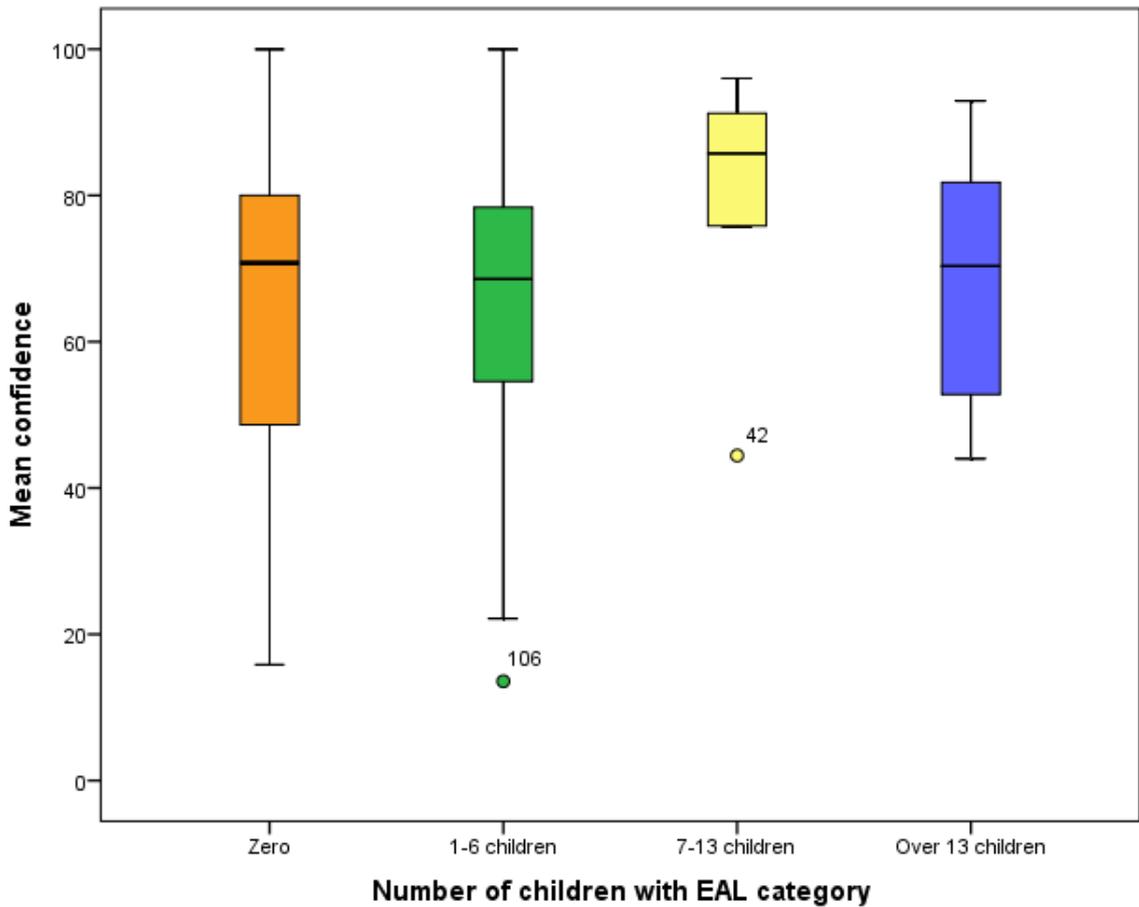


Figure 26 Box and whisker diagram for mean confidence and number of children with EAL category

Table 35 Number of mean confidence scores of teachers in each number of children with EAL category

Category	N	Mean
0 children	50	77.09
1-6 children	63	76.5
7-13 children	7	88.82

13+ children	13	72.17
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4.2.5 Confidence and years teaching

A Spearman’s rank-order correlation (Spearman, 1904) was again run on the “years teaching” variable and “mean confidence”. The data were not normally distributed and there was a non-linear, monotonic relationship between the variables (Sheskin, 1997). It was found that years teaching was not significantly related to teachers’ confidence scores $r_s = .019$, BCa CI [-.138, .173] $p = .810$. Therefore, again this variable will not be included in any further analyses.

4.2.6 Confidence and the enjoy / confidence attitudinal variables

The “enjoy” and “confidence” variables regarding languages (other than English) as well as English were analysed as for willingness above. Please see the willingness section above for an explanation of the analyses conducted on these variables.

Table 36 Results of a Spearman correlation run on mean confidence and the ‘enjoy’ and ‘confidence’ variables

Spearman correlation:	I enjoy teaching languages (other than English) [95% confidence intervals]	I feel confident teaching languages (other than English) [95% confidence intervals]
Mean confidence	$r = .411$ $p < .001$ [.303, .578]	$r = .507$, $p = < .001$, [.377, .617]

Table 37 Results of a Pearson correlation run on mean confidence and the ‘enjoy’ and confidence’ English variables

Pearson correlation:	I enjoy teaching English [95% confidence intervals]	I feel confident teaching English [95% confidence intervals]
Mean confidence	$r = .248$ $p = .002$ [.096, .387]	$r = .234$, $p = .004$, [.087, .363]

As Table 36 shows, the “languages” variables were significantly to mean confidence, as they were mean willingness and as shown in Table 37, the same variables in terms of teaching English were also significantly related to mean confidence. It may be unsurprising that teachers’ confidence to teach languages generally is strongly related to their confidence to use *home* languages (this represented a very large effect). The correlation between mean

confidence and enjoyment of teaching languages also represented a large effect. As with willingness, these variables will therefore be used in the main analyses presented in section 5.1.2.

4.2.7 Confidence and language learning

A Spearman's rank-order correlation (Spearman, 1904) was run to analyse the language qualification variables as it was for mean willingness. As shown in As with their willingness scores, teachers' mean confidence scores were significantly related to the number of MFL GCSEs they had as well as they number of languages learnt beyond GCSE and again, mean confidence scores were not significantly related to the number of languages learnt outside of formal education. Please see section 3.4.5 to see how these variables were used in the main analysis.

Table 38 Results of a Spearman rank-order correlation run on mean confidence scores and language learning experience variables

	No. of MFL GCSEs [95% confidence intervals]	No. of languages learnt beyond GCSE [95% confidence intervals]	No. of languages learnt outside formal education [95% confidence intervals]	No. of languages confident to teach [95% confidence intervals]
Mean confidence	$r_s = .259, p = .001$ [.082, .432]	$r_s = .308, p = <.000$ [.157, .461]	$r_s = .113, p = .166$ [-.046, .270]	$r_s = .412, p = <.000$ [.367, .544]

Appendix 5 “Confidence” codes from the teachers’ questionnaire (examples and tallies)

Table 39 Confidence codes, examples and tallies from the teachers' questionnaire

Code	Example of coded content	No. of references
Resource availability / knowledge (including people)	<i>Would need to use an online translation to get words and spelling.</i>	11
Teacher must have knowledge / understanding	<i>This would be tricky if I didn't know the language - I would have to learn it first</i>	5
Confidence is language-dependent	<i>I feel I am more confident in doing so with obvious languages like French and German.</i>	5
Pronunciation insecurity	<i>I worry about teaching pronunciation accurately</i>	3
Teacher <i>has</i> language ability (demonstrated in comment or stated)	<i>The children often spontaneously answer in a range of languages on the register. I will correct them if I am aware they are pronouncing the word incorrectly or using it in the wrong context.</i>	1
Perceived accessibility of activity	<i>Very accessible activity for classroom teachers</i>	1
Amount of experience with child who have EAL	<i>Very little experience with EAL children</i>	1
Lack of knowledge (unspecified)	<i>if I knew how I would!</i>	1
Time since last implemented such an activity	<i>This gets a lower score due to the passage of time since I've carried out this activity (late 70's to mid 80's)</i>	1
Lack of confidence in all languages	<i>Not able to do this yet in any language</i>	1
Confidence in ability to conduct activity “properly”	<i>I would be concerned that in my ignorance I would still focus on the English but willing to give it a go</i>	1

Appendix 6 Willingness codes from the teachers' questionnaire (examples and tallies)

Table 40 Willingness codes, examples and tallies from the teachers' questionnaire

Code	Quotes	No. of references
Appropriate (linguistic, i.e. children in class or school)	<i>Polish more appropriate to their environment</i>	19
Children's English proficiency should take first priority	<i>This would be ideal for more able children but actually it's harder enough getting done children to learn to read and write in English.</i>	18
Pupils enthusiasm and enjoyment (monolingual or all)	<i>CHILDREN FIND THIS GREAT FUN</i>	16
Belief that English takes priority in England / or at school in England	<i>I would be expecting them to learn and speak English at school as part of integration into this country</i>	13
Child(ren) with EAL are the barrier	<i>Have tried to do this but I do find in general at my school EAL ch are very reluctant to speak in their home language a school and are often very shy</i>	11
Time (in school day)	<i>Time to fit this into the school day is an issue.</i>	10
Fit into topic	<i>Only do this if it fit into a topic</i>	10
Cause confusion	<i>For my age group, I feel as they are just starting to learn to write in English, that writing in any other language may confuse them.</i>	8
Issue with activity	<i>It's not really enough language learning in the modern curriculum to just teach random bit of vocabulary</i>	8
Having no or few children who use EAL (for willing and against)	<i>I have no EAL children in my class</i>	7
Teacher control	<i>how would I know what they were saying? Asking?</i>	7
More appropriate for / done with new to English	<i>We use this when a new arrival needs support.</i>	7
Appropriateness (unspecified)	<i>it is not always appropriate</i>	6
Behavioural issues	<i>Issue with inappropriate words being taught to English speakers</i>	6
Children's confidence and self-esteem	<i>Have frequently done this activity. It really boosts the children's confidence</i>	5
Teachers' lack of time	<i>Time constraints</i>	5
Cultural education	<i>are appropriate experiences for the children - again to help with understanding different cultures.</i>	5
French as main language taught	<i>I always default back to French.</i>	4

