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To what extent is a CLIL approach useful in teaching intercultural understanding in MFL?

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 I confirm that this is my own work and the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

Abstract

This thesis investigates the importance learners and teachers of Modern Languages in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding, and the extent to which this is incorporated in everyday practice in the context of secondary education. In particular, the research explores whether a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach is an effective means to develop learners' intercultural understanding. This is important because the curriculum for languages in England gives little importance to the development of intercultural competence through integrative models, at odds with many other countries.

The research followed an action research approach within a pragmatic paradigm, through a mixed-method approach, using qualitative and quantitative instruments including questionnaires, interviews, lesson observations logs as well as an intervention programme of 15 lessons. 94 students of French in Year 8, across four different schools, and 19 teachers, participated, including myself. Two of the four classes were involved in the intervention programme. Qualitative and quantitative data analysis was undertaken to identify emerging themes and issues.

The main conclusions of the thesis are that time and curriculum constraints prevent many language teachers from implementing intercultural teaching, even where they value it. In addition, teachers are placing additional constraints upon themselves, often making intercultural opportunities dependent on learners' linguistic ability. Yet CLIL materials used in the intervention with low to mid ability students were successful in increasing affective motivation, cultural knowledge as well as learners' intercultural understanding, through exposure to cognitively challenging content.

This study makes several notable contributions: firstly, it highlights the importance of material choice when teaching for intercultural understanding; secondly, it gives a voice for teachers and learners of foreign languages to express their views on the importance they themselves attach to the teaching and learning of intercultural understanding; thirdly, it provides a useful insight in the use of a CLIL approach for the teaching of languages other than English. Finally, it addresses the potential benefits of this approach for lower secondary students in England, with a particular focus on lower attaining students, where little empirical evidence exists.

The research therefore recommends a greater place for intercultural understanding in policy, teacher training and practice, not limiting the onus of delivery to language teachers alone. It also recommends the development a corpus of intercultural materials, the use of technology to develop a community of practitioners for intercultural teaching, and targeting the most receptive age group for intercultural teaching.

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CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

1.1. Researcher's rationale

There is a wide range of existing research in the field of intercultural teaching in the context of Higher Education; however, a gap still remains where the context of secondary schools is concerned (Hennebry, 2014a), and questions remain as to whether language teaching and learning gives much place to intercultural teaching in daily practice (Baker, 2015; Lázár, 2007).

The study was predicated on my belief that developing students' intercultural awareness should form an essential part of foreign language instruction. As a researcher-practitioner, I also hypothesized that, owing to the constraints of the curriculum and of the educational system in which the study was situated, and based on my own personal experience as a language teacher, little time is currently afforded to the development of intercultural understanding, despite the frequent acknowledgement that culture and language have an inherent connection. The project was also predicated on the view that a wide range of materials could serve the purpose of intercultural teaching and learning, from the more 'traditional' to the most innovative.

This research project stemmed from my own personal and professional situation as a native speaker of French, living in a multilingual household and teaching Modern Languages in England. In particular, it was born from a dual belief that intercultural understanding has a major role to play in understanding others, but also in enriching the language learning process for both learners and teachers. At the time of starting the research project, I was faced with the pressure to teach my students in order to enable them to gain some success against performative measures, whilst trying to

find the time to offer them the opportunities to gain insights into the foreign culture(s), and to improve both their motivation and mine in delivering a more stimulating content. Based on the premise that my personal history and beliefs informed both my practice and research choice, and that as a practitioner and researcher I viewed myself as an agent of change (Lewin, 1946; Reason & Bradbury, 2006), but also taking into account that the research project was highly contextualised and individually motivated and situated, an action-based approach was favoured; it was also motivated from a belief that, if I was dissatisfied with the current pedagogical framework within which my practice was situated, then it was my responsibility as a practitioner to provide a practical and pragmatic solution for the particular context which was mine, and that of my students, but also to share my practice to benefit other practitioners, in the empirical knowledge that some at least shared my frustrations.

Stemming from personal and professional experience and interest, the study therefore aimed to investigate the importance that learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding (ICU) within MFL education, and the place which is actually afforded to ICU in practice. The project also focused in particular on intercultural understanding within a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) pedagogy, and sought to establish if teaching materials which adopt a CLIL approach of integrating language acquisition and cultural elements were suited to develop learners' intercultural understanding. The research project also aimed to seek the views of Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) teachers on what they believe to be the place of intercultural understanding in current formal assessment frameworks.

This particular focus on the views of teachers and learners was in recognition of the contextual, individual and reflective nature of the process of developing intercultural understanding. Although pedagogical approaches integrating language and culture abound and are well documented, this study's particular interest was in gauging the potential impact of CLIL teaching and materials in supporting teachers like me to develop greater intercultural understanding and competence in their learners. In light of recent curriculum and assessment changes in the English educational landscape, with a rethink of the place of intercultural understanding in policy and curriculum documents, often in contrast to its role in other national frameworks, it was hoped that this study would also contribute to the wider discussion on the importance of developing learners' intercultural understanding and on how this could be achieved within the language learning paradigm.

1.2. The place of intercultural understanding in language teaching and learning

Language competence should not be reduced to linguistic proficiency (Grenfell, 2002). Intercultural competence also goes beyond cultural knowledge (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Vigneron, 2001; Zarate, 1986). Language teaching and learning which are purposeful and which have contextualised meaning therefore offer opportunities for the dual acquisition and development of both language and culture (Sudhoff, 2010). For Scarino, language teaching and learning should go beyond the development of cultural awareness, towards the development of intercultural capability (Scarino, 2010). Scarino contends that the teaching of culture has always had a role in language teaching, albeit a subordinate one, comprising for the most part a body of cultural knowledge which was fixed and transmitted to learners. This view is supported by Sudhoff, citing Kramsch, who suggests that going beyond the

transmission of cultural knowledge will enable learners to develop 'an enriched cultural identity' through the symbiosis of linguistic and cultural acquisition, what Kramsch terms 'thirdness' (Kramsch, 1993, in Sudhoff, 2010: 32).

Goodman views the role of foreign language education in developing global citizens as central, and curriculum models which fail to address this centrality as flawed and unlikely to achieve their own stated goals of internationalisation (Goodman, 2009). This position is taken further by Saniei (2012) who asserts that language teaching methodologies which fail to take into account and to integrate the cultural dimension are flawed in their very nature, a view also shared by Pulverness (2003). Nonetheless, the remit of intercultural teaching is not limited to language teaching, and this view is supported in policy and in particular in recent inspection frameworks, which place this responsibility at whole-school level (Ofsted, 2014). However, language teachers, through their ability to draw on their own intercultural experiences and competence, have an important role to play in developing learners' intercultural understanding, and in supporting teachers of other subjects in doing the same (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015).

Furthermore, a new era has been brought about by globalisation and the emergence of new technologies. Beyond ideological hopes, the need to possess a degree of intercultural awareness in a globalised market-place context and at a time of heightened need for competitiveness are rarely disputed (Campos, 2009). Such fundamental changes in world societies are bound to, and will need to be reflected in educational systems (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). Ball (1997), Furstenberg (2010) and Grenfell (2002), to name but a few, also share this view. As a result, these changes present a wide range of challenges for teaching and learning, and more specifically for the teaching and learning of languages - and the teaching of

intercultural understanding within its paradigm (Coyle et al., 2010; Huhn, 2012). Lázár (2007) recognises the relatively recent, but growing need for language educators to support intercultural communicative competence in their learners in addition to developing their linguistic skills. Nonetheless, Lázár also acknowledges that the place of intercultural competence remains a low priority in many curricula, teacher training programmes or examination frameworks, despite guidance and recommendations such as the Common European Framework of Languages (Council of Europe, 2001).

1.3. Beyond the instrumental value of language learning

Although much still needs to be done to realise the full potential of today's multilingual societies, including in educational contexts (Coyle et al., 2010), the development of intercultural teaching and learning within the language teaching and learning paradigm is not, however, a new phenomenon, and in line with a traditional conception of language as an instrumental skill, has some of its methodology well-rooted in the world of business (Hofstede, 1984; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1993). In this context, the main purpose of language teaching and learning is perceived as instrumental, to enable learners to deal with practical, everyday situations and to make themselves understood for specific purposes in specific contexts.

According to Grenfell (2002), while the study of language was historically an academic exercise, focusing on grammar acquisition and application, rote memorisation and framed within literary content, the growing predominance of behaviourist psychology led to a shift towards a communicative approach with the purpose to develop in learners the ability to interact in transactional contexts. The communicative approach played a central role in language practice and policy, and

still does to this day. This role of communication in language teaching and learning, however, was not prominent until the late 1960s (Grenfell, 2002). Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) served to reconceptualise language teaching and learning towards a more interactive, learner-centred practice, with communicative competence often perceived and conceptualised as a range of competencies (van Essen, 2002). CLT became prevalent in foreign language policy and practice from the 1980s and focused on practical, real-life situations, on the development of oral fluency in dealing with these, and on the near-exclusive use of target language in teaching.

However, it is important to note that, when providing one of its first detailed conceptualisation, Canale and Swain (1980) went beyond the instrumental value of language learning, and defined communicative competence as encompassing the three components of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence, with a fourth component, discourse competence, further developed by Canale (1983). Furthermore, beyond the instrumentalist considerations, there is also a need to go beyond theorisation towards a broader understanding of language as a purveyor of cultural understanding, and the realisation that language teachers have a pivotal role to play through their daily practice (Abolghasem, 2010; Chien, 2013; El-Hussari, 2007).

1.4. A departure from the communicative language teaching approach

However, more recently, there has been a growing consensus that communicative approaches have not resulted in a significant improvement of linguistic outcomes, and some are of the view that the approach may have negatively impacted on learners' motivation, and may have presented them with a lack of cognitive challenge

(Coyle, 2000; Dobson, 1998; Grenfell, 1994, 2002; Nuffield, 2000; Simpson, 1997). These shortcomings were identified despite the instrumental value of languages other than English being firmly grounded in local and national contexts, and for Grenfell (2002), this was evidence that a purely linguistic, communicative approach to language teaching and learning was no longer sufficient.

This disappointing and limited impact of communicative approaches on learners may have led, according to Hennebry (2014a), to the recent renewed interest on intercultural teaching. In particular, as Hymes (1972) noted, some definitions of communicative competence have tended to lack consideration for the cultural dimension in which language occurs. However, there has been a growing acknowledgement that this dimension is an important and intrinsic element of communicative competence (Beneke, 2000; Canale & Swain, 1980), and that it could be realised through more integrative curriculum models.

1.5. The CLIL model

Multilingualism has long been placed at the core of the policies of the European Union, and in this context, the development of integrative approaches quickly gained momentum, with CLIL generating particular and sustained interest, pedagogical activity and funding in the field of bilingual education across Europe. CLIL became an umbrella term for integrative models in the mid-1990s (Marsh & Langé, 1999), and was perceived as one of the possible innovative approaches offering solutions to the challenge a changing society was placing on educational systems at the start of the century (Ruiz de Zarobe & Catalán, 2009). While rooted in existing models of integrating language and culture, the CLIL model, described by Coyle as 'the planned pedagogic integration of contextualized content, cognition, communication and culture into teaching and learning practice' (Coyle et al., 2010:6), places the

content and culture on equal terms and acknowledges the interdependence between these two aspects (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh & Langé, 1999).

The body of literature now available on aspects of CLIL teaching and learning is growing, and advocates for CLIL contend that such an approach may benefit learners' motivation (Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001; Grenfell, 2002; Madjarova, Bostmanova & Stamatova, 2001; Marsh & Langé, 2000; Phipps, 2001), that it may present learners with a higher level of cognitive challenge (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 2009; Marsh & Langé, 2000), and that it serves to develop their intercultural competence (Bernaus, Jonckheere, Furlong & Kervran, 2012; Campos, 2009; Mughan,1999; Sudhoff, 2010).

However, CLIL practice is not widespread and can still be viewed as experimental (Hunt, Neofitou & Redford, 2009), and while Coyle and colleagues (2010) argue that CLIL theory is first and foremost practice-informed, this lack of widespread practice and subsequent evidence presents us with a gap in knowledge worthwhile of investigation, especially in light of the well-established relationship between language and culture and the need to further develop learners' intercultural understanding and competence in a globalised context.

1.6. Scope of the research and research questions

In addition to the lack of practice-informed literature on the benefits of CLIL, little research also exists on the potential benefits of a CLIL approach for developing intercultural understanding in secondary learners in the English educational context. Nonetheless, there is an argument for its benefits to be fully realised at secondary level, as learners will possess more advanced linguistic and cognitive skills (Coyle et al., 2010). In light of the higher levels of linguistic and cognitive skills at secondary level, and because of the high stakes of examinations at upper-secondary level,

lower-secondary learners may prove ideal beneficiaries of a CLIL approach (Coyle et al., 2010), especially where motivation levels seem to decrease commensurately with learners' journey through their secondary education (Barton, 2001; Davies, 2004). It could therefore be argued that, in order to give learners the best opportunity in which to further their intercultural understanding, this could be achieved through an integrated language and content approach, and there is a further argument to be made for developing further the intercultural teaching which takes place at Key Stage 3. Consequently, the aims of this study will be to seek possible responses to the following questions:

1. **How much importance do learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of ICU within MFL education?**
2. **To what extent is ICU incorporated into MFL teaching and learning?**
3. **To what extent can CLIL materials develop learners' ICU?**

1.7. Structure of the thesis

This thesis is organised into the following chapters:

- **Chapter two** presents the Literature Review for this study. In this section are discussed the many definitions of culture, the importance of the distinction between cultural knowledge and cultural awareness, and the relationship and tensions which exist between language and culture, as well as their highly contextualised nature. This chapter also investigates the place of culture in education and in foreign language instruction, contrasting the European and English educational contexts. In this section are also discussed different models of integrating language and culture in teaching, with particular emphasis on CLIL approaches and potential benefits. Further consideration is also given here on the constraints and issues associated with the

implementation of such approaches, including issues of assessment and materials selection.