Not teacher's job	<i>Our Spanish teacher may use something like this but not mainstream teachers.</i>	4
Fit in curriculum (link to)	<i>Activities like this sit well in the curriculum</i>	4
Children instigating	<i>The children often spontaneously answer in a range of languages on the register</i>	3
No need as children with EAL are proficient in English	<i>The children with EAL currently in my class both speak excellent English and therefore there has been no need to provide additional support as they are able to access all areas of the curriculum in English.</i>	3
MFL policy	<i>We no longer teach this as we are an academy and have opted to not cover MFL at this stage</i>	3
Pressure (teacher)	<i>I feel that I am under enough pressure to achieve the standards required in Year 6 required by the government.</i>	3
PSHE/RE/Geography	<i>Done as part of PSHE and geography/topic work comparing different places around the world.</i>	3
Availability of resources / Access to resources	<i>Getting the resources. I buy on line resources using my own money as I don't have a budget and school can't afford to buy resources.</i>	3
Number of EAL children	<i>The majority cannot write in their own language, some cannot read in their own language. I have 13 different languages in the class.</i>	3
Special occasion	<i>EAL child in my class is new to me- could be something we try especially as Christmas approaches</i>	3
Opportunity due to classroom (e.g. children, location)	<i>Being such a multi-cultural school means we use lots of opportunities to value the children's own language</i>	2
Recognising the languages of children who use EAL	<i>but it is also a good way of recognising the value of the EAL children's home languages</i>	2
Would only be willing if in French	<i>Would only do this with French as this is the only language the children have been learning and would not be able to afford the time to devote to more languages with very young children.</i>	2
Multiculturalism (positive)	<i>This is a great multicultural activity regardless of the EAL pupils in the class.</i>	2
Pressure (pupils)	<i>The curriculum is so crammed with everything else that making time would add pressure to an otherwise demanding day for both teachers and pupils</i>	2
Space in curriculum	<i>Primary children have enough to learn regarding different genres of text.</i>	2

Activity-dependent (dependent on actual execution or materials)	<i>A very good idea, as long as the photos are current and do not exploit stereotypical views.</i>	2
MFL only	<i>Unless it is part of MFL lessons.</i>	2
Reluctance from external people	<i>Most recently carried out with European language and as part of the work I undertook when gaining International Schools Award at the school where I was HT from 2008- 2012. Again with reluctance from Schools Governors.</i>	2
Too many different languages	<i>Again, too many different languages.... and learning French is an additional language in school</i>	2
Concern regarding reliance on resource	<i>I would be worried if i was teaching the children correctly and the video was teaching the children correctly</i>	2
Distract from curriculum or lesson aims	<i>this activity although lovely could easily divert away from the science lesson.</i>	2
Involves parents (links home and school)	<i>We've asked the children to find a photo/picture of those items (just in case they couldn't bring them in) which involved parents and promoted communication about it at home as well as in class.</i>	2
Perceived need (unspecified)	<i>Never had the need to</i>	2
Social benefits	<i>It often helps with communication for all</i>	2
Children with EAL's choice	<i>Had Polish children last year who discussed tasks in Polish in literacy lessons then answered me in English. But rarely choose to do so</i>	2
to access lesson content	<i>if they are taught well with good EAL language provision they are then able to take a more active part in the lessons.</i>	2

Appendix 7 Trainee pre-questionnaire (paper version)

These two terms will appear in the questionnaire, in case you're not familiar with them, here are their definitions:

EAL - "English as an Additional Language". EAL pupils are children who have been exposed to a language other than English during early childhood and continue to be exposed to this language in the home or in the community.

Home languages - These are languages (other than English) spoken by EAL children in their home environment. For example, a child may speak to one of his/her parents in Lithuanian. Or, a child may use some Bengali vocabulary when talking to his/her grandparents.

- 1) Please give your full name (This will remain anonymous, it's just so we can match this questionnaire with any later data you give)

- 2) How much experience have you had in a primary classroom prior to starting the course? Please briefly give details (e.g. no. of weeks).

- 3) Which of these do you expect to receive during your initial teacher training? (please tick all that apply)
 - a. Lecture(s) on EAL education/the teaching of EAL pupils
 - b. A practical workshop on teaching EAL pupils
 - c. A study visit/trip/observations centred on teaching EAL pupils
 - d. A placement in a multi-ethnic school
 - e. Other

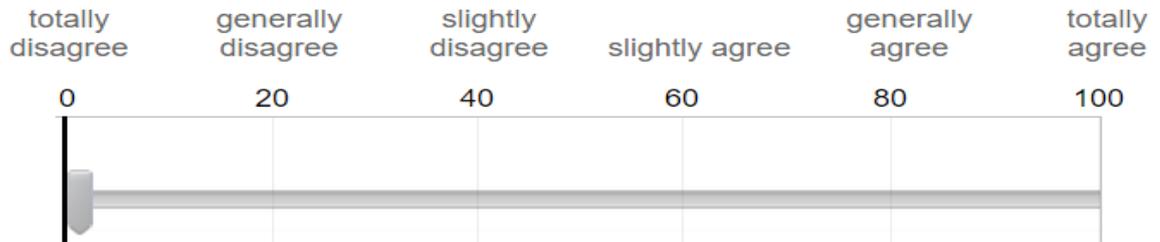
Your language learning experience (Please tick)	0	1	2	3+
How many modern foreign language GCSEs do you have? (e.g. French)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
How many foreign languages have you learnt beyond GCSE?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
How many modern foreign languages would you feel confident to teach at primary level?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
How many foreign languages have you learnt outside formal education?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- 4) Do you speak a language other than English at home? (Please tick) If yes, which language?

Yes

No

- 5) For the following questions, please use the scale to select a number which shows your level of agreement with the following statements and write it in the box next to the question. The number can be *any* number between 0 and 100 so please choose a number which you feel best represents your views.



- a) I will enjoy teaching languages
 - b) I am feeling confident about teaching languages
 - c) I will enjoy teaching English
 - d) I am feeling confident about teaching English
- 6) Please use the same scoring (0-100) to select a number which shows your agreement with the following statements:
- a) EAL children's home languages should be used in the classroom
 - b) I would feel confident to teach my class about diversity in languages and cultures
 - c) Learning languages (other than English) is important
 - d) I would feel confident to incorporate EAL children's home languages in my lessons
 - e) Teaching children about diversity in languages and cultures is important
 - f) All primary children should learn French
- 7) When you have an EAL child (or children) in your class, how often do you think you would... (please tick one answer)

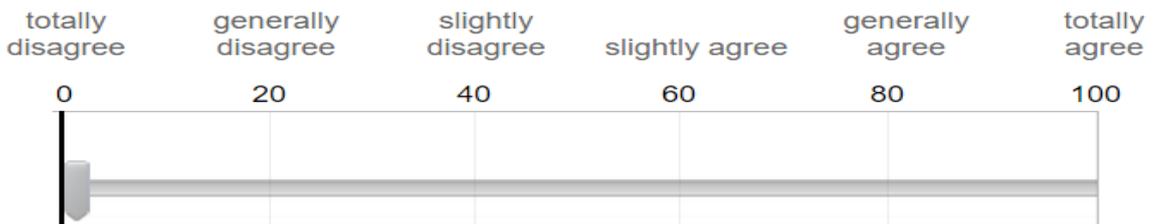
	Never/very rarely	1-3 times a term	4-6 times a term	at least every week
Mention in passing their first language(s)?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide them with academic support?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Incorporate their home language(s) into classroom activities?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- 8) How do you think you can teach your pupils about diversity in languages and cultures? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.
- 9) Some people think we should use pupils' home languages in the classroom. What do you think are the reasons for this?
- 10) How do you think you can use home languages in the classroom? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.
- 11) What are some reasons why teachers might not use home languages in the classroom?

Thank you very much for your participation – it's really appreciated!

Appendix 8 Trainee post-questionnaire (paper version)

- 1) Please give your full name (This will remain anonymous, it's just so we can match this questionnaire with the first one you did)
- 2) Aside from the workshop given by Beth, have you received any training regarding teaching pupils who use EAL on your course so far? If so, please briefly give details.
- 3) Which year group(s) have you taught on your teaching placements so far?
- 4) In total, how many children who use EAL have you taught since you started your teacher training?
- 5) For the following questions, please use the scale to select a number which shows your level of agreement with the following statements and write it in the box next to the question. The number can be *any* number between 0 and 100 so please choose a number which you feel best represents your views.



- e) I will enjoy teaching languages
 - f) I am feeling confident about teaching languages
 - g) I will enjoy teaching English
 - h) I am feeling confident about teaching English
- 6) Please use the same scoring (0-100) to select a number which shows your agreement with the following statements:
- g) All primary children should learn French
 - h) I would feel confident to teach my class about diversity in languages and cultures
 - i) EAL children's home languages should be used in the classroom
 - j) Learning languages (other than English) is important

- k) I would feel confident to incorporate EAL children's home languages in my lessons
- l) Teaching children about diversity in languages and cultures is important

7) When you have an EAL child (or children) in your class, how often do you think you would... (please tick one answer)

	Never/very rarely	1-3 times a term	4-6 times a term	at least every week
Mention in passing their first language(s)?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide them with academic support?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Incorporate their home language(s) into classroom activities?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- 8) How do you think you can teach your pupils about diversity in languages and cultures? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful
- 9) Some people think we should use pupils' home languages in the classroom. What do you think are the reasons for this?
- 10) How do you think you can use home languages in the classroom? Please give some ideas and explain why you think they would be useful.
- 11) What are some reasons why teachers might not use home languages in the classroom?
- 12) On your teaching practice(s) this year, did you ever teach your pupils about diversity in languages and cultures? Please explain your answer: For example: If yes, what did you do? Or, why do you think you didn't?