- **Chapter three** details the methodology and the research design chosen for this research project, research instruments used, sampling method, as well as providing a description of how the data were collected and analysed. This section also seeks to establish the validity and reliability of the study, as well as limitations and a reflection on ethical considerations raised.

- **Chapter four** presents the findings of the study, organised according to the contribution each provides towards answering the research questions.

- **Chapter five** contains the discussion of the findings, and concludes the study by offering a summary of the key findings, by proposing implications for pedagogy, and by suggesting some possible recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

There is a good deal of research showing a strong relationship between language and culture. Furthermore, in recent years there has been growing interest across the world about the integration of culture within language teaching and learning. Although there has been considerable commentary on the issue of the importance of integrating both aspects in the teaching of foreign languages, very little of that commentary has been derived from the views of learners and teachers in secondary education in England.

In this chapter, I will seek to investigate, from existing literature, the key aspects relating to the integration of language and culture. This section will firstly reflect on the definition of culture, cultural awareness and cultural knowledge. A second section will consider the relationship between language and culture, with a particular focus on the place of culture within language teaching and learning. Thirdly, I will discuss the place of intercultural understanding in teachers' beliefs, compare this to its role in actual teaching practice, and detail a few of the existing models of integrating culture and language teaching. A fourth section will situate the issue of teaching for intercultural understanding in the European and English educational contexts, including Contents and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). I will then proceed to establish, from the body of literature on the issue, the benefits of a CLIL approach in developing learners' ICU. I will also review, from the commentary, which constraints and issues may be raised when implementing CLIL models, and in a final section, reflect on suitable teaching materials for developing learners' ICU.

2.2. Defining and teaching culture

2.2.1. Defining culture

Culture has long been a difficult and multifaceted concept to define. Brooks (1964) and Nostrand (1989) described culture as the defining characteristic of a given group or society. Hudson (1980) also shared this view, adding that culture represents the property of a given community/group. On the other hand, Goodenough (1957) viewed culture as socially acquired knowledge. This knowledge or beliefs must be learnt in order to function within a group/community (Hymes, 1967). In addition to this, Boylan and Huntley summarise the definition of culture given in the Collins Dictionary as 'the total of the inherited ideas, beliefs, values, and knowledge, which constitute the shared bases of social action' (Boylan & Huntley, 2003:39). For Hofstede (1994:5) culture is 'the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another'. He proposes a pyramid model, representing three different levels: universal, cultural and personal. Culture is therefore not only an inward-looking concept but also has an outward-looking aspect, and both Alptekin (1993) and Kramsch (1998) define culture as a world view, a 'common system of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating, and acting' (Kramsch, 1998: 10). Byram proposes a useful synthesis in defining culture as the 'shared beliefs, values and behaviours' of a social group, where 'social group' can refer to any collectivity of people, from those in a social institution ... to those organised in large-scale groups such as a nation, or even a 'civilisation' such as 'European' (Byram, 2008: 60). Tomalin and Stempleski (2013) also distinguish three elements when defining culture: products, behaviour and ideas.

2.2.2. Cultural knowledge vs. cultural awareness

Cultural knowledge has its place in fostering intercultural understanding (Campos, 2009; Saniei, 2012). However one must be aware of its limitations - and Menard-Warwick (2009) reminds us that the mere exposure to cultural elements in teaching does not equate to the development of interculturality. Furthermore, a distinction can be drawn between cultural knowledge and cultural awareness. Saniei (2012) presents a useful set of dichotomies to distinguish the two:

Cultural Knowledge	Cultural Awareness
external	internal
static	dynamic
articulated	interactive
stereotypical	variable
reduced	multi-dimensional

(Saniei, 2012: 11-12)

2.2.3. The place of culture in education

Teaching culture is a complex process. Damen contends that learning about culture can occur 'in the native context as **enculturation** or in a non-native or secondary context as **acculturation**' (Damen, 1987: 140). Enculturation is the acquisition of one's own culture, whereas acculturation is the confluence of two cultures. Brown (1993) further developed this concept of acculturation by defining stages through which the process occurs: the euphoria stage, culture shock, adaptation and acceptance stages. The challenges of this process, and in particular of the culture shock stage, are also identified by Archer (1986), for whom the source of culture

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shock can often be found in behavioural differences, whilst for Nemetz-Robinson (1985), this is caused by 'perceptual mismatches between people of different cultures: mismatches in schemas, cues, values and interpretations' (Nemetz-Robinson, 1985:49).We can acknowledge, therefore, that this would be a significant consideration when introducing the teaching of culture, as previously defined, in that learners in any given class will not only be at differing stages of linguistic competence and acquisition, but may also be at differing stages in the acculturation process, and this would need to be taken into account and learners carefully guided and supported through this process, in order to achieve intercultural communicative competence.

Integrating aspects of culture in education is sometimes seen as a political statement, and one which can serve to not only develop a better understanding of others, but also of one's own culture (Strong, 2009). For Damen (1987), the process of becoming aware of cultural otherness also involves a process of discovery and reflection about one's own culture. Therefore, one could argue that developing cultural awareness can also be described as a three-dimensional process, involving self-reflection as well as comparing similarities and contrasting differences between one's own culture and that of others.

2.3. The relationship between language and culture

Many policy documents around the world have acknowledged the interrelationship between culture and language (Baker, 2015). The relationship and interdependence of culture and language is also well established in literature (Barthes, 1990; Bourdieu, 1991; Brown, 2007; Fairclough, 1989; Foucault, 1972; Geertz, 1973). For Brooks (1964), language is not only an important element of a given culture, it represents for some its most advanced component.

Language use and its role in the conceptualisation of one's own and others' culture is an individual construct, and is often referred to under the term of linguistic relativity (Gumperz and Levinson, 1996). Language thus becomes one of the systems through which culture can be conceptualised, rather than an end in itself (Arens, 2010; Boylan & Huntley, 2003; Brown, 2007; Coyle et al., 2010; Robinett, 1978; Saniei, 2012; Sudhoff, 2010; Trivedi, 1978). Therefore, a definition of culture ought to place language as one of its key tenets, and Holló and Lázár (2000) do this by articulating their definition of culture around three key elements: civilization, behaviour and speech patterns, and discourse structures and skills.

There is little surprise, therefore, to note that this inter-relationship between language and culture is also evident in more recent policy documents across nations (ACTFL, 2006; MLA, 2007) and should be a key consideration for intercultural teaching and learning (Council of Europe, 2001; Sudhoff, 2010). Furthermore, as language is an intrinsic part of culture, and since culture defines not only who we are but how we view others, the learning of culture can be viewed as an essential tool in developing communication skills and some will argue, in second language acquisition and the development of affective motivation (Saniei, 2012; Tomlinson, 2000).

If culture and language are intrinsically connected, it can be argued that so should the teaching of culture and the teaching of language. Historically, many like Halverson (1985) have made a distinction between 'big C' culture - encompassing key elements of civilisation such as the Arts, History, Geography and Literature, widely taught a distinct subject in curricula - and 'little c' culture. However, for Alptekin (1993) and Bennett (1997), culture goes beyond the realm of civilisation as defined above. In addition, Levine and Adelman (1993) contend that more obvious manifestations of cultural differences between groups, such as their language or customs, only offer a

very superficial and simplistic view of the more hidden elements which define culture. Therefore, for Lázár (2007), civilisation elements, although important, should not be the only aspects learners should be exposed to in the foreign language classroom.

The definitions detailed above all seem to converge in acknowledging that culture goes beyond factual knowledge, often understood within the framework of civilisation elements. Therefore, there is a clear distinction between 'culture' in its wider sense, and what we will call 'cultural knowledge' for the purpose of this study. Rather than dichotomise our definition of culture into 'big C' and 'little c' culture, we will also, for the purpose of this study, define culture as a three-dimensional system of inherited and shared behaviours, beliefs and values which defines particular groups (in the wider sense of the term) and distinguishes them from other groups.

2.3.1. Culture to contextualise language

According to Grenfell (2002) and Simpson (1997), both language and culture are highly contextualised. However, Simpson (1997) also agrees with Byram (1992) that a purely contextualised approach to language instruction can fail to provide learners with the opportunity to consider their own identity, both in itself and in relation to others. Nonetheless, the integration of culture in language teaching and learning is an opportunity to increase its educational value, but also to support language acquisition through a deeper understanding and conceptualisation of discourse (Saniei, 2012; Masuhara & Tomlinson, 2004). Therefore, language teaching and the teaching of culture are widely seen as intrinsically connected (Boylan & Huntley, 2003; Brockmann, 2009; Chien, 2013; Maley, 2013; Tomalin, 1995; Tomalin & Stempleski, 2013) and culture should be at the centre of the language curriculum,

enabling the development of cultural literacy along that of literacy in the vehicular language (Arens, 2010; Brockmann, 2009).

2.3.2. Tensions between language and culture

As discussed above, the inter-relationship between language and culture is well established. In addition, Furstenberg (2010) notes that there has been a recent improvement in the positioning of culture within language teaching and learning, through the increased place it is beginning to take both in some commercial materials and in the curriculum.

Nonetheless, whilst the place of culture in language teaching is now widely accepted in theory, in practice the role of culture in language teaching and learning is often debated, and there still remains a lack of consensus on the issue, and many an excuse is given to avoid integrating culture in the teaching and learning of languages (Byram, 2010; Campos, 2009). Even in contexts where the intercultural aspect of language learning and teaching is given importance, it is not always articulated in practice, and linguistic competence is still seen as the overarching priority in the teaching of foreign languages (Aktor & Risager, 2001). When considering the issue beyond the realm of compulsory education, research has also found that the traditional separation of linguistic and cultural fields in academia and higher education institutions has limited the ability of departments to foster the development of each other within their respective areas of specialism, failing to see the other as an integral part of the teaching and learning processes (Coleman, 1996; Mughan, 1999; Wellmon, 2008).

Taking all this evidence into account, it becomes clear that the teaching of culture, and in particular the teaching of culture within the language learning paradigm, is as complex, if not more so, than defining culture itself. Yet, despite the divide between

language and culture even in university programmes, and the lack of cultural teaching in many a language course, learning about the target culture is seen as a key affective motivation in learners who choose to continue the study of languages beyond their compulsory education, and the reality of many learners will mean that the lasting legacy of their language instruction is likely to rest with cultural aspects they may recall, rather than linguistic competence they may not have occasion to practise (Arens, 2010; Mughan, 1999).

2.3.3. Culture: the fifth element, or the fifth dimension of language teaching?

There is little research and guidance on the 'applicability' of integrating intercultural awareness elements in language teaching (Young & Sachdev, 2011:83). As a result, the intercultural is often seen as an add-on element rather than an integral part of language teaching (Kramsch, 1993; Tomalin, 2008). For Damen (1987) culture is the fifth dimension of language teaching and learning; however, as Kramsch (1993) points out, it should not be viewed as a fifth element within communicative approaches, but rather should form the basis for all learning as it defines our identity, values and behaviours. As such, Brown (2007) argues that language can be described as the most evident and accessible manifestation of culture; therefore, as Furstenberg points out, intercultural learning should not just be an added element to enrich our curriculum, it should be 'the main objective of the language class' (Furstenberg, 2010: 330). This repositioning of culture within the language teaching paradigm is a view shared by El-Hussari (2007), Grenfell (2002) and Mughan (1999). Baker (2015) also notes that the perception of culture as an additional skill fails to encompass the necessary dimensions of knowledge and attitudes which must be taken into account when considering teaching towards intercultural competence.

However, even where curriculum reform documents have supported the inclusion of a cultural dimension to language teaching (DfES, 2002b), Barnlund (1999) and Campos (2009) have argued that the teaching and practice of culture within the language learning classroom is often seen at best as an aside, and at worst ignored.

2.4. Teaching intercultural understanding

Beacco and colleagues define intercultural education as 'learning to react in non-ego/ethno/sociocentric ways to certain aspects of societies different from one's own, or to "unknown" cultures' (Beacco et al., 2010:34). For them, the increasing diversity in classrooms around the world is acknowledged as both a challenge and an opportunity for intercultural teaching, and also as an imperative for more to be achieved in terms of policy development and implementation. Making intercultural teaching the preserve of the few is often seen as going against the very premise for this educational goal, namely that access to intercultural and plurilingual teaching and learning is a right for learners in the context of a globalised world (Beacco et al., 2010).

The integration of intercultural education in the curriculum is dependent on the context in which it is to be applied. In order to achieve this integration, 'existing curricula may have to be modified substantially - **but without abandoning the aims of the previous curriculum**' (emphasis in the original, Beacco et al., 2010:8). Some guidance is indeed becoming available to support the implementation of intercultural education (Beacco et al., 2010).

2.4.1. The place of intercultural understanding in teachers' beliefs and practice

Hennebry (2014a) provides a useful comparison of the place culture is given in a range of national curricula. Interestingly, this highlights the seemingly optional role culture can play in the language curriculum. Regardless of the place afforded - or not - to culture in national curriculum documents, Hennebry (2014a) points out that this needs to be situated in teachers and learners' own perceptions in order to offer a true reflection of the place of culture in language teaching and learning practice. The perception of teachers on their own role in developing Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) in their learners is a key factor (Hennebry, 2014a). A study by Aleksandrowicz-Pedich, Draghicescu, Issaiass and Sabec (2003) established that a majority of teachers surveyed believed ICC to be important, and that more in-depth training should be provided both at initial and in-service levels on how to best deliver this. Yet a recent study by Hennebry (2014b) highlighted that some teachers viewed culture as a means of motivation for language learning, rather than as a key element in its own right, or viewed its role within language teaching as optional, despite the fact that all teachers surveyed, without exception, placed the development of cultural awareness for their learners as their main priority. Sercu and Bandura's research (2005) also identified the view of teachers that intercultural teaching was dependent on learners' linguistic competence, thus reinforcing a focus on the linguistic over the intercultural dimension of teaching languages.