Thank you very much for your participation – it's really appreciated!

Appendix 9 Trainee workshop slides



**Classroom
Languages**

Hello
Hola
Bonjour
Hallo
привет
مرحبا
Hallá
こんにちは

Elizabeth Bailey
University of York
eb652@york.ac.uk
@Elizabeth_EAL



Can you guess the 10 most common EAL languages in UK primary schools ...

Hello!

Bonjour!

你好!

¡Hola!



1. Urdu (109,215)
2. Panjabi (90,610)
3. Bengali (67,005)
4. Polish (53,915)
5. Somali (42,215)
6. Gujarati (4.,490)
7. Arabic (32,855)
8. Tamil (24,605)
9. Portuguese (22,450)
10. French (22,415)

(DfE, 2013)





1. Polish (1,548 / 1.17%)
2. Lithuanian (653 / 0.49%)
3. Latvian (398 / 0.3%)
4. Portuguese (378 / 0.29%)
5. Bengali (366 / 0.28%)
6. Russian (193 / 0.15%)
7. Urdu (129 / 0.1%)
8. Chinese (108 / 0.82%)
9. Panjabi (82 / 0.06%)
10. Arabic (77 / 0.06%)

(DfE, 2013)

Language	England				
English	5570335	19341	86656	19089	125086
Urdu	109215	0	67	62	129
Panjabi	90610	0	27	55	82
Bengali	67005	35	85	246	366
Polish	53915	74	1188	286	1548
Arabic	32855	13	55	9	77
Portuguese	22450	0	331	47	378
Lithuanian	11275	3	540	110	653
Chinese	9900	8	76	24	108
Russian	7760	7	179	7	193
Latvian	4195	14	369	15	398

(DfE, 2013)

EAL numbers

2015

Area	Number of EAL pupils	% of EAL pupils
	4110	9.2
	464	4.2
	1101	9.6

(DfE, 2015)

EAL children's languages



The terminology:

Community languages

Home languages

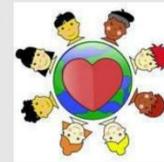
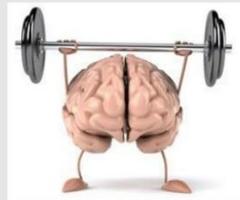
First languages

Minority languages

Heritage languages



Why use home languages?



Cognitive reasons:

EAL children

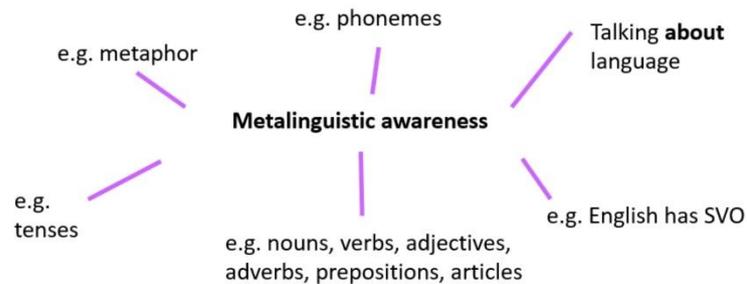
- First language **helps second language** (English)
 - Cummins (1976)
 - “developmental interdependence hypothesis” and “common underlying proficiency”
- Access to **L1** knowledge
- Improved **comprehension** in English (Kenner et al. 2008)
- Increased **confidence** accessing English (Conteh, 2012)
- Increased **involvement** in lessons no matter language ability (e.g. Swain and Lapkin, 2000 and Martin et al., 2006)
- Cognitive advantages to being **bilingual**
 - Creative thinking (e.g. Kharkurin, 2010)
 - Linguistic awareness (e.g. Ben-Zeev, 1977)
 - Metalinguistic awareness (Bialystok, 1988)
- More **analytic** approach to languages (Robertson, 2006)
- **Personal response** to texts in literacy (Bourne, 2002)
- Enhances **analysis** of texts (Bourne, 2002)

Whole class

- **Relationships** between words (Cummins, 2005)
- **Linguistic awareness** including metalinguistic awareness
- **Language learning** more generally (e.g. vocab)

Language Awareness

- Heightened linguistic **sensitivity** (Carter, 2003)
- Encouraging pupils to be **inquisitive** about language and how it works
- Prioritisation of development of understanding more **generally** than competence in one language (Jones et al. 2005)
- Can “use” **resources** in the classroom (i.e. children and parents)
- “expert” knowledge/**full fluency not required** (Hunt et al. 2005, Barton et al., 2009).



Socio-cultural reasons:

EAL children

- Raises their **status** in the classroom (Conteh, 2012)
- Connect with **heritage** (Kenner et al., 2008)
- Explore **dual identity** (Kenner et al., 2008)
- Become more **confident** in their bilingual identity (Kenner et al., 2008)
- Know their home culture is **valued**

Monolingual children

- English isn't necessarily the **norm**
- **Status** of minority languages and cultures
- **Cultural awareness** and understanding
- **Multicultural** Britain
- **Tolerance, respect and understanding**
- Connect with **local community**

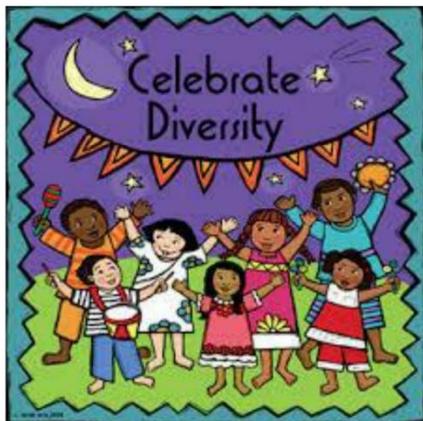
Reflecting linguistic and cultural diversity

Linguistic and cultural diversity

- No matter your ethnic background, **everyone** has their own unique, personal, meaningful, cultural background (Roh, 1994)
- **Students** must develop the knowledge, attitudes and skills needed to interact positively with people from diverse groups (Banks et al., 2001)
- **“Teachers** can develop curricula around children’s homes, families, and communities. Learning about the lives of their peers helps young children develop understanding of diversity” Araujo and Strasser, 2003)



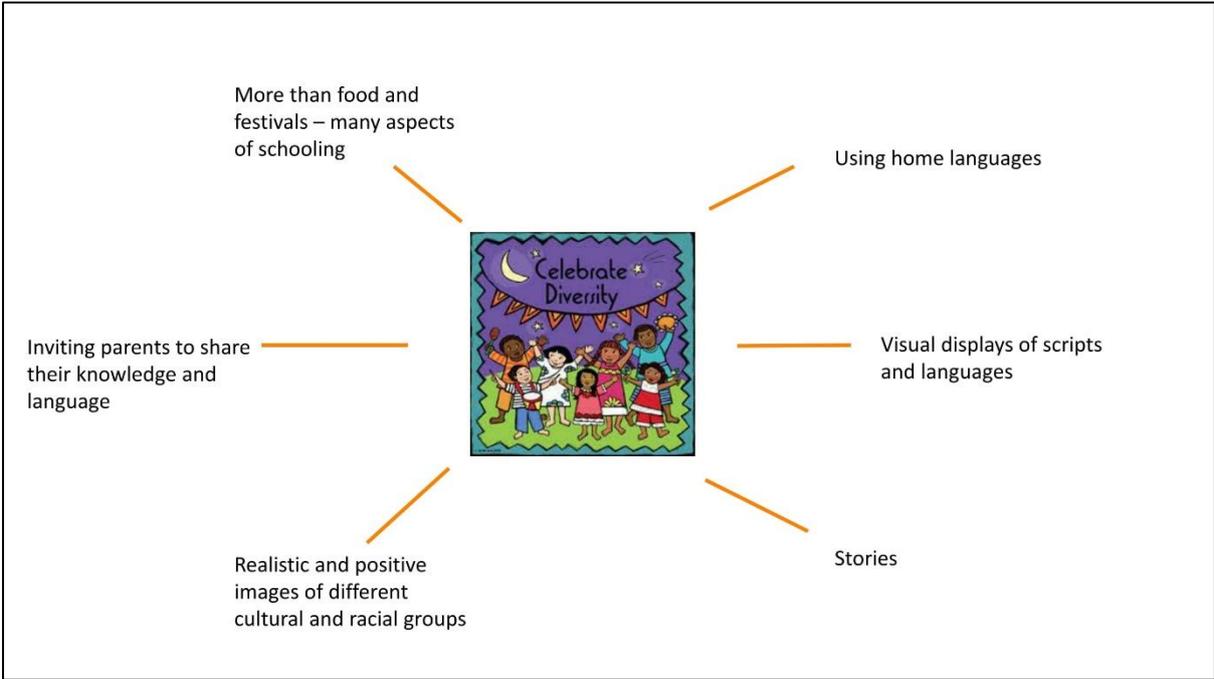
“In reality, mainstream schooling, at best neglects, and at worst, denies cultural and linguistic diversity” (Hall et al., 2012, p. 414)



Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review Group:

- The National Curriculum had a **Eurocentric approach** which fails to value cultural and ethnic diversity.
- Particularly true when schools had **lower numbers of minority ethnic pupils** and therefore did not see diversity as a priority
- When diversity was addressed, it was a **narrow definition** which saw diversity as only relating to minority ethnic groups and their cultures
- Many teachers may feel subjects such as Maths and Science do not **allow for discussions** about diversity and different geographical contexts

(Maylor, Read, Mendick, Ross, & Rollock, 2007)



Sister class projects



Show interest and find out about the children's home languages; the children themselves are often the best sources of information and will appreciate your curiosity

Invite children to teach the rest of the class how to greet each other in their languages, and use this knowledge as part of classroom routines

Make sure that your classroom **visually reflects all the languages** which its occupants speak in displays, resources and signs – some of these may be items which the children bring in from home.

Make sure monolingual children regularly **hear different languages spoken and see different languages written** – use examples of languages they may hear and see in their local community.