Although there is some evidence that teachers are open to the inclusion of culture in their teaching, and that some approaches to implementation can be successful (Baker, 2012; Feng, Byram & Fleming, 2009) there are no widespread, consistent approaches in practice. Hennebry (2014a) notes that a gap exists in the research on intercultural

teaching in the context of schools, while international research abounds where Higher Education contexts are considered. Even where research exists, there is also much debate however as to whether research in the field of intercultural awareness within the language teaching and learning paradigm is applied at classroom level (Baker, 2015). This view is shared by Lázár (2007) who acknowledges the gap in current empirical evidence relating to the place of culture in language teaching and learning.

In a study on the perceptions of teachers in Denmark and the United Kingdom, Byram and Risager (1999) identified a growing importance given to ICC in the European context, and changing attitudes in their learners owing to improved opportunities for interaction across cultures through travel. Interestingly, while Danish teachers favoured a realistic representation of the target culture, British teachers favoured a more positive stance. Byram and Risager also found that little place was given to learners' self-reflection on their own culture, as did Sercu (2001). Both studies also found that despite teachers acknowledging the importance of developing ICC, they tended to favour intercultural teaching centred on knowledge transmission and acquisition, in order to foster improved cultural tolerance. Sercu and Bandura (2005) also conducted a large-scale study on the role of ICC in language teaching. The study found that language teaching and learning was still widely being conceptualised in terms of linguistic skills development and communicative competence by many teachers, and where intercultural teaching was to be found, it was again with a focus primarily on knowledge acquisition rather than also including the development of intercultural skills and attitudes. It can be seen, therefore, that, in spite of language teachers' assertions that ICC is an important part of language teaching and learning which they are willing to teach, this is neither

reflected in their own definition of what language teaching and learning should be about, nor in their practice.

Following a three-year long longitudinal study involving 40 primary schools, Driscoll, Earl and Cable (2013) came to the same conclusion that where intercultural teaching was taking place, this focused mostly on the transmission of factual knowledge, that planning was not systematic, and that, while learners enjoyed intercultural experiences, learning outcomes were not consistent between learners, who were not given opportunities to reflect on their own culture, nor to compare and contrast it to that of others - a similar finding to those of Byram and Risager and Sercu and Bandura mentioned above. While intercultural teaching had a positive impact on learners' motivation, curiosity and intercultural knowledge, the wider potential of teaching intercultural understanding was not realised, mostly due to a lack of clarity on what the desired outcomes of intercultural teaching should be (Driscoll et al., 2013).

Despite the focus on intercultural understanding in policy and guidance documents, and despite a clear enthusiasm and stated commitment on the part of headteachers and teachers to foster intercultural understanding among their learners, little is done to ensure this is planned and delivered in a systematic and sustained way (Driscoll et al., 2013). There is also evidence that the place of culture within language teaching and learning is limited (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015), and that Intercultural Competence remains a low priority for language teachers (Baker, 2015; Driscoll et al., 2013).

2.4.2. Models of intercultural competence: IC and the intercultural speaker

According to Beacco et al. (2010), Intercultural Competence 'makes it easier to understand otherness, to make cognitive and affective connections between past and new experiences of otherness, mediate between members of two (or more) social groups and their cultures, and question the assumptions of one's own cultural group and environment' (Beacco et al., 2010:8).

For Hennebry, the teaching of culture through language has been applied through two distinct approaches; the teaching of 'high culture' (Hennebry, 2014a: 135), what has also been termed 'big C' culture, and Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) teaching, which, owing to globalisation needs, has received more attention and support at political and therefore policy level. The wider role of educational institutions in providing opportunities for learners to develop intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes is therefore central (Janitza, 1989; Vigneron, 2001); indeed, a focus on intercultural understanding is possible at all levels of the curriculum (Furstenberg, 2010), but should not be the sole remit of language teachers (Grenfell, 2002). As the teaching and learning of interculturality has now become a necessity, even if only for instrumental purposes, the teaching of critical intercultural skills is not only a desired outcome that educational institutions should strive for in their learners, it a duty they have to fulfil if indeed the role of teachers is to develop global citizens (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Straight, 2009).

However, despite this stated responsibility being placed on teachers, Hennebry (2014a) also argues that cultural knowledge has taken a lesser role in ICC approaches, yet should play a greater role in that knowledge is necessary in order to develop and acquire higher level intercultural communicative competence, namely

the ability to reflect critically on one's own culture as well as the culture of others. This need for criticality is also acknowledged by Byram (1997). Integrating the two approaches, Hennebry (2014a) argues, could lead to a more effective model than either of the approaches taken separately.

The seminal model for intercultural communicative competence proposed by Byram (1997) established a set of required knowledge, skills and attitudes: *savoirs, savoir-faire,* and *savoir-être*. Although some have argued that Byram's model is not easily replicable in all contexts, and that it would be weakened as a model if one were to overly focus on one element over the others (Burwitz-Melzer, 2001), the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference (2001), and subsequent National Strategy for Languages in England (DfES, 2002b) were rooted in Byram's Intercultural Competence conceptualisation and descriptors (Byram, 1989; 1997). Hennebry (2014a) reminds us that, in many countries, this is conceptualised as Intercultural Communicative Competence. Many interpretations of this model have followed; for instance, Lussier (2003) used the knowledge / know-how / being terms. Fantini (2000) further added awareness and language proficiency to define the concept of the intercultural speaker, and provided a wide range of attitudinal attributes learners should acquire or possess in order to achieve intercultural communication competence: in particular, empathy as a conscious and active willingness and ability to change one's viewpoint. It can be argued that this particular attitudinal attribute is a key one, therefore, that teachers should aim to facilitate it in order to achieve intercultural communicative competence for their learners. It must be noted however that Intercultural Competence is a process rather than an acquired attribute (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002).

In developing students' intercultural awareness and understanding, their understanding of their own culture is essential in evaluating similarities and differences, which is at the heart of the teaching and learning of culture (Boylan & Huntley, 2003; El-Hussari, 2007; Nieto, 1992; Vigneron, 2001). There is also evidence that learners can benefit from reflecting on their own culture and on taking an alternative stance when doing so, *before* investigating a particular aspect of another culture (Duffy & Mayes, 2001). The concept of 'intercultural speaker' involves both the competences of interaction and of mediation between one's own perceptions and those of others (Byram, 2008; Byram, Nichols & Stephens, 2001; Byram & Zarate, 1997; Kramsch, 1998). It is the ability to constantly shift between one's own culture and another, and in doing so of being able to have different perspectives, which represents intercultural competence (Scarino, 2010). Many contend that a content-based approach to language learning offers the learners opportunities to evaluate similarities and differences with their own language and culture, thus developing intercultural awareness and competence. (Boylan & Huntley, 2003; Coyle et al., 2010; Sudhoff, 2010). Starkey (2007) however warns of the dangers of presenting the other culture as overly and stereotypically different to learners' own. Whilst intercultural competence can sometimes be viewed as overly simplistic in their representation of otherness (Holliday, 2010), and in particular in the way in which other cultures can be narrowly represented in existing materials such as textbooks (Baker, 2015), it can be argued that teaching towards intercultural competence goals is a more 'holistic' approach to language learning than communicative models (Baker, 2015: 134). So long as a critical approach to cultural awareness is applied (Baker, 2015; Byram, 1997), it could also be argued that

simplification and selectiveness are a necessary part of teaching (Brumfit, 2001), in order to ensure accessibility to learners.

For the purpose of this study, we will define this attitudinal attribute as **intercultural understanding (ICU) -** the willingness and ability to change one's viewpoint in order to discover and understand otherness. For clarity, we will also use the term **intercultural teaching** to describe any model of teaching and learning which aims to promote intercultural understanding through the combined teaching of language and culture, in the sense previously described. In view of the difficulty of conceptualising culture and of the multitude of aspects to take into consideration when reflecting on **intercultural teaching**, we propose to redefine the three dimensions of intercultural communicative competence of knowledge, skills and understanding, as **intercultural awareness and knowledge, intercultural discursive skills,** and **intercultural willingness and understanding.** In doing so, it is felt that a more defined framework can be provided for teachers to transform learners into **intercultural speakers.**

2.5. Intercultural understanding in context(s)

2.5.1. Intercultural understanding in a European context

Alongside the globalisation phenomenon, many European countries have already situated their educational practice in existing multilingual contexts (Grenfell, 2002). Language learning has long been at the heart of the European ideal, and its central role became a focus of inquiry and policy in the mid-1990s, culminating in the White Paper *Towards a Learning Society*, establishing a joint commitment to the realisation of multilingual citizens. This European White Paper established multilingualism as a key priority, with stated expectations that learners in member states should aim to develop proficiency in three foreign languages and advocated early exposure to language teaching and learning, as well as integrated models as the best way to

achieve these stated goals (EC, 1995). Intercultural understanding is also perceived as an instrumental attribute in many European policy documents (Council of Europe, 1982; 1998; 2001; EC, 1995).

Consequently, the multilingualism policies of the European Union provided an ideal backdrop to the development of integrative approaches such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) - and the term CLIL was coined in 1996 through sustained interest and pedagogical activity in the field of bilingual education across Europe. Following this, CLIL became an umbrella term for integrative models in the mid-1990s (Marsh & Langé, 1999). CLIL firmly held its place as one of the possible innovative approaches in providing solutions to the challenge a changing society was placing on educational systems at the start of the century, and soon gained momentum at political and institutional levels in Europe (Ruiz de Zarobe & Catalán, 2009).

2.5.2. Intercultural understanding in the English educational context

There is evidence that language skills in the UK are insufficient, and that this may have a negative impact on the country's capability to successfully face global economic and societal changes (British Council, 2014; Nuffield, 2000). Yet despite this acknowledgement that English cannot be seen as a Lingua Franca, and despite repeated warnings on the lack of language capital in the UK and its potential dangers (Nuffield, 2000), there has been little priority given to translate this imperative into transformative educational policy (Coyle et al., 2010).

Yet in England, the perception that learning languages other than English has little instrumental value can be seen as a demotivating factor for Milton and Meara (1998). Milton and Meara also argued that a focus on a communicative approach can be seen as a contributing factor for the lack of motivation English learners may have for

foreign languages. They argue that, if the focus of the English curriculum for languages remains on communicative competence, the paucity of time allocated to languages (when compared to other countries in Europe) does not enable learners to achieve this to an adequate level, leading to demotivation for learners. According to Strong (2009), the place of languages in the English curriculum, whether at primary, secondary or post-secondary levels, has always been an issue of debate and often, of concern. Whilst learners may be encouraged to consider the study of languages as an important asset in most official literature, this is often not translated in the reality of learners, who are increasingly faced with conflicting pressures, insufficient curriculum time, and the perceived difficulty and/or lack of need for languages - which is sometimes also reinforced by some institutional perceptions and practices.

In addition to an increasing interest in the scope for learning languages at primary level from the mid-1980s (Dearing, 1993; DfEE, 1998; Sharpe, 1991; Sharpe & Driscoll, 2000), in 1992, the National Curriculum for Languages was introduced, making languages compulsory for all learners up to the age of 16 in England, within the framework of the 'Languages for All'. By 2004, this requirement to continue the study of a foreign language at upper secondary level was removed, and languages, although identified as an entitlement for learners, were no longer compulsory at Key Stage 4.This was followed by a marked decline in language take up. This fall in student numbers is now well documented (CILT, 2006). In order to address the decline in languages, the Languages Review (DfES, 2007) recommended improving the content matter of the secondary languages curriculum, and suggested that integrating content and language learning and teaching could provide a regain in the necessary motivation amongst language learners. There were recommendations that bilingual learning in the UK should also be implemented through a nationally

coordinated programme (Nuffield, 2000), and some larger scale pilot studies, such as the University of Nottingham's Content and Language Integration Project in collaboration with CILT (2005), emerged to investigate how CLIL methodology could be applied in the UK context.

Many have argued the link between the decline in language take-up and the removal of a requirement for learners to pursue language learning at upper secondary level (Broady, 2006; Coleman, Galaczi & Astruc, 2007; Evans, 2007; Pachler, 2002). However, for Macaro (2008), this decline occurred prior to the removal of a requirement to continue language study at upper secondary level, an idea shared by Davies (2004). For Macaro (2008), this was for the most part caused by unrealistic demands placed on teachers to deliver lessons through exclusive use of the target language, as well as the compulsion for learners to continue with a subject they may have had no inclination for or in which they perceived their chance of success was minimal. Furthermore, Macaro argued that, where intercultural understanding is concerned, forcing students to study a language may have had the opposite effect in practice (Macaro, 2008). In addition, despite an entitlement to the study of a foreign language at KS2, this has been haphazard in terms of the languages on offer, the difficulty of fitting languages provision in an already stretched curriculum, and the lack of language expertise in teachers at primary level (Hunt et al., 2009).

Many European countries have languages as a compulsory subject for children of primary schooling age (Enever, 2011). England finally followed suit in September 2014, following new statutory requirements making language learning compulsory for primary learners for the first time (DfE, 2013). This new requirement could initially be viewed as a major advance for languages in general, but also for the promotion of intercultural teaching within a policy framework, especially where the

said framework states that 'learning a foreign language is a liberation from insularity and provides an opening to other cultures' (DfE, 2013: 172). There is also evidence that successful language learning demands the development of both linguistic and intercultural competence in order for learners of all ages to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse and multilingual society in a context of globalisation (Tinsley, 2013).