Allow bilingual children to **listen to and (if they can) read stories in their home languages** – they can make story tapes and books for each other and for children who do not share their languages.

Use bilingual support staff sensitively and positively – demonstrate to the children that they are respected members of the class. As far as possible, involve them in planning.

Encourage bilingual support staff to take active roles with all the children in the class, not just the ones perceived as needing extra support; for example, together you could read a dual language story collaboratively for the whole class.

(Conteh, 2003, pp. 127–128)

Practical strategies to help the pupils use their languages positively to underpin their learning across the curriculum:

- For activities involving discussion, **physically group children** in ways that allows them to use their first languages with each other to help develop conceptual understanding.
- Give children time in these groups to talk to each other, then **ask for a report or some other feedback in English**
- Build into as many activities as possible the opportunities for children to talk to each other about what they're doing in their strong languages, e.g. **allow pairs or smaller groups of same-language speakers to work together in practical or problem-solving tasks**
- In whole-class discussions, **invite confident speakers of different languages to contribute words and phrases** as a check on understanding and reinforcement for children who may be struggling.



(Conteh, 2003, pp. 127–128)

Asking their parent(s) to come in and teach some vocabulary/talk about their culture

Using classroom commands in their home language(s)

Asking them to teach the children a song with actions e.g. 'head, shoulders, knees and toes' and practising this in both languages

Asking them to read a dual-language book to the class with you

Sharing their cultural celebrations and traditions

Asking them to help produce a newsletter for parents with both languages on

Using your EAL pupil(s) as a resource

Using literature in their home language with the whole class (they can translate for everybody). You could then compare this to a similar English poem/story.

Practise simple dialogues/phrases in their home language

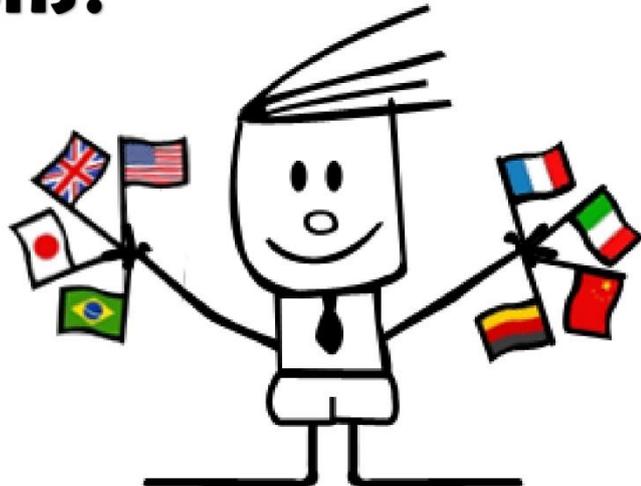
Teach topic vocabulary in both languages with their help

Looking at the news from their home country and asking them to translate/describe the events to the rest of the class

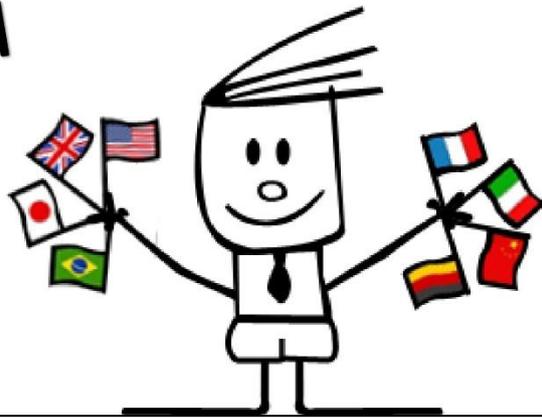
Asking them to translate for other members of the school community

Teaching all the children to answer the register in their home language(s)

Any questions?



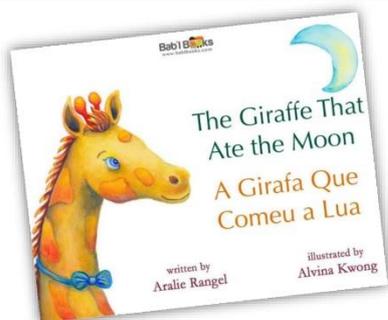
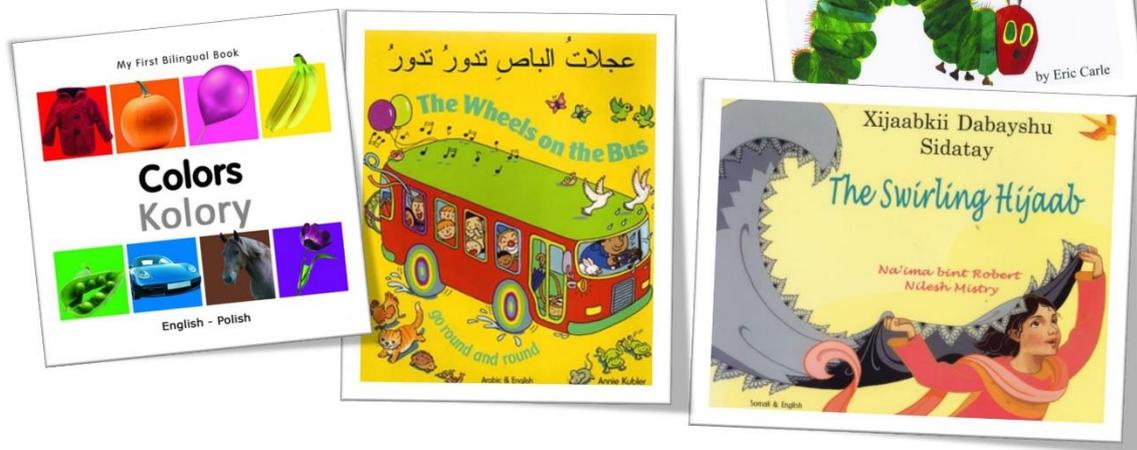
Making your classroom more multilingual and multicultural



Using literature



Dual-language books



One night George was looking at the moon. Right before he fell asleep he whispered to the moon, "I wish I was tall enough to eat you."

1. How many words are there in the first sentence?
2. Look at the different spellings of George
3. Why is there a capital letter for 'Lua'?
4. Can you see any words that are similar in both languages?
5. What's on top of the 'e' in 'você'?
6. What do you notice about 'adormecer'?
7. Can you match any of the Portuguese words to the English?



Uma noite, Jorge estava olhando a Lua. Antes de adormecer, ele sussurrou para a Lua: "Eu queria ser alto o suficiente para comer você."

(Rangel, n.d.)

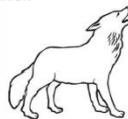
English	George the giraffe was the shortest giraffe of his herd.
French	Georges la girafe était la plus petite girafes du troupeau.
Vietnamese	George là chú hươu cao cổ thấp nhất trong bầy.
Spanish	Jorge, la jirafa, era el más pequeño de su manada.
Portuguese	A girafa Jorge era o mais baixo de sua manada.
German	Georg war die kleinste Giraffe in der ganzen Herde.
Bengali	জর্জ জিরাফটি তার দলের সবচেয়ে খাটো জিরাফ ছিল
Romanian	Girafa George era cea mai scunda girafa din turma lui.
Chinese	长颈鹿乔治是鹿群中最矮小的。



With younger children: McGilp (2014)

Key words taken home for parents/carers to translate

Wolf



Basket



Tree



Key words from *Lon Po Po: A Red Riding Hood Story from China*

© Emma McGilp

- The children recognised themselves in the text
- Increased in confidence
- Engaged with the activity
- Parents/carers felt involved, valued and welcome

- Emma's advice:

<http://www.scottishbooktrust.com/node/109980>



© Emma McGilp

The screenshot shows the Little Linguist website interface. At the top, there's a navigation bar with 'Home', 'About Us', 'Customer Services', 'Delivery', 'School Orders', 'Tuition', 'Catalogue', 'New Products', and 'Contact Us'. A search bar is located in the top right. The main content area features a product listing for 'Augustus and his smile (Slovakian - English)' by Catherine Rayner. The product image shows a tiger and a boy. The price is listed as £9.50 (UK Free). There are buttons for 'Add to Basket' and 'Notify me when this item is available'. The product code is 4067, and the availability is 'Out of stock. Order now for despatch in 10-15 days'. A note states: 'Please note that the image above is for illustration purposes and shows a different language edition. You are purchasing the Slovakian English edition.' Below the product image is an 'Overview' section with a short story about Augustus the tiger and a 'Guidance for Use' section.

<http://www.little-linguist.co.uk/>

The screenshot shows the Mantra Lingua website. The header includes the Mantra Lingua logo, contact information (Tel: +44 (0)208 44 55 123), and a search bar. The navigation menu includes 'Home', 'What's New', 'Quickshop', 'Videos', 'About Us', 'Testimonials', 'Help', 'SEN', 'Training', and 'vIVOS Library'. A welcome message reads: 'Welcome to Mantra Lingua, the world's largest publisher of dual language books in English with 65 languages'. Below the banner, there are several educational resources listed with images: 'EAL Books', 'EAL Posters', 'EAL Starter Kit', 'FreeLINK', 'PENpal', and 'eGrammar Tales'. A photograph shows a teacher and students working on a project at a table.

<http://uk.mantralingua.com/>

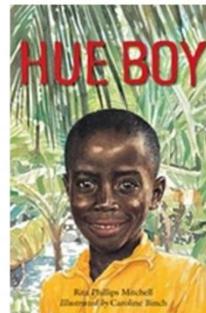
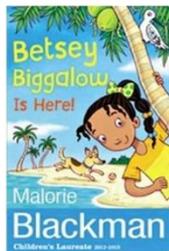
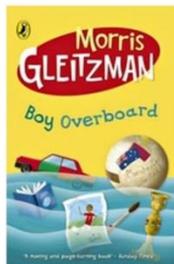
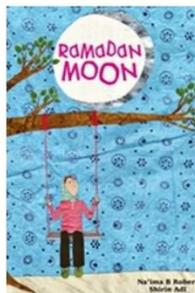
<http://uk.mantralingua.com/penpal-eal>



With Bab'l Books, bilingual families can enjoy the joys of storytime with their little loved ones in the languages of their choice. These books are ideal for ages 2-6.