However, where the scope for developing cultural awareness within language teaching is concerned, England is a 'notable exception' in its lack of curriculum flexibility, the emphasis on linguistic development and assessment, the paucity of curriculum time afforded to languages and the scarcity of quality materials available (Hennebry, 2014a: 148). It is contended that the overbearing focus of formal assessment and examinations in the four skills alone in England has resulted in educators attending to the most pressing demands, namely on the skills which ultimately carry the highest stake, leaving the culture dimension lagging behind. Whilst language teachers across a range of countries faced similar challenges, Hennebry noted that the interviews she conducted with teachers in the context of England 'strongly indicat[ed] that the problems they faced were severely compounded by a prescriptiveness of the national curriculum and national examinations, not including a cultural aspect.' (Hennebry, 2014b:147).

Alongside this, the role of Intercultural Understanding in English language policy was brought to the fore with the publication of the revised National Curriculum (DfEE, 1999) and of the National Languages Strategy (DfES, 2002b), establishing IU as a key tenet, with a focus on developing learners' curiosity, awareness and empathy towards otherness. This positive shift in policy resulted in increased funding at an unprecedented rate, in the form of initial and in-service training for

teachers, and the development of professional networks of teachers and resources (Driscoll et al., 2013). A similar focus on IU at primary level was supported by the Key Stage 2 Framework (DfES, 2005), with IU as a main strand along with Literacy and Oracy (Cable et al., 2010; Driscoll & Simpson, 2015).

In 2008, a new impetus for the integration of language and culture was provided through the new National Curriculum and revised Programmes of Study for secondary schools in England (QCA, 2007), which established intercultural understanding as one of the pillars of language teaching and learning - together with a move to add to the linguistic aims of language learning, more holistic elements such as creativity. This new National Curriculum also promoted cross-curricular approaches as a means to provide real meaning in which to situate language learning and to foster motivation and achievement.

However, the Key Stage 2 Framework was abandoned and archived in 2011, and the place of intercultural understanding in the English languages curriculum also faced a major setback when, in 2013, the new curriculum reverted to the dual stated aims of 'grammar and vocabulary' and 'linguistic competence' (DfE, 2013), placing the English foreign language policies at odds with those of other nations in the European and global contexts. Indeed, despite languages becoming compulsory for primary children, and despite the policy position statement noted earlier, Driscoll and Simpson (2015) rightfully note that this position statement is not reflected in the aims, objectives and content of the new curriculum. It is important here to note, as Kiely (2006) contends, that the divide between the intent as set out in policy standards and the reality of practice can result in the setting of standards having the opposite effect to that which they intended, particularly so where standards are either

lacking focus or where they can be seen as high-stake, and applied in a top-down framework.

Culture is also only briefly mentioned for Key Stage 3, and only as an element of linguistic competence rather than in its own right. It is indeed interesting, and we would argue concerning, to note that the new National Curriculum in England, in moving away from having intercultural understanding/competence as a core strand, is taking a contrary stance to many other European curricula and operating a radical shift to previous policy, especially when compared to the stated aims of the 2002 Languages Strategy. This shift represents, for Driscoll and Simpson (2015:15), 'a lost opportunity, particularly now, as languages are finally a legal requirement in English primary schools'.

Furthermore, as discussed previously, both languages and intercultural understanding can be perceived as instrumental attributes in the European and English contexts. Yet, as a result of the 1988 and subsequent Education Acts and Reforms, the instrumentalisation has gone further in England, with - simultaneously to the policy developments described earlier - a shift of operational values, from the business to the education sector, with performativity and managerialism at the fore (Ball, 1997). There has also been a shift in the UK towards top-down policy in many areas of the public sector, resulting in the reconceptualisation of power paradigms of the associated professions (Ball, 1996, 1997; Hoggett, 1994). Even at institutional level, the Headteacher is seen as the driver for transformation (Grace, 1995). This shift towards a performativity, utilitarian conception of education and its intended outcomes has also had an impact on the field of foreign language teaching and learning. Coupled with an existing and historic lack of interest in language learning, and with the evident loss of importance given to intercultural teaching within the

National Curriculum for Languages, the situation facing language teachers and learners in England is unprecedented. As a result, an alternative needs to be found to this unprecedented situation, with some contending that a possible solution could be found in integrative models of language teaching.

2.5.3. Integrative models of language teaching

The capacity of language to open intercultural doors can be further optimised, when developed within integrative curriculum models (Bernaus et al., 2012; Boylan & Huntley, 2003; Coyle et al., 2010).

While CLT focused mostly on instrumental and transactional considerations, integrative approaches to language teaching and learning also have long been present, with models such as Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and Bilingual Education (BE). Many of these models stemmed from the teaching and learning of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). However, whilst it is important to acknowledge that English is widespread in second language instruction within integrative models, there is growing evidence that languages other than English (LOTEs) are also becoming increasingly popular where such approaches are adopted (Coyle et al., 2010; Graddol, 2006; Grenfell, 2002).

Models for the integration of intercultural understanding with language learning have flourished around the world. Integrative models aim to marry content and language, and often feature intercultural understanding either as one of their components, or one of its founding principles and dimension. In the Council of Europe *Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education* (Beacco et al., 2010), a range of implementation models are suggested - albeit with the proviso that any particular model needs to be highly contextualised to

be successful. These models include four broad prototype frameworks, each with differing possible scenarios:

- The introduction of a foreign language at primary level, followed by a second foreign language being introduced at secondary level;

- Short vocational secondary level language courses;

- Regional languages taught from pre-primary through to upper secondary level;

- Bilingual teaching from pre-primary through to upper secondary level.

It is interesting to note the wide span implied for intercultural teaching through languages in the third and fourth model.

In this context, Canadian immersion programmes in French also became a key model of programmes integrating language and culture/content. Immersion programmes had a dual aim: to develop learners' linguistic competence, whilst improving their attitudes towards the target culture (Kearney, 2010; Peron, 2010; Sconduto, 2008). Despite initial concerns related to the perceived negative impact such approaches may have both on content and on language learning, and although immersion programmes do have their detractors, there is now a wide research base to evidence the success of Canadian immersion programmes (Navés, 2009; Swain 2000 ; Swain & Lapkin, 1982). It is worthwhile noting that Bilingual Teaching can take many forms, and it would be wrong to assume that an 'all or nothing' approach to bilingual education is either preferable or necessary, especially where many education policies will also have to contend with time and financial constraints (Beacco et al., 2010: 65). Many models of bilingual teaching are available and viable solutions in delivering intercultural teaching.

In 1997, collaborative work under the umbrella of the European Centre for Modern Languages (Council of Europe) produced a model to promote Modern Languages across the Curriculum (MLAC). MLAC centred on four key elements: real meaning; interactivity; structural understanding, and cognitive awareness, with content at its core. For Hellekjaer and Simensen (2002), 'the ideal MLAC teacher can perhaps best be described as two teachers in one: an expert on content matter ... as well as on the relevant foreign language. From the pedagogical perspective, ... the ideal MLAC teacher can perhaps best be described as having a double grounding in pedagogical content knowledge in addition to appropriate teaching experience.' (175). Grenfell (2002) argued that the rise of MLAC stemmed from concerns with the communicative approach to language teaching and learning, as well as from the success of some immersive approaches, albeit trying to apply the principles of immersive language teaching to contexts where bilingualism was not always a necessity.

2.5.4. The Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) model

For Byram (2010), the only way to go beyond the constraints faced by teachers and learners alike in achieving the intercultural dimension of language teaching and learning is to seek to realise them through CLIL curriculum models.

CLIL is not a new phenomenon, and has its roots in successful French immersion programmes in Canada, for which, as we have discussed, a broad evidence-base exists (Ruiz de Zarobe & Catalán, 2009; Marsh & Langé, 2000). Although some similarities can be drawn between CLIL and other content-language theories and practices such as CBT or immersion programmes, Coyle argues that its discriminating factor is 'the planned pedagogic integration of contextualized content,

cognition, communication and culture into teaching and learning practice' (Coyle et al., 2010:6). Moreover, although CLIL theory draws from the research base of the Canadian immersion programmes from the 1980s and 1990s, CLIL theory is first and foremost practice-informed (Coyle et al., 2010). However, although the body of literature now available on aspects of CLIL teaching and learning is growing, and despite the fact that CLIL methodology is not a new concept, CLIL practice is not widespread and can still be viewed as experimental (Hunt et al., 2009).

CLIL describes the teaching and learning of content subjects through the medium of an additional language (Coyle et al., 2010). This model is based on the symbiosis between communication, content, cognition and culture, within specific contexts (Coyle et al., 2010: 41-42) – although it is important to establish that in a CLIL approach, both the language and content have equal importance and, while the focus on one or the other will shift to meet the particular knowledge, skills and understanding being taught and learnt, the two aspects remain interdependent and have parity (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh & Langé, 1999).

The content matter in a CLIL paradigm does not have to equate to predefined curriculum subjects. What matters is that both language and content are developed for a purpose which is authentic and relevant to the particular context in which it is implemented (Coyle et al., 2010). However, Humanities subjects are often perceived as the best content subject areas for CLIL implementation, and citizenship education is often presented as an ideal vehicle for content- language integrated models of curriculum, through the way in which they already offer opportunities for reflection on otherness and differing perspectives (Byram, 2010; Wolff, 2002). For Grenfell (2002), technological and scientific subject content should not be disregarded, as these will often provide less ambiguous concepts as well as a strong potential for

instrumental motivation. In addition, Pérez-Vidal (2002) states that students should have some ownership in the selection of content in order to maintain motivation.

2. 6. Benefits of CLIL models

CLIL approaches present many of the attributes of what most would describe as constituting good teaching and learning practice. For Wiesemes (2009), CLIL approaches offer benefits on three levels: at the level of the learner, motivation is improved through increased challenge, and competence in the content subject(s) is developed along with proficiency in the foreign language and the development of learning and cognitive skills. At the level of the teachers (of both language and content), pedagogy is enhanced and motivation is also improved through wider collegial opportunities; and at the level of the educational institution, opportunities for cross-collaboration are established (Wiesemes, 2009).

2.6.1. Motivation

Motivation is often cited as one of the main benefits of models integrating content and language such as CLIL (Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001b; Grenfell, 2002; Marsh & Langé, 2000; Madjarova et al., 2001; Phipps, 2001).The integration of content and language may in itself propose a motivational element to learners who may have had an otherwise negative attitude towards one or the other (Coyle et al., 2010).

In addition, although CLIL instruction exposure can be offered to learners for a significant proportion of their curriculum time, even 'a small amount of CLIL can go a long way towards improving a youngster's hunger, willingness and capability to learn both other languages, and other subject matter' (Marsh & Langé, 2000:6).

A key feature of CLIL classrooms is also the way in which it replicates, at classroom level, the Knowledge Triangle of education, research and innovation through active learner participation. CLIL therefore promotes a learner-centred approach, and feature a range of collaborative tasks (Coyle et al., 2010).

Whilst motivation is a widely acknowledged benefit, certain aspects must be considered:

- Content needs to be perceived as relevant to learners in order to maintain affective and/or instrumental motivation (Grenfell, 2002; van Essen, 2002).

- There is a need to scaffold both linguistic and cognitive skills, to maintain learners' motivation (Hellekjaer & Simensen, 2002).

- Gender must be considered, as there is evidence that this plays a part in learners' motivation for language learning, including through CLIL approaches, with girls often demonstrating higher levels of motivation (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009).

CLIL models do not, however, offer benefits to learners alone; teachers can and do benefit through the revitalisation of their practice, expertise and interests (Wiesemes, 2009). In addition, teachers' motivation can be improved through the increased opportunities for cross-curricular cooperation, professional dialogue and collegiality that models such as CLIL require. Indeed, CLIL models can offer an opportunity for both teachers and learners to establish connections between the traditionally separate subject areas; as a result, CLIL models can also have benefits in improving teaching and learning cohesion within schools, and should be encouraged (Coyle et al., 2010; Pérez-Vidal, 2002), especially as teaching intercultural understanding goes beyond the classroom and cannot, and should not be the sole remit of language teachers (Springer, 2002; Straight, 2009).

This responsibility also extends beyond the school gates: the role of family is indeed essential in learners' acquisition and understanding of their own culture, as well as in the transmission of attitudes towards others. Parents have a significant role to play in terms of the transmission of knowledge, attitudes and skills, and have therefore a central part in the sustained transmission and development of (inter)cultural awareness and understanding (Kawashima & Conteh, 2008; Lloyd-Smith & Baron, 2010). As a result, where CLIL models are implemented, it is important to inform learners and their parents on the benefits and processes associated with such an approach (Coyle et al., 2010). In doing so, CLIL models could offer an opportunity for increased cooperation between educational institutions such as schools and parents/carers.

However, it could also be argued that CLIL practice is still over-reliant on the good will of ground-level stakeholders (Coyle et al., 2010). Mughan (1999) also makes an important point, in that the willingness of language teachers to take responsibility for the teaching of intercultural competence should not be taken for granted, and that if they were indeed prepared to do so, they should be equipped with the right level of skills and commitment to take on the challenge of intercultural teaching. Nonetheless, the potential to develop collegiality across curriculum areas, through shared expertise, planning, and teaching of both content and language exists and should be encouraged.

2.6.2. Linguistic competence

In addition to motivation, some argue that CLIL models can also foster the improvement of learners' linguistic competence. In order to achieve successful content and learning integration, general education theories - steeped in the influence of socio-cultural constructivist theorists such as Piaget and Vygotsky - must be

considered along theories in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Coyle et al., 2010). Indeed, although most of the research base on the benefits of CLIL models stem from the field of SLA, some of the key benefits include increased exposure to the target language, and the opportunity for learners to develop linguistic skills in a more naturalistic environment, as reported from a range of empirical studies (Admiraal, Westhoff & de Bot, 2006; Airey, 2009; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Dalton-Puffer & Nikula, 2006; Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008; Boylan & Huntley, 2003; Lasagabaster, 2008).

However, it is also important to note that there is to date still insufficient evidence that CLIL approaches provide learners with improved performance in aspects of target language learning, as argued by a number of authors (del Puerto, Lecumberri & Lacabex, 2009; Villarreal & García Mayo, 2009). In particular, Mughan argues that the development of intercultural skills is dependent on the level of linguistic proficiency of the learners, and contends that not only may a higher level of linguistic competence be necessary for learners to access certain aspects of the target culture, but also that the integration of culture with language learning may slow the linguistic development processes (Mughan, 1998, 1999). However, many also contend that there is no need for learners to have acquired advanced levels of linguistic competence in order to be able to access intercultural learning (Duffy & Mayes, 2001).

2.6.3. Cognitive competence and challenge

Regardless of the choice of stance taken when considering the potential benefits of CLIL models on learners' linguistic competence, it is important to situate a chosen CLIL model within a cognitive and knowledge framework, and to acknowledge that

learners' linguistic competence is likely to be less developed than their cognitive skills (Coyle et al., 2010).

Language acquisition involves the development of cognitive processes (Cummins, 1984; Cummins & Swain, 1986). In addition, the level of cognitive challenge is essential for successful learning (Coyle et al., 2010; Cummins, 1984; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007; Grenfell, 2002; Smith & Paterson, 1998). One of the key benefits of CLIL approaches is to provide learners with opportunities to develop their cognitive competence through processes of conceptualisation (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 2009; Marsh & Langé, 2000). However, whilst there is a need to provide learners with sufficient cognitive challenge, and while CLIL models will often provide this for learners at an age-appropriate level, linguistic progression needs to be scaffolded to avoid demotivation. (Coyle et al., 2010), especially as learners' linguistic competence will normally be situated at a lower level to that of a native speaker of the same age.

In the same way as it is important to challenge learners, it is also essential to ensure that the learning environment is one which promotes the early use of language learnt, regardless of proficiency or accuracy levels, as successful communication is not necessarily reliant on either of these traditionally accepted standards of 'successful' language learning. Marsh and Langé (2000:7) go as far as labelling these accepted standards of accuracy and proficiency as 'myths' which we ought to dispel in the interest of our learners.

2.6.4. Intercultural competence

For Campos (2009), CLIL methodology may prove more successful in developing students' cultural understanding than snippets of explicit cultural teaching, a view also shared by Bernaus and colleagues (2012). In addition, Sudhoff notes that,

although the role of all curriculum subjects is acknowledged as contributing to the development of learners' own culture, CLIL classes offer the 'added dimension' of interculturality by offering differing perspective on a wide range of topics (Sudhoff, 2010:33). In addition to this, CLIL models also offer learners the opportunity to address a wide range of differing cultures; indeed, as Mughan (1999) states, developing a learner's intercultural competence by giving them the required tools to approach a wide range of other cultures successfully and confidently goes beyond their knowledge, understanding and skills in dealing with a set, single target culture; for Arens (2010:322), the scope of intercultural learning can describe such competencies in the plural, as 'a set of interlocking cultural literacies' which must serve to move the purpose of the curriculum beyond the linguistic and towards the cultural.

However, El-Hussari (2007) also suggests that the complex make-up of a wide range of potentially differing sets of beliefs within the four walls of a classroom poses a challenge when attempting to develop intercultural understanding. For Kearney (2010), this view that language classrooms can offer a poor environment for cultural immersion experiences is widespread, and in order to make intercultural learning possible in the language classroom, we must reflect on 'learners' experiences and the depth of their engagement with language and culture' (Kearney, 2010: 333).

2. 7. Implementing CLIL models - constraints and issues

It has been argued that intercultural teaching would benefit learners, teachers and schools alike, and that a CLIL approach is one way of achieving this. As we have discussed, societies are now multilingual, and invariably this will mean that in most classrooms, some learners will already be learning in a second, third or even a fourth language and will already be involved in intercultural interaction (Campos, 2009;

Tucker, 1999). One could therefore argue that curriculum models involving an intercultural dimension should be the norm in order to cater for the diverse audiences of learners across educational institutions, and that a renewed impetus is needed to ensure that this finally happens in practice, and not only in isolated practices. Some further argue that the teaching of critical intercultural skills is not only a desired outcome that educational institutions should strive for in their learners, it a duty they have to fulfil (Aktor & Risager, 2001).

2.7.1. Constraints

2.7.1.1. Time constraints

In England, learners have as little as half to a third of the learning time spent on languages by their European counterparts (Milton &Meara, 1998). Baker (2015) also notes that time constraints within the classroom are one of the main cited obstacles in the implementation of intercultural teaching. For Milton and Meara (1998), this is due to the fact that learners do not have sufficient time to apply what they have learned, a view echoed by Beacco and colleagues (2010). In addition, there is a marked lack of proportionality between the time spent learning languages in the classroom, and the opportunities for real-life use in later life, which can lead to disappointment and a loss of validity for the whole language learning process (Marsh & Langé, 2000).

This is a challenge both for learners and teachers (Boylan & Huntley, 2003; Byram, 2008; Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh & Langé, 2000). In this context, the use of integrative approaches such as CLIL can be seen as a solution to the time constraints placed on the curriculum (Pérez-Vidal, 2002; van Essen, 2002). This is because CLIL represents a flexible and contextualised approach, and in the same way that the flow between content and language is central to this approach, so is the flow between

theories and practices (Coyle, 2007; Wiesemes, 2009). This flow, coupled with the parity between content/language and theories/practices, represents true integration, which in turn, offers true potential for transformative curriculum models.

Nonetheless, the limited amount of curriculum time devoted to languages in the curriculum, as well as restrictive material sources such as textbooks, can have a limiting effect on the integration of language and content, and are important aspects to consider if the teaching of culture is not to be yet one more imposition on an already stretched curriculum and teaching profession (Coyle et al., 2010; Mughan, 1999).

2.7.1.2. Policy constraints

Practice and policy may be far removed from each other, but one cannot be separated from the other (Ball, 1997; Grenfell, 2002). Despite practitioners' best intents, they have to comply with policy within their local and national settings and contexts, and therefore limitations to a particular pedagogy can be posed by policy.

The place of languages in regional, national and global contexts is often highly politicised, and can be the source of high-stake policy considerations. Policy is also often concerned with efficiency, and this creates a tension between the values we attach to education and what Educational policy represents in reality (Ball, 1997; Coyle et al., 2010; Grenfell, 2002).

2.7.2. Issues

In planning for change in schools as institutions, and in particular when considering the implementation of CLIL models, teacher attributes and perceptions need to be taken into account, as well as the learners and context in which this is to be applied. Although successful teaching requires careful planning, it is also argued that 'no teacher can have or anticipate all the knowledge which learners might at some point

need' (Byram et al., 2001:6). This is especially true of intercultural teaching, due to the many variables which will be brought to the classroom by the learners, the teacher(s), the context as well as the aspects of culture (and language) being the focus of instruction at any given moment.

2.7.2.1. Importance of teacher awareness of the concept of culture

Teachers need to have an understanding of the processes involved in developing language proficiency (Coyle et al., 2010). Furthermore, integrating culture into a syllabus requires the teacher to develop intercultural awareness, understanding and skills in their learners, whilst taking into account their own cultural paradigm (Boylan & Huntley, 2003; Cakir, 2006; Campos, 2009; Graves, 1996; Saniei, 2012).

The role of the language teacher has dramatically changed, away from the simple transmission of linguistic knowledge and capability, towards the role of facilitator of learning and intercultural mediator (Furstenberg, 2010; Huhn, 2012; Shrum & Glisan, 2010). The integration of intercultural experiences in the teaching and learning in foreign language education places a new responsibility on language educators at all levels, and gives them a key role in the internationalisation of the curriculum and therefore, of their students (Byram, 2008; Gehlhar, 2009; Goodman, 2009; Madjarova et al., 2001).

However, while the need to teach intercultural understanding forms part of many language teachers' beliefs, and while most generally acknowledge its importance in language teaching and learning (Byram et al., 2001; Byram & Risager, 1999; Sercu & Bandura, 2005), this is rarely achieved in practice (Byram et al., 2001; Grenfell, 2002).

2.7.2.2. Issues of teachers' identity and teachers' professional practice

Innovation and change can often be seen as a threat to existing practices and beliefs, and this is no different where educators and educational institutions are concerned. The advent of CLIL invariably raises issues of identity for the teaching profession, as well as a rethinking of both language and content education and the way in which these are organised and delivered at all levels of educational systems; consequently, the need to provide tangible evidence of the benefits of CLIL both in research and in practice to all stakeholders, including those on the 'educational frontline', is of the utmost importance (Marsh, in Ruiz de Zarobe & Catalán, 2009).

Nonetheless, whilst change and innovation can be seen as a threat, and policy as an imposition, especially in a time of fast educational change and conflicting pressures, they can also offer teachers an opportunity to rethink and redefine their practice and profession (Coyle et al., 2010). Therefore, teachers' adaptability is also a key factor in implementing innovative methodology and in maintaining learner motivation (Beacco et al., 2010; Coyle et al., 2010; Hellekjaer & Simensen, 2002; Simpson, 1997).

In addition, developing learners' intercultural competence can be seen as an additional demand on already busy teachers, in particular, if policy makers were making this responsibility a requirement. Yet unless intercultural competence is integrated in formal assessment, some argue that there is little (instrumental) motivation for teachers and learners to take it as seriously as linguistic and communicative competence acquisition (Aktor & Risager, 2001).

However, there is a need for stakeholder support in order for CLIL methodology implementation to be successful in developing learners' intercultural understanding, and for the implementation to be sustainable and replicable. This includes a need for

institutional and administrative support (Navés & Muñoz, 1999; Straight, 2009; Wiesemes, 2009). As a result, in the same way that teacher attributes are to be considered in the delivery of CLIL programmes, school or institution attributes are also a key factor: It takes a certain degree of commitment, innovation and risk-taking on the part of stakeholders at all levels to 'dare' to implement educational approaches that are neither widespread nor structured within a wider framework (Wiesemes, 2009).

2.7.2.3. Issues of teacher training for intercultural teaching

There is a wide range of literature arguing for the need to provide teachers with both Initial Teacher Training and ongoing professional development to support them in implementing integrative models successfully (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Beacco et al., 2010; Hellekjaer & Simensen, 2002; Navés, 2009; Pérez-Vidal, 2002; Springer, 2002; Wiesemes, 2009). In fact, many advocate that teachers aiming to deliver integrative models should gain expertise in the language, the content *and* methodological principles of CLIL (Wiesemes, 2009; Wolff, 2002). Teachers should also experience the process of acquiring intercultural competency, and Grenfell (2002) advocates that the key to achieving this is through teacher mobility and through the transferability of teaching qualifications across countries, whilst still preserving national professional identities and contexts. This would provide opportunities for international and intercultural collaboration.

The demands being placed on teacher training in order to meet the needs of future CLIL teachers can only be realised with institutional support. Changes in teacher training in order to meet these demands are seen as urgent, but may not be realised without institutional and policy support (Coyle et al., 2010). Although the link between teaching quality and student outcomes is widely accepted, and despite a

focus on student outcomes in many contexts and for the majority of stakeholders, research on the relationship between teacher training and student outcomes is still scarce, and a possible reflection of the lack of importance attached to the issue (Huhn, 2012).

However, teacher training providers have identified the need to adapt their programs to take into account the new accepted dimensions of language teaching and learning in a globalisation context (Huhn, 2012); some higher education institutions have developed programmes to train teachers in delivering Languages Across the Curriculum (Klee, 2009). There are encouraging initiatives taking place in some teacher training institutions to develop the knowledge and skills of would-be teachers in delivering an integrated curriculum (Hunt et al., 2009). Quality assurance processes will need to be put in place to meet the growing importance of CLIL in teacher training and ongoing professional learning (Coyle et al., 2010).

2.7.2.4. The use of target language in CLIL approaches

Although increased exposure to the target language is identified as a potential benefit of CLIL models, it is however interesting to note that, for Jones and Jones (2002), the poor performance of boys in modern languages can be attributed to the over-use of target language in lessons, and to the emphasis on the development of linguistic skills at the expense of other dimensions of language learning, including content matter. This can result in a perception on their part that languages are difficult when compared with other subjects - a finding also for Davies (2004) - and are neither relevant, nor useful. Furthermore, in considering the use of target language, Beacco et al. (2010) note that, whilst it is acknowledged that certain aspects of discourse or culture are language-specific, the use of learners' first language can also be seen as

preferable in situations where they need to fully express their views and thoughts (Beacco et al., 2010).

This makes the use of the target language an important consideration for intercultural teaching, especially when we take into account that, in England, the gap in performance between boys and girls has now long been acknowledged both in research and by the government, and is a significant issue of focus for all teachers, and one of the many performative measures against which schools across the country are judged and compared against each other. There is further evidence that this gap is even more apparent in modern languages (Barton, 2002; Davies, 2004; Jones & Jones, 2002; Nuffield, 2000).

2.7.2.5. Representations of diversity

The implementation of intercultural teaching can be fraught with complexities which relate back to the problematic issue of defining culture in the first instance, as discussed previously. As a result, there are ethical considerations when introducing intercultural teaching. Aside from the necessary reflection on the part of the teacher on the intrinsic bias they may bring because of their own identity and culture, it is also important to understand that the aim of intercultural teaching is not to change learners' values, but rather to facilitate the development of their intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes (Byram et al., 2001; Byram, 2008; Campos, 2009; Doyé, 1995). In developing interculturality, the learners should not seek to replicate the 'native' speaker as a decontextualised and impersonal model (Byram et al., 2001; Kramsch, 1998; Pennycook, 2014).

Culture is, in essence, as diverse as the people who perceive it, and this must be taken into account when attempting to provide learners with a cultural experience (Bernaus et al., 2012; Boylan & Huntley, 2003). It is important for intercultural

teaching to go beyond stereotypes and to represent the diversity of cultures to be explored (Aktor & Risager, 2001). This consideration will need to be kept at the forefront and, when introducing a CLIL model, teachers may be wise to remind learners that any insight into culture is but a perspective. Baker (2011) also contends that, in developing intercultural competence, learners need to be aware not only of the diversity which exists in the target culture, but also in the target languages uses. Whilst Baker acknowledges that this is increasingly being recognised in materials developed for the purpose of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL), it can also be noted that little evidence exists that this is yet demonstrated in materials developed for teaching Languages Other than English (LOTEs).