<http://bablbooks.com/>

Diversity in stories



<http://www.theguardian.com/childrens-books-site/2014/oct/13/50-best-culturally-diverse-childrens-books>

Teaching global lessons through literature...

Hang up a world map, and map the settings of the books that you read as a class during the year. Purposefully choose books that represent many geographic areas, and include both fiction and nonfiction.

Explore "A Day in the Life"-type books with your pupils. These show 'typical' children doing 'typical' activities in their countries. After reading several stories, you could look at the similarities and differences between these children's lives and your pupils' lives.

<http://www.edutopia.org/blog/literature-teaches-global-lessons-elementary-becky-morales>

Find similarities and differences when reading fairy tales, folklore and fables from around the world. These stories often have universal themes but are dealt with differently in different cultures.

<http://kidworldcitizen.org/2012/10/11/cinderella-story-around-the-world/>



Having a language of the month...



Language of the Month

At Newbury Park Primary School we believe it is polite to take an interest in one another's languages.

Our FREE computer programs contain interactive video clips showing the children teaching their home languages.

Learn Cantonese



Select a language:

Afrikaans

If your internet connection is slow, go to downloads and save the programs on your computer.

First hellos

- Turn to the people around you, shake their hands and say *hello* using the Language of the Month.
- Sit in a circle and pass the *hello* around the circle.

Who said hello?

A child is chosen to sit on a chair with his or her back to the class. The teacher then points to another child who says *hello* in the target language to the child sitting on the chair, e.g. *Bonjour, Ahmed*. The child on the chair then has to identify the person who said the greeting. When the child sitting on the chair has identified five children, s/he can be rewarded with a sticker.

Language of the Month Activities



100 + ideas to promote language awareness

<http://www.newburyparkschool.net/langofmonth/activitiesbooklet.pdf>

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jeRSI6MjdS0>

Alphabets

Create artwork with different scripts

Knowledge about alphabets e.g. different letters, how many letters

Phonological awareness e.g. same letter, different sound



TAA-EERAH FOR TA

Building a knowledge of different languages and their different scripts

Foundations for further language learning using these letters and sounds

Create multilingual
artwork and
interesting displays

Learn new
vocabulary



<http://visual.ly/colors-around-world>

Look at cultural
interpretations of colour
and the effect of these

Build sentences "my
eyes are ..."

Colours

Writing your name in different languages

إليزابيث
Arabic

Elizabeth

एलिज़ाबेथ
Hindi

Елизаветн

Russian

એલીઝાબેથ

Gujarati

http://mylanguages.org/write_name.php

Explore the Internet

e.g. 'The Lingo Show'



Jadoo's 'Hello' song

<http://www.bbc.co.uk/cbeebies/songs/lingo-show-jaadoo-hello>

<http://www.bbc.co.uk/cbeebies/shows/lingo-show>

Urdu Language Sample

Languages
A - B - C - D
E - F - G - H
I - J - K - L
M - N - O - P
Q - R - S - T
U - V - W - X
Y - Z

Sample	<p>قہرہ دار اٹرا قہرو کی ایک عدالت نے آج ایک اسلام پسندوں کی حریفی غارتگری جس نے مظلوموں کو تھکا کر گھر کی گھاس پھوس اور نوبل انعامی کوئی سے مسلمانوں کو خود سے طلاق دلائی جانے کی سزا سنائی ہے۔ عدالت نے کہا کہ کوئی بھی انفرادی شخص کسی دوسرے کو جبری طلاق دلائے۔ عدالت نے حریفی و عدالت میں جبری طلاق نہیں کر سکتا۔ عدالت نے کہا کہ اردو کی سرکاری و کیڑی طرف سے چلائی جانے چاہئے۔ کیڑی ہے۔ وہ قوانین و احکامات میں بھی کسی برائی چاہتی ہیں۔ سعودی کے وکیل نے کہا کہ عدالت میں کاٹھا کر اخیار امت نے ان کی موکر کا بیوں میں وہاں سے بہت کر شش کیا ہے۔</p>
Translation	<p>Cairo (Reuters) - A court in Cairo today rejected the petition filed by an Islamic fundamentalist lawyer who had asked the court that the impressive standard bearer of the women's movement, Nawal Saadawi, be divorced from her Muslim husband as she had abandoned someone else's marriage. The court individual cannot petition to dissolve someone else's marriage. The court added that such a petition could only be filed by a government prosecutor. The lawyer, Nabeel Wahsh, asserted that 70-year old Saadawi has said that Hijab is something from before Islam and that she wants gender equality in the laws of inheritance. Saadawi's lawyer had said in the court during its proceedings that the newspapers had quoted his client out of context.</p>
Statistics	<p>India (45,773,000) - Pakistan (19,719,000) - Bangladesh (600,000) - Saudi Arabia (322,000) - South Africa (170,000) - Mauritius (64,000) - Germany (23,000) - Bahrain (18,500) - Oman (17,800) - Qatar (15,400) - Norway (14,000) - Fiji (3,562) - Afghanistan (?) - Thailand (?) - United Arab Emirates (?) - United Kingdom (?) - Total (56,564,000)</p>
Classification	<p>Indo-European Indo-Iranian</p>

Learning about languages

- Create language fact files/projects
- Around the world displays
- Explore languages across the world together

<http://www.language-museum.com/encyclopedia/urdu.php>

Learning about countries

- World Fact Book <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/>
- Google Earth <http://earth.google.com/>
- Country Profiles http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/country_profiles/
- WorldLanguage.Com <http://www.worldlanguage.com/Countries>
- National Anthems <http://david.national-anthems.net/>
- Creative Proverbs from Around the World <http://creativeproverbs.com/>



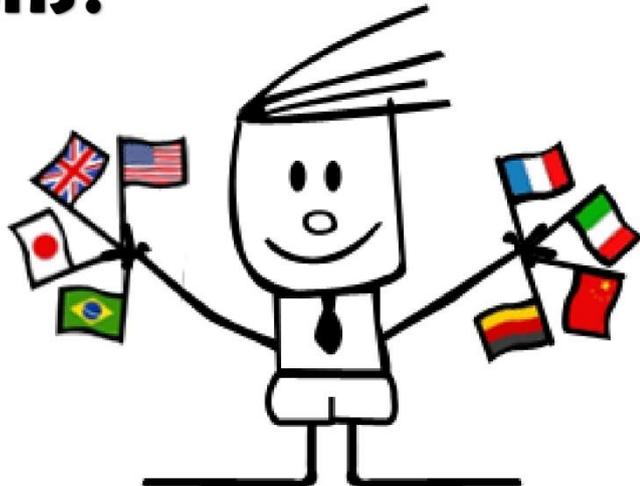
Useful websites

- **BBC Languages**
 - <http://www.bbc.co.uk/languages/>
 - Information and resources for many languages
- **Omniglot**
 - <http://www.omniglot.com/writing/index.htm>
 - [An encyclopedia of different language systems](#)
- **Ethnologue**
 - <http://www.ethnologue.com/>
 - Information about the world's languages
- **Jennifer's Language Page**
 - <http://www.elite.net/~runner/jennifers/>
 - Greetings in more than 3000 languages
- **Infoplease**
 - <http://www.infoplease.com/ipa/A0855611.html>
 - Languages spoken in each country of the world
- **Language Materials Project**
 - <http://www.lmp.ucla.edu/Profile.aspx?menu=004>
 - Teaching resources for less commonly taught languages
- **Names from Around the World**
 - <http://www.20000-names.com/index.htm>
 - Over 20,000 names from around the world
- **Multi-lingual Posters**
 - http://www.schoolslinks.co.uk/resources_dl.htm
- **Hello World**
 - <http://www.hello-world.com/>
 - World languages activities for children
- **How to Learn any Language**
 - <http://how-to-learn-any-language.com/e/index.html>
 - Advice and information about learning languages/teaching yourself languages
- **Master any Language**
 - <http://www.masteranylanguage.com/>
 - Resources in many different languages
- **Celebrating Language**
 - <http://language.e2bn.org/videobank/>
 - Videos of children speaking in their home languages

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Any questions?