 In addition, as language and culture are interdependent, the introduction of another language as a vehicle for education can be perceived as a threat to learners' own beliefs and values (Byram, 2008; Coyle et al., 2010). Introducing interculturality through a comparison of similarities may prove a useful means to address this (Saniei, 2012).

2.7.2.6. Which learners for CLIL?

It is important for CLIL to be implemented at various levels and in different educational contexts in order for smaller-scale changes to have a more widespread transformational impact (Coyle et al., 2010; Mehisto, 2008).

Yet issues of equal opportunities where plurilingual education is concerned are also often raised, at least historically; for instance, there is evidence that Languages are perceived as a difficult subject only suitable for the few (Graham, 2004). In many contexts, CLIL approaches are introduced for the more able; yet there is much scope for the development of models such as CLIL when aimed towards lower ability learners, in particular where motivation factors are considered (Coyle et al., 2010).

It is also often argued that primary education may lend itself well to the more naturalistic integration of language and content learning. Singleton and Ryan (2004) argue that early language learning capitalises on learners' natural attributes, their motivation, and provides scope for learning to take place over a longer period of time, thus improving learners' end level of linguistic competence. The motivational benefits of early exposure to language learning have also been demonstrated by Blondin and colleagues (1998) and Sharpe and Driscoll (2000). There also exists some evidence to show that younger learners may develop better speaking and listening skills (Blondin et al., 1998; Krashen, Scarcella & Long, 1979; Long, 1990; Singleton & Ryan, 2004). Furthermore, there is evidence that learners can identify with their own national cultural group(s) and form national stereotypes at a very young age (Barrett, 2005), and that these early established views are less likely to shift when compared to those developed at a later age (Jenkins, 2014). It would therefore seem essential that some form of intercultural teaching should occur at primary age (Driscoll et al., 2013; Hawkins, 1981).

Although there are limitations to primary learners' scope for linguistic proficiency, their opportunities to encounter otherness exist and should be fostered, including within their own homes and school communities (Cable et al., 2010; Driscoll et al., 2013). This view is also shared by Byram and Doyé (1999), who argue that many aspects of intercultural competence can be developed in a primary context. Indeed, when intercultural teaching is considered, rather than limiting potential gains in terms of language acquisition, there remains much value for extending the learning of languages to primary level learners (Sharpe & Driscoll, 2000). Indeed, there is some evidence to show that learners, by being exposed to language learning at an earlier age, can develop increased openness to others (Gangl, 1997). Furthermore,

Hawkins (1981) suggested that the ability to show empathy towards others, especially where boys are concerned, tends to decline once learners reach adolescent age, and it could therefore be argued that intercultural teaching would be better delivered at primary level.

Language Awareness is one of the approaches adopted for intercultural teaching at primary level in some contexts. It is often argued that such an approach can be particularly suited to primary learners by offering them opportunities to develop an understanding about their own and other languages, with a focus on developing an ability to compare and contrast a wide range of languages rather than developing linguistic competence in a single language, which in turn can provide a firm foundation for future language and intercultural learning (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015; Hawkins, 1984). Indeed, positive outcomes in terms of linguistic and intercultural competence development have been reported (Candelier, 2003). In addition, this approach would also require less curriculum time than a programme centred on linguistic acquisition, and as such could prove a suitable solution to the often cited time constraints imposed on the languages curriculum in many schools (Driscoll, 2003).

Recruiting teachers with the necessary skills to deliver intercultural teaching is a challenge (Driscoll et al., 2013; Wade, Marshall & O'Donnell, 2009). Although Pérez-Vidal (2002) attributes the increasing application of CLIL methodology in primary settings to the perceived advantage which primary teachers may have over their secondary colleagues, owing to their better understanding of a wide range of curriculum subjects, Driscoll and Simpson (2015) note that primary teachers have limited, if any, experience of foreign cultures, as many would not have had the opportunity or need to live abroad as part of their degree-level education. As a result,

they may lack the necessary expertise required for in-depth intercultural teaching (Beacco et al., 2010; Sharpe & Driscoll, 2000). Driscoll, Earl and Cable (2013) also note that teachers have not yet capitalised on the opportunity to draw on the cultural diversity of their learners at primary level, failing to take the opportunity that this readily available source of intercultural learning offers. Driscoll and Simpson (2015) advocate capitalising on learners' own intercultural experiences, developing further existing whole-school events and identifying key cultural themes which could be at the core of cross-curricular planning. However, they also note that such a cross-curricular approach to intercultural teaching, although supported by curriculum policy documents, can only be possible if teachers receive relevant initial as well as continuing in-service training.

In addition, other practical constraints must be factored in when considering the most suitable learners for intercultural teaching approaches such as CLIL: curriculum time afforded to language learning in primary schools is very limited (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015; Wade et al., 2009). This is also accompanied by a lack of funding for primary languages, challenges regarding primary teachers' expertise and well-documented issues of transition between primary and secondary language learning (Beacco et al., 2010; Sharpe & Driscoll, 2000).

Whilst primary level learners can be suited to CLIL instruction owing to its more naturalistic approach, there is also an argument for its benefits to be fully realised at secondary level, as learners will possess more advanced linguistic and cognitive skills (Coyle et al., 2010). In order to be successful, Sharpe and Driscoll (2000) contend that early language teaching must take into account the cognitive maturity of learners, rather than base its practice on secondary level models.

When considering this, the pressures of examination systems on both teachers and learners, and the lower levels of linguistic and cognitive skills at primary level, may make the lower-secondary learners ideal beneficiaries of a CLIL approach (Coyle et al., 2010). Macaro (2008) therefore contends that increasing language teaching time in Year 7 to a minimum of five hours per week would ensure the rapid progress needed at KS3 in order to maintain learner motivation and their level of competence, especially where lack of progress is seen as a key cause of demotivation, in particular amongst boys, including in the early stages of secondary education (Davies, 2004).

The view that lower-secondary learners would make the most suited CLIL audience is also shared by Barton (2001), who notes that there is evidence suggesting that, while girls' attitudes towards language learning does not decrease significantly between KS3 and KS4, boys' attitudes, already less positive than girls' at KS3, decrease even further at KS4. This gender/age concern is also supported by Davies (2004), and in light of the particular context of the English curriculum, where –as we have previously discussed- issues of gender and performance are key considerations, gives further strength to the argument for developing further the intercultural teaching which takes place at Key Stage 3.

2.7.2.7. Should intercultural understanding be assessed? And if so, how?

Even where intercultural competence is mentioned in policy documents, this too often is accompanied by insufficient or inefficient practice, both at classroom and institutional levels. The same could be said for the place which is afforded - or not - to intercultural competence in assessment and examination frameworks (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Byram, et al., 2001; Chien, 2013; Duffy & Mayes, 2001).

This is true in particular in England where, after a brief feature in the National Curriculum, the requirement to teach the intercultural dimension simply disappeared

from policy documents. Awarding bodies currently have little incentive to innovate as far as offering models for the assessment of intercultural competence, especially as what needs to be assessed remains unclear, and where no demand exists at policy level (Beacco et al., 2010).

Even where intercultural objectives are present in policy documents, there still is a gap between the stated intercultural objectives of the syllabi at all levels, and the requirements (or lack of) placed on learners to demonstrate their intercultural competence within established assessment frameworks, and therefore, practices (Duffy & Mayes, 2001). Despite the role of culture as one of the four pillars of a CLIL approach, assessment is also a key issue in CLIL and the difficulty of finding a suitable model to assess intercultural competence is one which is often cited as one of the major challenges for teachers (Coyle et al., 2010; Scarino, 2010; Short, 1993).

Whilst teachers remain at the centre of the assessment process, especially where the linguistic competence is concerned, well planned collaborative and self-assessment can also contribute to this process and can add a valuable dimension (Coyle et al., 2010). In reflecting the central role of the teacher in the learning process, evaluation of CLIL courses should include a teacher dimension (Coyle et al., 2010: 145). However, Furstenberg (2010) contends that other tools need to be found, whilst ensuring that the teacher does not remain the sole evaluator.

Beacco and colleagues (2010) argue that, in assessing intercultural communicative competence, while rigorous summative assessment may be possible, most assessment should be formative and involve the learner. This is especially important as the perception that learners have of assessment differs considerably from current assessment practices, in that learners do not equate grades in external examinations to the successful acquisition of language nor to proficiency levels, as discussed by

Graham (2004). This divorce in perception, in an educational system reliant on high stakes, national testing makes the issue of assessment in CLIL context ever more complex yet essential to address, if learners are to recognise the validity and worth of assessment methods and materials used (Coyle et al., 2010).

For this reason, assessing intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes should be an ongoing, dynamic and reflective process for learners (and teachers), and not limit itself to the evaluation of whether learners have acquired and are able to recall factual knowledge about the target culture(s) (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Chien, 2013; Coyle et al., 2010; Scarino, 2010). Therefore, although assessment in CLIL contexts shares many of the features of good assessment practice, it will also need to go beyond the assessment of linguistic outcomes, and to take into account both performance evidence and affective evidence, and the dynamic, progressive nature of the learning taking place (Coyle et al., 2010).

For Pérez-Vidal (2002), assessment should be a combination of summative (for checking knowledge gained) and formative (in applying skills and demonstrating attitudes). Indeed, competence is increasingly seen as 'an amalgamation of knowledge and skills' (Coyle et al., 2010: 156). It could be argued, therefore, that a formative, collaborative and non-competitive method of assessment may be more suited than summative, individual and high stake traditional methods in evaluating the outcomes of intercultural teaching and learning (Coyle et al., 2010; Grant & Dweck, 2003; Scarino, 2010). The value of formative assessment has long been established (Ames & Ames, 1984; Black &Wiliam, 1998; Bloom, 1968; Cohen, 1994; Dweck, 1986). Some have even argued that, if ongoing formative evaluation is embedded in the teaching and learning processes, and in the materials and tasks used, designing a separate summative assessment task may not be necessary (Coyle et al.,

2010; Short, 1993). Regular use of formative assessment will inform the learning and teaching, and in turn support improved summative outcomes (Coyle et al., 2010: 113).

Rigorous assessment and a degree of standardisation will also be necessary to provide tangible and credible evidence, and therefore validity, to the benefits of CLIL methodology to learners' knowledge, skills and understanding, when compared with their peers in non-CLIL settings (Coyle et al., 2010; Navés, 2009). In addition, unless intercultural competence is integrated in formal assessment, there is little (instrumental) motivation for teachers and learners to give intercultural learning parity with linguistic and communicative competence acquisition (Aktor & Risager, 2001). This leads Byram to contend that, in order to be widely accepted and implemented, and therefore/but also to meet its goals, the 'cultural dimension of foreign language teaching needs to fulfil purposes that are both educational and utilitarian' (Byram, 2010: 319-320). Therefore, there is a need to find a suitable model of assessment if the perceived benefits of intercultural teaching are to gain validity, and to meet the requirements of educational institutions and systems (Coyle et al., 2010; Hammer & Swaffar, 2012; Norris, 2006; Scarino, 2010). However, if intercultural understanding is to become a requirement in curricula and formal assessment frameworks, there needs to be further training for teachers on how this is to be conceptualised and taught (Aktor & Risager, 2001).

As a result, a common framework of assessment for CLIL needs to be established (Grenfell, 2002; Mughan, 1999), and can draw from existing frameworks of assessment for intercultural understanding such as the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which can be a useful starting point for establishing criterion rather than norm-referenced model of assessment, and which is

a recognised model enabling comparability of outcomes (Coyle et al., 2010; Wolff, 2002). In recommending the use of the CEFR descriptors, Beacco contends that traditional levels should be replaced with 'competence profiles' as a more accurate and personalised reflection of a learner's learning, and that these profiles should be contextualised (Beacco et al., 2010: 9).

As far as considering which form this assessment should take, a portfolio of work would provide the most suitable model of assessment. This could provide a viable solution in high-stake systems of assessment and testing, and also one which is more likely to have credibility and worth amongst teachers and learners alike (Byram, 1997; Coyle et al., 2010; Short, 1993). The European Language Passport is an example of an individualised profile recognising learners' linguistic skills for specific purposes, at a wide range of proficiency levels and in a range of languages, including their own (Coyle et al., 2010). Beacco and colleagues (2010) also propose the European Language Portfolio for plurilingual competence and the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters for the intercultural dimension as possible models.

2.8. Identifying suitable CLIL materials

2.8.1. Using existing commercial materials

Cullen and Sato (2000) found that many teaching materials are identified in the literature as potential support for the teaching of culture. In the same way that teaching materials are placed at the core of successful teaching and learning, they are also perceived as essential to the effective teaching of intercultural understanding (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Jones, 1995; Swarbrick, 2002; Tomalin & Stempleski, 2013; Ur, 1996). However, as noted by Aktor and Risager (2001), the lack of availability of materials which combine linguistic and intercultural elements is also widely reported – a finding also for Coyle and colleagues (2010) and Navés (2009).

Nonetheless, for Boylan and Huntley (2003), cultural exposition to the target language's media, literature and customs has a central role to play in teaching culture in the context of language teaching and learning.

2.8.2. Use of textbooks

As Rivers (1981) points out, textbook use is still central to many a language classroom's practices. However, textbooks are often seen as lacking both in depth and breadth of exposure to cultural aspects, and teachers will often need to supplement with a range of other materials in order to fill the gap (Madjarova et al., 2001; Pulverness, 2003; Saniei, 2012). The limitations of textbooks in contributing to the development of students' intercultural awareness are many; for Genc and Bada (2005), these relate to the inability to situate the target culture in realistic contexts, a view echoed by Kitao (Kitao, 2000, as cited in Genc & Bada, 2005). Genc and Bada also found that textbooks can impede on students' linguistic progress and their perception of the difficulty of the process of learning the language.