Appendix 10 Descriptive statistics for all suggested activity questions

Table 41 Descriptive statistics for suggested activity questions

activity	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	median	min.	max.	difference in means
C1	166	88.52	18.76	100	1	100	2.18
W1	167	90.7	17.76	100	18	100	
C2	166	37.2	29.98	30.5	0	100	29.25
W2	167	66.45	32.07	80	0	100	
C3	167	82.65	22.4	90	2	100	7.64
W3	167	90.29	16.28	100	0	100	
C4	165	63.06	28.74	62	0	100	7.7
W4	165	70.76	28.99	80	0	100	
C5	164	61.96	26.12	60	0	100	16.83
W5	165	78.79	23.71	83	1	100	
C6	165	71.96	27.43	80	0	100	5.46
W6	165	77.42	26.79	84	0	100	
C7	165	60.38	29.67	60	0	100	7.57
W7	165	67.95	30.69	78	0	100	
C8	164	61.27	27.69	61	0	100	11.43
W8	164	72.7	27.05	79.5	1	100	
C9	163	63.61	30.58	68	0	100	11.62
W9	162	75.23	28.46	81	0	100	
C10	160	61.96	28.48	62	0	100	10.3
W10	160	72.26	26.32	79	0	100	
C11	157	55.7	30.22	60	0	100	9.06
W11	157	64.76	30.29	71	0	100	
C12	157	85.32	18.56	92	19	100	3.53
W12	157	88.85	18.68	100	0	100	
C13	157	60.2	30.75	61	0	100	12.69
W13	157	72.89	28.47	81	0	100	
C14	157	56.5	32.04	60	0	100	3.54
W14	157	60.04	32.35	61	0	100	
C15	157	69.13	30.54	80	0	100	12.65
W15	157	81.78	26.16	98	0	100	

Appendix 11 Open data word frequencies from the trainee questionnaire

Table 42 Open data word frequencies from the trainee questionnaire

RANK	WORD	LENGTH	COUNT	WEIGHTED PERCENTAGE (%)	SIMILAR WORDS
1	children	8	166	4.13	children
2	language	8	143	3.56	language, languages
3	use	3	81	2.02	use, used, useful, uses, using
4	school	6	79	1.97	school, schooling, schools
5	English	7	77	1.92	English
6	French	6	75	1.87	French
7	EAL	3	64	1.59	EAL
8	class	5	60	1.49	class, class', classes
9	teaching	8	54	1.34	teach, 'teach', teaches, teaching
10	done	4	47	1.17	done
11	different	9	45	1.12	difference, differences, different
12	activity	8	42	1.05	active, actively, activities, activity
13	speaking	8	41	1.02	speak, speaking, speaks
14	learning	8	38	0.95	learn, learned, learning
15	child	5	36	0.90	child
16	home	4	31	0.77	home, home', homes
17	time	4	31	0.77	time
18	year	4	30	0.75	year, years
19	Polish	6	25	0.62	Polish
20	Spanish	7	25	0.62	Spanish

Appendix 12 Pattern and structured matrices from the factor analyses

Table 43 The pattern matrix for willingness factor analysis

Suggested Activity (variable)	Factor	
	1	2
Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre. E.g. a newspaper, an advert, a novel.	.869	
As part of the children's science work, asking an EAL child (or children) to help the other children label the parts of a flower in both English and the EAL child's home language.	.776	
Singing a Spanish alphabet song using an online video to help (e.g. "a" "asno" "b" "bici" "c" "casa")	.762	
Teaching topic vocabulary in French alongside English. E.g. "minibeasts" (a caterpillar = une chenille)	.734	
Splitting the class into pairs, giving each pair a conversation sequences in a different language and asking them to make a puppet/doll of the speakers and practise the dialogue together.	.721	
Using bilingual storybooks to teach the children about how words are ordered in different languages.	.671	
Using two poems with a similar theme. One poem is in English and the other, in the home language of an/the EAL child(ren). The EAL child(ren) translates the poem for the class and together you look at the cultural information in the poems and any other interesting differences.	.570	
Practising writing the children's names in Punjabi script (using an online translation tool), writing from right to left as in Punjabi, and preparing a final version.	.459	
Asking EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their culture and tell the other children about them.		.718
Asking the children to answer the register with "hello" in different languages		.708
Learning the words and actions to "Head, shoulders, knees and toes" in Polish from a Polish speaking child in the class and using a video to help.		.705
Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the children about the differences between people, their environments and their lives.		.585
Asking a Lithuanian-speaking member of the community to come in to school and teach the children some basic language.		.537
Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish		.489
Using classroom instructions an EAL child has taught you and the class in their home language.		.488

Table 44 The structured matrix for willingness factor analysis

Suggested Activity (variable)	Factor	
	1	2
Singing a Spanish alphabet song using an online video to help (e.g. "a" "asno" "b" "bici" "c" "casa")	.818	.624
As part of the children's science work, asking an EAL child (or children) to help the other children label the parts of a flower in both English and the EAL child's home language.	.790	.575
Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre. E.g. a newspaper, an advert, a novel.	.781	.498
Using bilingual storybooks to teach the children about how words are ordered in different languages.	.767	.615
Using two poems with a similar theme. One poem is in English and the other, in the home language of an/the EAL child(ren). The EAL child(ren) translates the poem for the class and	.758	.671

together you look at the cultural information in the poems and any other interesting differences.		
Splitting the class into pairs, giving each pair a conversation sequences in a different language and asking them to make a puppet/doll of the speakers and practise the dialogue together.	.753	.560
Teaching topic vocabulary in French alongside English. E.g. “minibeasts” (a caterpillar = une chenille)	.692	.466
Practising writing the children’s names in Punjabi script (using an online translation tool), writing from right to left as in Punjabi, and preparing a final version.	.652	.598
Learning the words and actions to “Head, shoulders, knees and toes” in Polish from a Polish speaking child in the class and using a video to help.	.664	.819
Asking a Lithuanian-speaking member of the community to come in to school and teach the children some basic language.	.639	.719
Using classroom instructions an EAL child has taught you and the class in their home language.	.655	.707
Asking the children to answer the register with “hello” in different languages	.468	.681
Asking EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their culture and tell the other children about them.	.442	.667
Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the children about the differences between people, their environments and their lives.	.502	.645
Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish		.473

Table 45 The pattern matrix for the confidence factor analysis

Suggested Activity	Factor	
	1	2
Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre. E.g. a newspaper, an advert, a novel.	.873	
Teaching topic vocabulary in French alongside English. E.g. “minibeasts” (a caterpillar = une chenille)	.782	
Using two poems with a similar theme. One poem is in English and the other, in the home language of an/the EAL child(ren). The EAL child(ren) translates the poem for the class and together you look at the cultural information in the poems and any other interesting differences	.714	
Using bilingual storybooks to teach the children about how words are ordered in different languages.	.710	
Singing a Spanish alphabet song using an online video to help (e.g. “a” “asno” “b” “bici” “c” “casa”)	.709	
As part of the children’s science work, asking an EAL child (or children) to help the other children label the parts of a flower in both English and the EAL child’s home language.	.707	
Splitting the class into pairs, giving each pair a conversation sequences in a different language and asking them to make a puppet/doll of the speakers and practise the dialogue together.	.650	
Using classroom instructions an EAL child has taught you and the class in their home language.	.423	

Practising writing the children’s names in Punjabi script (using an online translation tool), writing from right to left as in Punjabi, and preparing a final version.	.401	
Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the children about the differences between people, their environments and their lives.		
Asking EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their culture and tell the other children about them.		.819
Asking a Lithuanian-speaking member of the community to come in to school and teach the children some basic language.		.675
Asking the children to answer the register with “hello” in different languages		.530
Learning the words and actions to “Head, shoulders, knees and toes” in Polish from a Polish speaking child in the class and using a video to help.		.481
Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish		.451

Table 46 The structured matrix for the confidence factor analysis

Suggested Activities	Factor	
	1	2
Looking at examples of texts in different languages from different sources and asking the pupils to guess their genre. E.g. a newspaper, an advert, a novel.	.808	.476
As part of the children’s science work, asking an EAL child (or children) to help the other children label the parts of a flower in both English and the EAL child’s home language.	.779	.574
Singing a Spanish alphabet song using an online video to help (e.g. “a” “asno” “b” “bici” “c” “casa”)	.767	.556
Using bilingual storybooks to teach the children about how words are ordered in different languages.	.741	.515
Using two poems with a similar theme. One poem is in English and the other, in the home language of an/the EAL child(ren). The EAL child(ren) translates the poem for the class and together you look at the cultural information in the poems and any other interesting differences.	.739	.507
Splitting the class into pairs, giving each pair a conversation sequences in a different language and asking them to make a puppet/doll of the speakers and practise the dialogue together.	.710	.519
Teaching topic vocabulary in French alongside English. E.g. “minibeasts” (a caterpillar = une chenille)	.684	
Using classroom instructions an EAL child has taught you and the class in their home language.	.667	.649
Using pictures of playgrounds across the world to talk to the children about the differences between people, their environments and their lives.	.533	.530

Practising writing the children's names in Punjabi script (using an online translation tool), writing from right to left as in Punjabi, and preparing a final version.	.521	.446
Asking EAL children in your class to bring in traditional items from their culture and tell the other children about them.	.483	.781
Asking a Lithuanian-speaking member of the community to come in to school and teach the children some basic language.	.541	.738
Learning the words and actions to "Head, shoulders, knees and toes" in Polish from a Polish speaking child in the class and using a video to help.	.668	.712
Asking the children to answer the register with "hello" in different languages	.454	.599
Allowing EAL pupils to use their home language in the classroom whenever they wish		.426

Appendix 13 Word Tree diagrams for 'language' from the trainee questionnaire data