2.8.3. Using authentic materials

2.8.3.1. Use of video and film

The value of films and television programs in teaching another culture is widely acknowledged, in their ability to provide suitable and relevant models of communication and an engaging insight into 'otherness', and therefore in promoting motivation and intercultural understanding in students (Duffy & Mayes, 2001; Gross, 2007; Hammer & Swaffar, 2012; Kasper & Singer, 2001; Stephens, 2001). In addition, the use of film has also been linked to the affective and cognitive dimensions of cultural learning (Fox, 1994; Lonergan, 1990; Straub, 2002).

Hammer and Swaffar (2012) found that repeated exposure to authentic (video) materials had a beneficial effect both in terms of students' intercultural awareness

and their ability to evaluate the target culture against their own. However, despite some positive findings, they express a range of reservations: namely, that the use of different materials may lead to different outcomes; that replicability would have to be ensured in order to generalise findings; and that further investigation was necessary to confirm their view that authentic materials devised for a native audience were best to help students develop (inter)cultural competency (Hammer & Swaffar, 2012).

2.8.3.2. Use of literature

When considering the use of literature in developing learners' intercultural understanding, it is important to take a wide definition of text materials which goes beyond literary texts (Coyle et al., 2010; Kearney, 2010). Different genres are also useful to consider in offering a wide range of representations of the 'other' culture; for instance, for Obergfell (1983), fairy tales form an inherent part of a society's culture, and as such provide a suitable and important source of material for the teaching of the target culture.

Reeser (2003) argues that culture can be conceptualised through literary texts. For Lázár (2007), culture permeates all texts, in the same way that it does with language and discourse. She goes on to ask, therefore, why more is not made of the culturally-rich resources that literary texts represent.

An issue frequently raised is that of the perceived level of difficulty, especially where linguistic competence of learners is concerned, when accessing literary texts. Lázár (2007) also notes that, while teachers and learners have recourse to films and music more readily when planning for cultural exposure in lessons, literary texts, when suitably selected, adapted and used as a 'springboard' for carefully scaffolded tasks, can provide a wealth of insights into the target culture as well as its language.

This notion of scaffolding is further developed by Kearney (2010), who reminds us that in using texts as a tool for developing intercultural understanding, both learners and teachers need support: learners through the use of carefully scaffolded tasks, and teachers in how to best design these to benefit their students.

2.8.3.3. Use of online materials and the Internet

Many agree that the potential for new technologies to both increase motivation and intercultural opportunities for learners should be considered and utilised (Berwald, 1986; Coyle et al., 2010; Deneme, Ada & Uzun, 2011; Driscoll & Simpson, 2015; Furstenberg, 2010; Gano & Garrett, 2004; Klee, 2009; Springer, 2002; Sudhoff, 2010; Zielke et al., 2009). In addition, the use of technology can offer an easy to access, rich source of materials to whet students' appetite for finding more about the target countries and culture (Coyle et al., 2010).

While educational change is notoriously slow to come about, when we take into account the pace of change in today's globalised, technological age, educators will need to adapt and will have to pick up the pace to meet the demands of our learners and societies (Coyle et al., 2010).

However, Furstenberg (2010) argues that the use of technology in the classroom requires clear guidance, from making students aware of the suitability of materials accessed, their reliability and in training them on how to make the information their own. In considering this, Huhn (2012) further contends that the use of technology should be seen as an essential dimension to include in teacher training programmes, and Klee (2009) goes as far as positing technology as a key factor in securing the future of language courses, in particular in higher education and through distance-learning.

2.8.3.4. Suitability and availability of authentic materials

Many advocate that authentic materials should form the main or only source for the teaching of intercultural understanding in language lessons, and in particular in lessons framed within an integrative paradigm such as CLIL (Coyle et al., 2010; Kilickaya, 2004; Madjarova et al., 2001). However, Wright (2000) found that the literature on the impact of authentic materials on students' perceptions of another culture is still scarce. In addition, Chien (2013) found that it can be difficult and time consuming to find authentic resources matching the age, interests and language level of students, and Simpson (1997) further contends that there has often been a correlation between the lower level of language competence of younger learners and their perceived inability to access authentic materials. This view is also shared by Hennebry (2014b), who in her survey of language teachers, found that participants expressed a concern that learners were not sufficiently proficient at a linguistic level in order to access cultural materials.

Furthermore, simply relying on the use of authentic materials is not enough; this must be situated in such a way as to facilitate a *prise de conscience* of one's own culture and to enable alternative and alternating *prises de position* to accept and experience different viewpoints as well as, and beyond simply comparing and contrasting these (Bennett, 1993; Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 1993; Sudhoff, 2010). Therefore, Coyle and colleagues (2010) argue that, while authenticity is central to successful learning, this must go beyond the mere use of authentic materials in lessons, but instead, should focus on authentic purpose, that is, that the learning should not confine itself to the linguistic dimension, and therefore, neither should the teaching. It is also essential, as El-Hussari (2007) points out, that issues of diversity are taken into account when selecting authentic materials, and these should be taken

from a range of target language communities. In addition, materials need to be continuously reviewed to take into account the contexts, the learners, and the constraints in which they may be used, and in doing so must also consider careful task design (Coyle et al., 2010; McGrath, 2002).

2.8.4. Which materials are best for the teaching of intercultural understanding?

Driscoll and Simpson (2015) have found that there is little evidence to demonstrate which materials and tasks are most effective in developing intercultural understanding. In addition, Paesani and Allen (2012) argue that there is currently a lack of a sufficient range of models to enable the successful implementation of content and language integrated programmes.

However, some have reported that successful intercultural models are often project-based and result in a concrete end-product (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Chien, 2013; El-Hussari, 2007). Although its limitations with regards to language proficiency are acknowledged when compared with more traditional applications of CLIL, Wolff (2002) further contends that a modular approach is sometimes advocated as a more efficient and suited model in some contexts. Such an approach would also help to alleviate some of the time constraints which can, as mentioned previously, act as a barrier to the implementation of curriculum models such as CLIL.

Simpson (1997) also suggests creating a common framework of cultural modules across different foreign languages, providing a shared corpus of reference which could also be accessed by non-language specialists, in order to foster collaboration between teachers of a wide range of subjects - thus offering language teachers an opportunity to engage more systematically with content teachers. Similarly, Hennebry (2014b) found that, although current cultural materials and tasks within

textbooks were poorly presented or not fit for purpose, the time constraints placed on teachers meant that they overwhelmingly felt that a cultural content textbook or corpus of ready-made materials would be highly desirable.

It could therefore be argued that a corpus of materials, organised in modular units and providing teachers with choice, flexibility and adaptability to their specific contexts and learners would be the way forward. Indeed, for Baker, the development of Intercultural Understanding is 'flexible and context-specific' in nature (Baker, 2015:132). Beacco and colleagues also make the case that CLIL is not, and should not be a prescriptive model (Beacco et al., 2010); Boylan and Huntley (2003) contend that realistic expectations should be applied to language teaching and learning in a context where students have little or no exposure to the target country and therefore its culture in real context, and Coyle et al. (2010) argue that the challenges of implementation need to be addressed through gradual and reflective introduction.

Gradual and experimental implementation models of CLIL practice will generate less rigorous, but nonetheless useful means to frame future assessment models for CLIL. Whilst flexibility is acknowledged and encouraged to meet the needs of different contexts CLIL approaches are situated in, there remains the need for rigorous and transparent methodology in order to ensure its validity and sustainability as a transformational pedagogy (Coyle et al., 2010; Wiesemes, 2009). For CLIL approaches to be normalised, Wiesemes (2009) further contends that models also need to be replicable as well as sustainable.

2.9. Summary

In this chapter, the difficulty of defining culture and in conceptualising its place within language teaching, in so far as actual practice is concerned, has become evident. Nonetheless, the relationship between language and culture is well documented, and one could therefore argue that the integration of language and culture is not only desirable, it is also necessary. Many models have, throughout the years and countries, tried to establish frameworks to translate this necessity into practice, with CLIL one such model. Although the research base within the European context is well established, evidence rooted in the English educational system, and in particular in a secondary setting, is still scarce, and practice experimental and far from being widespread. Yet, for all the potential benefits of CLIL methodology and materials in developing learners' Intercultural Understanding, among other things, it has become a worthy area of study, despite the likely constraints and issues related to the implementation of such models in prescriptive curriculum models.

In the following chapter, we will detail the methodology chosen for the purpose of this study. A further chapter will report the findings of the research, and these will be further discussed, contextualising these findings in existing literature, in the hope of bringing answers to our three questions, a new perspective on the issue as well as possible considerations for future research in the field.

CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The following sections will define the research framework for the study, and outline the research design chosen for this research project, research instruments used, sampling method, as well as providing a description of how the data were collected and analysed. Finally, this section will seek to establish the validity and reliability of the study, as well as limitations and a reflection on ethical considerations raised.

3.2. The Research framework

3.2.1. Paradigm

This research followed a pragmatist paradigm in order to explore the perceived importance that learners and teachers attribute to intercultural understanding and its place in secondary foreign language instruction in the English educational context, while investigating whether a CLIL approach and materials can serve to further develop learners' ICU. Pragmatism is 'consequence-oriented, problem-centred and pluralistic' (Cresswell, 2003:18). As a result, this paradigm was deemed the most appropriate for the study, as its aim was to explore the potential impact of a pedagogical approach on developing learners' ICU through a teaching intervention, to question the place of intercultural understanding in existing practice and to investigate the differing perceptions, beliefs and attitudes of secondary learners and teachers about the importance of intercultural learning. The epistemological stance of the study was that knowledge derives from 'actions, situations and consequences' (Cresswell, 2003:11) and the study was concerned with the practical application of a particular teaching approach in a specific context, and aimed to provide a solution to a perceived problem experienced by the researcher (Patton, 1990). The study was

principally driven by the research problems, and this in turn was the driver for the processes and instruments employed (Rossman & Wilson, 1985). According to Cresswell (2003:12), pragmatism provides researchers with the freedom to 'choose the methods, techniques, and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes'. This paradigm was also selected because, where the focus of the study was to investigate the place of (inter)cultural teaching and learning within second language instruction in the context of English secondary curriculum and practice, the highly contextual nature of both culture as a concept and of the specific context of application of the study required a stance which would enable the representation and interpretation of 'different world views' (Cresswell, 2003:12). The researcher's positioning that education is a cultural phenomenon mediated by participants' own culture and experiences is shared by others (Latorre, 2008; Pring, 2000) and was central to the approach of the study, as 'educational research into educational matters should focus on multiple and complex social relationships that occur in school settings to produce learning' (Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2015:112).

3.2.2. Approach

The importance of focusing the study on the stated problem and of employing a variety of approaches is a stance favoured by many where social sciences are concerned (Cresswell, 2003; Patton, 1990; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). As noted by Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado (2015), educational research has been fraught with controversy with regards to the best approaches which should be employed in order to fully, effectively and reliably represent the complexity of the profession. There has been growing acknowledgement in literature that, in order to reflect this complexity, both qualitative and quantitative approaches have an important role to play (Cresswell, 2003; Hammersley, 2007; Phillips, 2009; Pring, 2000). Quantitative

approaches can serve to clearly identify the variables of a study, to provide an accurate and unbiased measure of experiments, and to employ statistical procedures in order to observe, report and analyse information; on the other hand, qualitative approaches reflect the context and individual perceptions and beliefs of participants, can serve to interpret findings meaningfully and can 'create an agenda for change or reform' (Cresswell, 2003: 19). For the purpose of this study and the research questions posed, neither a purely quantitative or qualitative approach would have provided the necessary insights. Therefore, a mixed methods approach was selected to reflect the complexity of the problem and research questions posed, and the inherent complexity of educational contexts and issues (Greene, 2005). Whilst all methods have their criticisms and limitations, the use of a mixed methods approach can also ensure greater reliability in that any methodological shortcoming inherent to any given approach can reciprocally be complemented and neutralised by the other approach's strengths (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Other benefits of a mixed methods approach include the ability to achieve a deeper understanding of the problem through a combination of qualitative and quantitative data, thus enabling a greater validity in findings and inferences (Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2015).

In light of the complexity, plurality and context of the study, a convergence mixed methods research design was used, to explore the research problem from both qualitative and quantitative perspectives. Data were collected from learners and teachers across four schools, and an intervention was implemented in two schools, to assess its impact by comparing student responses before and after the intervention. One objective was to explore teachers' and learners' perceptions and beliefs about the importance of intercultural learning within second language instruction, and this was done through the use of teacher and student questionnaires and semi-structured

interviews with teachers. Another objective of the study was to reflect the extent to which intercultural learning actually occurred in teachers' practice and in learners' language learning experience. The teacher and student questionnaires, teacher interviews as well as lesson observations, were used for this purpose. The qualitative approach used to explore attitudes, beliefs and experiences also served an exploratory purpose, by determining the variables to be investigated - and provided a solution to the lack of existing research on intercultural teaching in the context of secondary schools (Hennebry, 2014a).

A quantitative approach was needed to establish whether the use of the teaching intervention using a CLIL approach and materials had an impact on developing learners' intercultural understanding, through the completion of a pre and post-test quiz. Qualitative methods were also used to complement the quantitative findings of the quiz, through lesson observations during the intervention phase and through teaching and learning logs, to gather teachers' and learners' views about the intervention approach and materials.

3.2.3. The role of action research

Because of the focus of the study on aspects of culture in language teaching and learning, the study was highly contextualised, and an action-based approach was favoured. This was particularly important to me as the study was individually and professionally motivated, and so aimed to provide me with an opportunity to reflect on, and improve my own practice as a teacher of languages. For this reason, the choice was made to place myself in the role of participant teacher; furthermore, as the study was predicated on the view that intercultural understanding should be one of the aims of language teaching and learning, including some of my learners, in the hope of enhancing their learning experience, was equally important.