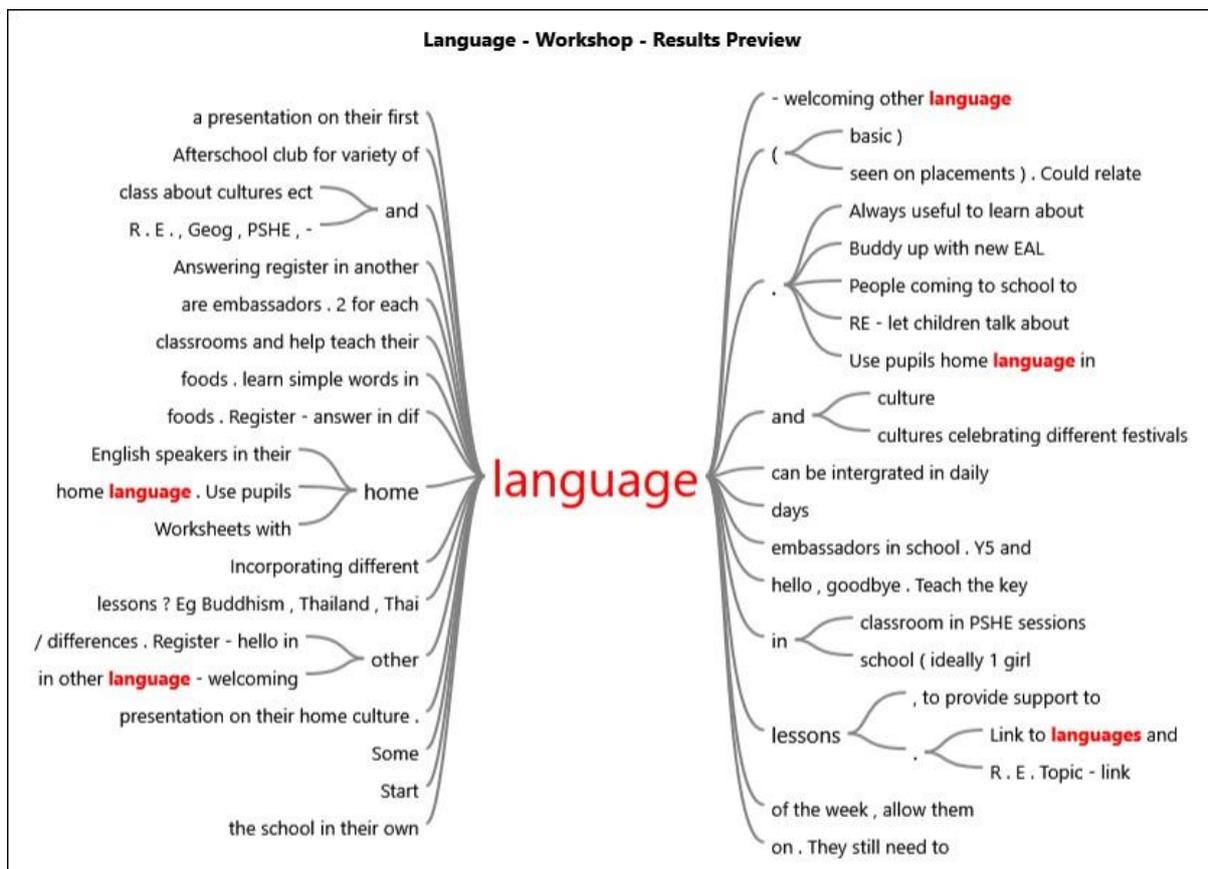


Figure 27: Word Tree for Control Group - 'language(s)'

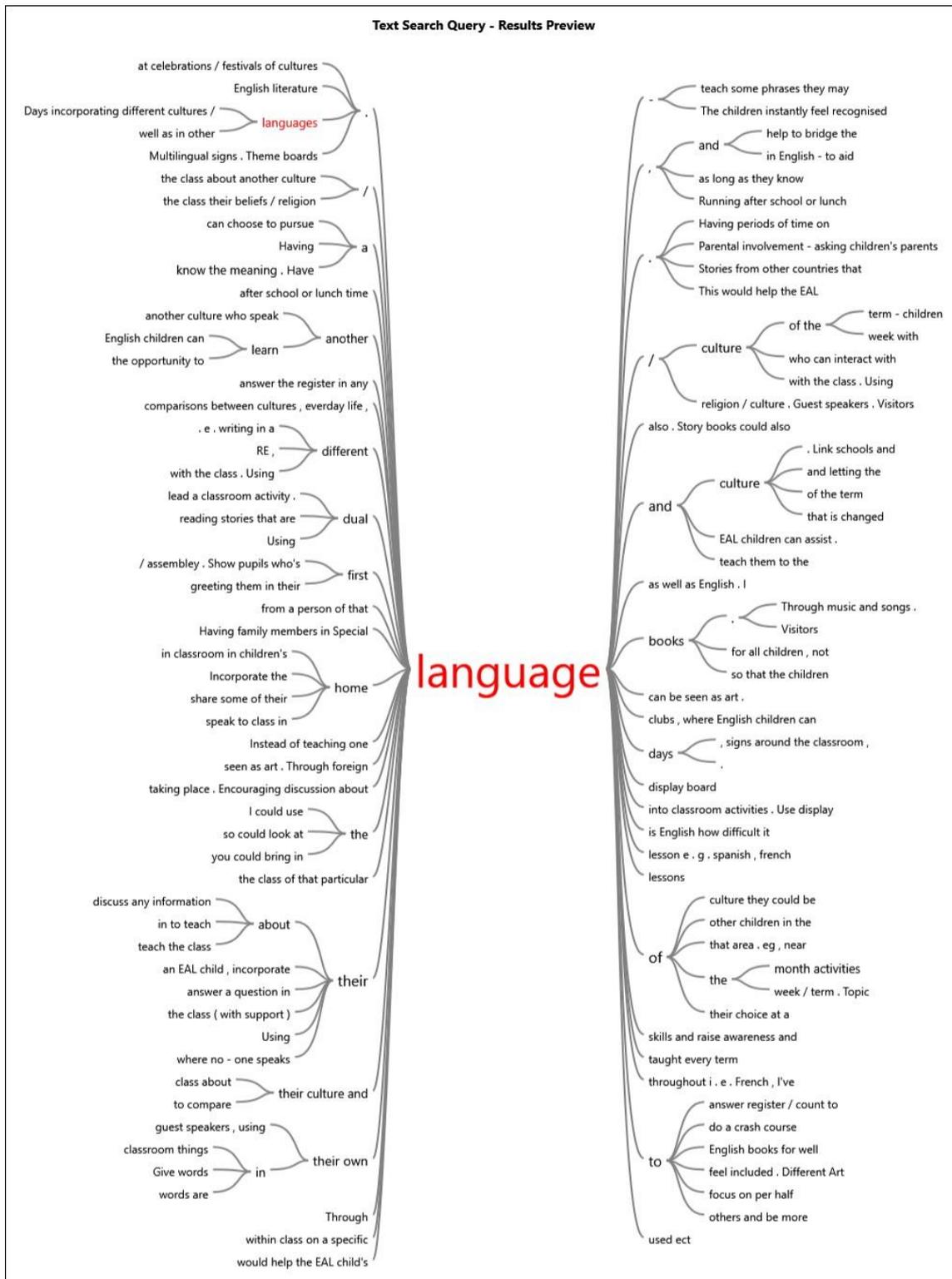


Figure 28: Word Tree for Workshop Group - 'language(s)'

Appendix 14 Between-group statistics for attitudinal variables

Table 47 Between-group statistics for attitudinal variables

Variable		N		Mean score					Standard Deviation		Difference between pre- and post-mean scores		Between groups		
		CG	WG	CG		WG		Between group difference	CG	WG	CG	WG	F	p	η^2
pre-	I will enjoy teaching languages	90	105	48.14	(42.79, 52.86)	60.02	(55.11, 65.03)	11.88	25.27	25.65	4.34	0.05 0.02	10.76	>.001	0.47
post-		90	105	52.48	(47.12, 57.91)	60.01	(55.14, 64.4)	7.53	26.48	23.96			4.396	0.037	0.30
pre-	I am feeling confident about teaching languages	90	105	35.63	(31.61, 40.44)	41.91	(36.76, 46.8)	6.28	22.65	26.14	2.77	0.02 0.05	3.06	0.08	0.26
post-		90	105	38.40	(33.57, 43.3)	48.71	(43.95, 53.19)	10.31	23.38	23.44			9.337	0.003	0.44
pre-	I will enjoy teaching English	90	105	72.43	(68.51, 76.34)	77.79	(74.4, 81.25)	5.36	18.99	19.14	4.04	0.02 <.001	3.97	0.05	0.28
post-		90	105	76.47	(72.82, 79.92)	76.88	(72.85, 80.56)	0.41	16.46	19.61			0.024	0.876	0.02
pre-	I am feeling confident about teaching English	90	105	66.00	(62.2, 70.05)	75.32	(71.88, 78.85)	9.32	18.66	18.58	6.93	0.13 0.21	12.20	>.001	0.50
post-		90	105	72.93	(68.97, 76.48)	74.36	(70.69, 77.77)	1.43	17.48	18.14			0.309	0.579	0.08
pre-	EAL children's home languages should be used in the classroom	90	105	43.59	(39.11, 48.22)	63.21	(57.95, 68.33)	19.62	21.79	27.40	6.37	0.01 <.001	28.82	>.001	0.80
post-		90	105	49.96	(45.01, 54.62)	73.10	(68.73, 77.19)	23.14	23.03	22.77			50.107	>.001	1.01
pre-	I would feel confident to teach my class about diversity in languages and cultures	90	105	72.16	(68.4, 76.41)	75.90	(72.01, 79.5)	3.74	18.92	20.97	-5.89	0.02 0.05	1.83	0.18	0.19
post-		90	105	66.27	(61.91, 70.81)	69.14	(64.72, 73.37)	2.87	21.14	21.89			0.854	0.357	0.13
pre-	Learning languages (other than English) is important	90	105	77.44	(73.98, 81.39)	82.71	(79.09, 86.09)	5.27	19.13	19.18	-3.14	0.09 0.10	3.83	0.05	0.28
post-		90	105	74.30	(69.77, 78.74)	83.58	(79.62, 86.93)	9.28	22.14	19.21			9.778	0.002	0.45
pre-	I would feel confident to incorporate EAL children's home languages in my lessons	90	105	40.91	(36.67, 45.18)	54.85	(50.35, 59.41)	13.94	20.99	25.28	0.65	0.01 0.01	17.96	>.001	0.60
post-		90	105	41.56	(35.86, 47)	57.62	(53.29, 61.89)	16.06	25.56	22.99			21.181	>.001	0.66
pre-	Teaching children about diversity in languages	90	105	87.44	(84.36, 90.58)	90.32	(87.42, 92.98)	2.88	15.78	16.14	-1.84	<.001	1.70	0.19	0.18
post-		90	105	85.60	(84.36, 90.58)	88.76	(85.67, 91.54)	3.16	16.44	15.25			1.943	0.165	0.20

	and cultures is important														
pre-	All primary children should learn French	90	105	35.39	(29.95, 40.57)	38.57	(33.69, 43.66)	3.18	24.84	24.59	9.22	5.75	0.79	0.38	0.13
post-		90	105	44.61	(39.19, 50)	44.32	(39.27, 49.82)	-0.29	25.19	26.59			0.006	0.939	-0.01

Appendix 15 Descriptive statistics for 'How often...' questions from the trainee data

Table 48 Descriptive statistics for the 'How often...' question from the trainee data

		Control Group		never/very rarely		1-3 times a term		4-6 times a term		at least every week	
		N	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
pre-	Mention in passing their first language(s)?	115	18	15.7	37	32.2	22	19.1	38	33	
post-		104	26	25	29	27.9	25	24	24	23.1	
pre-	Provide them with academic support?	121	0	0	4	3.3	9	7.4	108	89.3	
post-		103	4	3.9	3	2.9	12	11.7	84	81.6	
pre-	Incorporate their home languages into classroom activities?	117	24	20.5	34	29.1	31	26.5	28	23.9	
post-		104	26	25	37	35.6	20	19.2	21	20.2	
		Workshop Group		never/very rarely		1-3 times a term		4-6 times a term		at least every week	
		N	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
pre-	Mention in passing their first language(s)?	152	12	7.9	34	22.4	38	25	68	44.7	
post-		111	5	4.5	20	18	26	23.4	60	54.1	
pre-	Provide them with academic support?	153	1	0.7	2	1.3	15	9.8	135	88.2	
post-		111	1	0.9	0	0	11	9.9	99	89.2	
pre-	Incorporate their home languages into classroom activities?	154	13	8.4	30	19.5	56	36.4	55	35.7	
post-		111	5	4.5	20	18	37	33.3	49	44.1	

Appendix 16 Rationale behind the prompts used in the focus groups

Within the following section, each quote used in the focus groups will be presented. The source of the quote, whether this was from published research or created by the researcher will also be given. Alongside each quote, the rationale for its inclusion as well as the section of Chapter 2 where these issues are discussed is given.

“There is hard evidence showing that jobs are going to people with languages. Our population is going to be disadvantaged. The trouble is, we think because we speak English, we can be complacent”

Source: English lead professional, from Mehmedbegovic (2011, p.125)

This was included in order to address issues regarding the importance or value of languages and language learning as well as the implications of English as a global language on language learning. This was intended to help build a picture of teachers’ willingness to use languages more generally.

See sections 2.4.5 and 2.4.7

“It’s so difficult to prepare for EAL children. I don’t know where I would find the extra time. Sometimes each child speaks a different language. You don’t know how much of their first language they know. Or how much education they’ve had in their home country. You don’t even know how long they’ll stay for. Each child is so different.”

Source: Created by researcher

This was included in order to address the issue of preparing for children with EAL and in particular, teachers’ time demands, the variability in EAL children’s languages and experiences and teachers’ perceived permanency of EAL children. Such factors are likely to influence teachers’ willingness to implement home language pedagogies.

See section 2.3.4

“When a bilingual child feels valued and respected they are more likely to integrate in mainstream society ...If they are made to feel alien and different, they are not going to

integrate. At the moment, their home lives are so different from their school lives, they never get the chance to develop their bilingual identities”

Source: Adapted from English lead professional, from Mehmedbegovic (2011, p.109)

This was intended to address teachers’ perceptions of the benefits to valuing home languages. Namely, whether home languages are considered useful for integration, helping the child to navigate differences in their home and school life as well the development of their dual identity.

See section 2.3.3

“I look at my children and I think I wish I had more Polish children because it’s so rewarding to teach them because they want to learn and they have motivation... the Polish children seem keener to work than the Bengali children I think.”

Source: Flynn (2013)

This quote is taken from Flynn’s (2013) study in order to elicit data regarding her conclusions about children from Polish background being considered a model minority by teachers. It is also intended to address the wider theme of teachers’ perceptions of children from certain immigrant backgrounds and how these may influence their practice, or willingness to add to their practice (i.e. by using the given home language).

See section 2.4.3

“I would be uncomfortable allowing an EAL child to teach language to the rest of class because I feel it is my role to teach. I would not know whether the language the children are learning is correct or not. Even if I could understand, I think EAL learners would be reluctant to use their own language in the classroom.”

Source: An amalgamation of teacher responses from Bailey (2014)

These responses were put together in order to elicit data regarding teachers’ preparedness to trust a child with EAL to provide language input. This emerged as a theme within Bailey (2014) and was reported in Bailey and Marsden (2017) but is, to date, has not been fully explored within the body of research examining home language use.

See sections 2.3.1.d and 2.4.7.b

“You can’t ignore the fact that English is essential for the EAL children’s futures. And I do think it’s really important that all the children learn a foreign language. Languages like French will create more opportunities for them”

Source: Created by researcher

This was created as after reviewing the literature relating to language attitudes and home language use, it was concluded that the status and role of English was likely to be a central concept in the project. This quote was therefore designed to elicit data regarding teachers’ perceptions of English as well as French, as the language of the medium of instruction and the most commonly learnt language. The role of schools and teachers in supporting language ideologies was thus intended to be explored.

See section 2.4.7

“...the children did some bilingual storytelling even though they were not bilingual themselves. They were highly motivated and excited about ‘learning a new language’ so they told their parents about it ... A few days later, some parents approached the head collectively asking whether their children would be learning ‘that language’ and if they were, could they be withdrawn from it! Interestingly the same parents did not have any problem with their children learning French or Spanish.”

Source: Conteh (2007)

This quote was included in order to elicit data regarding parents’ perceptions of language learning and in particular, monolingual parents’ views. It also relates to the wider concept of the perceived value of languages.

See section 2.4.4

“First languages can only confuse children and impede their progress in English.”

Source: Head teacher, from Mehmedbegovic (2008, p.15)

This quote was intended to address teachers' language learning ideologies as conceivably these are likely to affect whether they would consider encouraging children with EAL to maintain their home languages in the classroom.

See section 2.3.1

“EAL pupils speak English and need to participate in all aspects of the curriculum. When there is just one child who speaks Lithuanian and 23 who speak English, using Lithuanian would impact upon their learning more than the one child.”

Source: Teacher from Bailey (2014)

Researching in predominantly monolingual schools, much like the current project, number emerged as an issue which may affect teacher willingness within Bailey (2014) and reported in Bailey and Marsden (2017). This quote was therefore included to elicit data regarding teachers' perceptions of catering to their monolingual majority as well as the pressure for that monolingual majority to achieve according to the curriculum (in English).

See section 2.4.4 and 2.4.7.b

“There's also a boy in here from Iraq, he knows a lot about the country and he's often told stories to the whole class about things in Iraq or his family in Iraq. So it's not just the language they the monolingual children are learning but things about their country as well.”

Source: Teacher from Bailey (2014)

This quote was included in order to elicit teachers' views about using the child with EAL as a cultural and linguistic resource.

See section 2.3.2 and 2.3.3

“I have learned very little about the children's languages. I'm afraid to say that I found myself focussing on the children's fluency in English rather than their own language.”

Source: NQT from Cajkler and Hall (2012)

This quote was intended to prompt the teachers to discuss English as the dominant language of schools and society and the prioritisation of this over home language maintenance.

See section 2.4.7.b

“The problem of our system is that teachers like to be in control. Teachers have to take risks and allow children to take risks. I think if you have 90% Gujarati speakers in your class, you do poetry in Gujarati.”

Source: English lead professional, from Mehmedbegovic (2011 p.112)

This quote more explicitly addresses teacher control, an umbrella theme identified within Bailey (2014) and Bailey and Marsden (2017) and discussed in terms of trusting the child with EAL within the literature reviewed in the previous chapter. This quote was also chosen in order to again address issues of number and teachers’ perceptions of having majority and minority language groups.

See sections 2.3.1.d and 2.4.7.b

“We understand that you value other languages but when they first come in what do you do? I don’t know anything about languages like Lithuanian. I don’t even have a GCSE in French!”

Source: Adapted from an NQT in Cajkler and Hall (2009)

This quote was included in order to elicit data about teachers’ language expertise and training regarding using, or valuing, home languages. Teacher know-how and linguistic knowledge was identified in the previous chapter as being a potential obstacle to the inclusion of home language pedagogies in classrooms.

See section 2.3.5 and 2.3.6

“The problem that most primary teachers have is that they already feel the curriculum they are expected to teach the children is so full and prescriptive that it allows no space for individual variation. The result is that the ‘valuing and respecting’ of home cultures/diversity gets squeezed into the corners”

Source: Conteh (2003)

The pressure teachers are under to achieve centrally determined standards was identified as another factor which may influence their willingness to include home language pedagogies which they may or not perceive to be in line with their teaching responsibilities. This quote was therefore intended to prompt discussion about these aspects.

See section 2.4.7.b

“The parents of my EAL children expect them to make the same progress in English as their peers. They don’t want them to use their home language at school. They want them to be part of British society and they know how important English is for that. They even speak to their children in English”

Source: Created by researcher

This quote was created in order to address the cross-over between pressure to achieve in English and parental pressure to make progress, in English. It also was intended to tap into being proficient in English as a means of integrating in British society. These issues were discussed by the teachers in Conteh’s (2012) research.

See sections 2.4.4 and 2.4.7.b

Appendix 17 Word Frequency between-group differences

Table 49 Most commonly used words by the WG and CG from the trainees' open data

		Word	Freq.	Weighted percentage
Control Group Pre-	1	culture(s)	82	6.98
	2	different	56	4.77
	3	languages	47	4
	4	lessons	26	2.21
	5	children	23	1.96
Workshop Group Pre-	1	culture(s)	165	6.46
	2	differently	146	5.71
	3	languages	129	5.05
	4	children	101	3.95
	5	using	51	2
Control Group Post-	1	culture(s)	45	5.11
	2	different	43	4.89
	3	languages	41	4.66
	4	children	19	2.16
	5	learning	17	1.93
Workshop Group Post-	1	culture(s)	97	6.1
	2	languages	91	5.72
	3	children	69	4.34
	4	different	65	4.09
	5	use	41	2.58