Although the study made no claim to replicability, as a practitioner-researcher, it was also important to me that any finding would serve the wider teaching community by providing a possible model in solution to the research problem. As a result, other schools and teachers were sought to take part in the study, in the hope that a collegial approach to action-research would serve to develop new knowledge, in addition to improving teachers' practice and learners' experiences. Despite concerns expressed by some that research is too complex to serve practice (Hammersley, 2005), or that little is done to investigate the scope for replication of small-scale, practitioners' research such as this one (Dyson & Desforges, 2002), I nonetheless shared the view of Siraj-Blatchford and colleagues that 'any study developed to identify 'good quality' practice provides within it the potential to develop concrete (and demonstrably practical) solutions to the problem' (Siraj-Blatchford, Sammons, Taggart, Sylva, & Melhuish, 2006:75), and that small-scale, practitioner research can serve to the accumulation of evidence and knowledge (Oakley, 2004; Siraj-Blatchford et al., 2006).

3.3. Research design

3.3.1. Literature search

In order to develop my own background theoretical knowledge, but also to ascertain existing research in the field of intercultural teaching and the use of CLIL materials and methodology to promote intercultural understanding, and in order to identify any gaps in existing research, a literature review was undertaken in order to establish the current place of intercultural teaching within foreign language instruction in the context of the English secondary curriculum. The literature review also focused more particularly on the importance attached to ICU by learners and teachers alike in this specific context, as well as seeking to present existing research on whether CLIL

methodology could facilitate the development of learners' ICU, and if so which materials would be best suited. From the literature studied, information was gathered on the following aspects:

- The many definitions of culture;

- The perceived difficulty of teaching culture;

- The difference between cultural knowledge and cultural awareness;

- The place of culture in education;

- The relationship between language and culture, and tensions which exist between both;

- The highly contextual nature of both language and culture;

- The place of culture within foreign language instruction;

- Teachers' beliefs about intercultural understanding and its place in the teaching of foreign languages;

- Models of intercultural teaching;

- Intercultural teaching in the European and English educational contexts;

- Integrative models of language teaching, with a particular focus on CLIL;

- The potential benefits of CLIL;

- Constraints and issues raised by the implementation of an integrative model such as CLIL;

- Which learners may be best suited for intercultural teaching;

- Whether intercultural understanding should be assessed and/or form part of assessment frameworks;

- Materials suited for intercultural teaching.

From the literature review, the following themes emerged:

- Culture is a difficult concept to define, and is multifaceted and highly contextualised;

- Because of this, it can be difficult to teach culture;

- There has historically been a divide between what is considered 'big C' culture (often taught), and 'little c' culture (often not);

- There has been an increased interest in intercultural teaching, both in bilingual contexts but also within the political European context, this aspect being at the core of the institution's ideals;

- In particular, integrative models have been found to have some benefits on learners' intercultural understanding development;

- Although CLIL is one such model, literature is still scarce, especially in a secondary education context; in addition, CLIL practice is still not widespread and therefore remains viewed as experimental;

- Learners' perceptions and views are central in ensuring successful implementation of CLIL;

- There is a marked difference between the place attributed to intercultural teaching in the curriculum for languages in England, when compared to its European counterparts;

- There are constraints and considerations relating to intercultural teaching, and some of these constraints and considerations are specific to the English educational context;

- There is often a marked difference between the importance language teachers in England attribute to intercultural teaching when sharing their beliefs, and the place it takes in their actual practice;

- There is a range of literature on the use of particular types of materials and how they can promote intercultural teaching, although findings are still tentative.

3.3.2. Data required

In order to reflect the emerging themes of the literature, qualitative data were required to answer the following questions:

1. How do teachers define culture?

2. What place does intercultural teaching have in language teachers' beliefs?

3. What place does intercultural teaching have in language teachers' practice?

4. Are there any perceived constraints to the implementation of intercultural teaching?

5. What place is given to intercultural learning from learners' perspective?

6. Do learners value intercultural learning?

7. To what extent does learners' context influence how they value intercultural learning?

8. Which materials are best suited for intercultural teaching?

9. Can intercultural teaching develop intercultural understanding as well as cultural knowledge acquisition?

10. Can CLIL pedagogy and teaching materials positively impact on the development of learners' intercultural understanding?

3.4. Research instruments: rationale, design and procedures

This study used a range of instruments in order to explore the research problem from differing viewpoints and to complement and deepen findings through the combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods. Instruments used included student and teacher questionnaires, a student quiz, semi-structured interviews with

teachers, lesson observations, intervention materials and teaching and learning logs. Student and teacher questionnaires were the primary instruments, with remaining instruments used to bring in supporting data where findings were found to be relevant to the key findings stemming from the questionnaires. The table below summarises the research problems in relation to the research instruments selected, as well as identifying their relevance towards the research questions, namely:

4. How much importance do learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of ICU within MFL education?

5. To what extent is ICU incorporated into MFL teaching and learning?

6. To what extent can CLIL materials develop learners' ICU?

Table 3.1

Key themes from literature, in relation to research instruments and research questions

	Student Questionnaire	Teacher Questionnaire	Semi-Structured Interviews	Lesson Observations	Teaching Log	Learning Log	Intervention Materials	RELEVANCE TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS
How do teachers define culture?		X	X					1
What place does intercultural teaching in language teachers' beliefs?		X	X					1
What place does intercultural teaching in language teachers' practice?		X	X	X				2
Are there any perceived constraints to the implementation of intercultural teaching?		X	X					2
What place is given to intercultural learning from learners' perspective?	X					X		2
Do learners value intercultural learning?	X					X		1
To what extent does learners' context influence how they value intercultural learning?	X		X			X		1
Which materials are best suited for intercultural teaching?	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	3
Can intercultural teaching develop intercultural understanding as well as cultural knowledge acquisition?	X			X	X	X	X	3
Can CLIL pedagogy and teaching materials positively impact on the development of learners' intercultural understanding?	X			X	X	X	X	3

3.4.1. Student and teacher questionnaires

3.4.1.1. Rationale

Although additional instruments were used to supplement findings, questionnaires were the primary instrument for the purpose of this study. This instrument was selected to collect both quantitative and qualitative data relating to the first eight research problems emerging from the literature review and listed above in section 3.3.2.

In doing so, questionnaires presented several advantages, including the anonymity of participants (Munn & Drever, 1990) and their ease of administration (Gillham, 2000). Questionnaires also enabled the impact of time taken to collect data to be reduced, a particularly important consideration both from the researcher's perspective and in the context of heavy time constraints placed on teachers and curriculum time for languages.

3.4.1.2. Design

In order to gather relevant data, student questionnaires (Appendix 1) were designed around the questions emerging from the key themes identified in the literature:

1. How do teachers define culture?

2. What place does intercultural teaching have in language teachers' beliefs?

3. What place does intercultural teaching have in language teachers' practice?

4. Are there any perceived constraints to the implementation of intercultural teaching?

5. What place is given to intercultural learning from learners' perspective?

6. Do learners value intercultural learning?

7. To what extent does learners' context influence how they value intercultural learning?

8. Which materials are best suited for intercultural teaching?

9. Can intercultural teaching develop intercultural understanding as well as cultural knowledge acquisition?

10. Can CLIL pedagogy and teaching materials positively impact on the development of learners' intercultural understanding?

Following consideration of the above questions, three strands of inquiry were identified:

1. Attitudes and perceptions,

2. Experiences of learning a language, including use of materials,

3. Existing intercultural knowledge and understanding.

The student questionnaire was organised into five main sections: The first section sought to gather basic student information, such as gender, age and how long French had been studied. A second section asked students to give their personal linguistic context (home language(s), additional foreign languages learnt and background of language learning at primary education level). In a third section, a mixture of multiple choice, open response and ranking questions attempted to elicit students' attitudes and perceptions about language learning - from enjoyment levels, perceived popularity of the subject, the degree of importance they attributed to studying a foreign language, to a range of aspects related to language learning and their views on materials used and which materials had their preference. Sections four and five of the questionnaire were in the form of quizzes, the first to contextualise further their attitudes towards and perceptions of language learning, and the last to establish the extent of students' knowledge - or lack of, on a range of cultural aspects and facts about French and French-speaking countries. These sections, which focused on cultural knowledge, were included to ensure that cultural knowledge did not take a

lesser role as is sometimes the case in some intercultural approaches, despite being necessary for learners to acquire a higher level of intercultural competence (Hennebry, 2014a).

Teacher questionnaires (Appendix 2) were designed around the following key themes:

1. Beliefs, attitudes and perceptions,

2. Current practice, including use of materials,

3. Barriers to the teaching and learning of intercultural understanding.

The teachers' questionnaire was also designed in five sections. Section one enquired about the languages which teachers knew and taught and a second section sought key information about their school and the place of languages within the curriculum time. In section three, teachers were asked to choose, or state, their own definition for the term 'culture'. This was important in order to situate the research and findings in teachers' own beliefs and perceptions, and in order to establish an accurate view of the place of culture in the curriculum (Hennebry, 2014a). The main section of the questionnaire included a range of scale and ranking questions to seek teachers' views on culture within the framework of language teaching and learning, ideal learner's attributes, a reflection on materials used and the place of culture when assessing students. A final section sought some information about teachers' length of service, and provided them with an opportunity to give further comments and to provide consent, if they chose to do so, for participation in a subsequent interview.

3.4.1.3. Procedures

Year 8 students in the four classes were asked to complete the questionnaire and quiz at the start of the project, to seek their views on language learning and their understanding of culture. Students in schools B and C were, in addition, asked to

complete the same questionnaire and quiz at the end of the project, to establish if the intervention resources used had an impact on attitudes and knowledge with regards to intercultural awareness and understanding, but also to gauge if they had perceived the change in materials used and on their language learning experience more generally.

There can be a number of disadvantages of using questionnaires: they can be interpreted differently by participants, leading to misconceptions, and participants may not give responses sufficient thought or time (Gillham, 2000; Munn & Drever, 1990). In order to counter these potential issues, both the student and teacher questionnaires were trialled in a pilot school, to gauge the clarity of questions and suitability of formats used. In addition, I administered all student questionnaires myself, with the class teacher present, so that where students required clarification, I would be able to provide this within the stated aims of the study. Teachers were also given the freedom to complete the questionnaires in their own time rather than at set times, taking into account their busy workload and in the view that they would be best placed to prioritise and allocate the most suitable time to do this.

3.4.2. Semi-structured interviews

3.4.2.1. Rationale

Semi-structured interviews as a data collection instrument were considered to have multiple advantages for the purpose of this study: Because attitudes and beliefs were important aspects of the research, seeking personal views to construct knowledge through dialogue between the researcher and participants could lead to the collection of more meaningful and deeper data (Drever, 1995; Johnson, 2002; Kvale & Brinkman, 2009; Mason, 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 2011) and to a better understanding of the data initially collected through questionnaires. On the other hand, it could be

argued that these benefits of conducting semi-structured interviews were limited owing to the small scale of the study and in particular, to the small number of participating teachers agreeing to take part in the interview process (Drever, 1995; Kvale & Brinkman, 2009). However, the study made no claim to replicability, but I shared the stance of Oakley's (2004) and Siraj-Blatchford et al. (2006) that small-scale practitioner research can serve to the accumulation of evidence and knowledge and also can provide a source of reflection and inspiration for other practitioners to develop their own models for their own specific contexts and cultures (McNiff & Whitehead, 2009).

3.4.2.2. Design

At the beginning of the study, a list of possible interview questions was drafted (Appendix 3). While the potential for researcher influence on the construct of interview data exists (Bucholtz, 2000), the drafting of possible questions prior to the interviews taking place served to minimise the likelihood of this occurring.

Following on from the completion of teacher questionnaires, responses were reviewed, areas for possible further investigation were identified, and relevant interview questions selected from the draft list, as a starting point to the discussion between the researcher and teacher to be interviewed.

3.4.2.3. Procedures

Teachers were asked to indicate on the questionnaire whether they would be happy to take part in an interview at a later stage of the study. The semi-structured interviews sought to establish teachers' views in more detail about the place of culture in language learning and teaching, and ways in which intercultural understanding is / should be developed. The majority of teachers left this section blank, but nine teachers volunteered to participate in the semi-structured interviews. Because

teachers had little available time to take part in lengthy interviews, I travelled to teachers' schools where necessary, and teachers were left to choose the available amount of time for this, and in all cases this lasted between 25 minutes and one hour.

3.4.3. Lesson observations

3.4.3.1. Rationale

Lesson observations were also used as a supplementary instrument. They were deemed particularly important in the early stages of the study, to observe the place - if any - given to intercultural teaching in participating teachers' practice, and where present, to observe participating pupils' responses. Lesson observations were also important to ensure that, at the intervention stage of the study, lesson materials were used consistently, and to observe first hand whether pupils' responses to the materials differed from one intervention school to the other.

There has been a growing trend to use lesson observations in order to gather data pertaining to participants' context and cultures, which, combined with interview and document analysis, can enable an ethnographic approach to data collection (Kawulich, 2005). As the purpose of the study was to investigate the place and importance given to intercultural understanding in context, it was important to be able to access participants' behaviours and interactions (De Munck & Sobo, 1998) in order to enrich the initial data collection and its interpretation (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2002; Schensul, Schensul & LeCompte, 1999). Although some disadvantages of lesson observations as a data collection instrument should be noted, namely that the interpretation of events observed can be subjective (De Munck & Sobo, 1998) and that findings may not always represent a true reflection of the participants' culture (Johnson & Sackett, 1998), this was balanced by the researcher's experience in observing lessons in a range of contexts and with a range of teachers and students,

therefore providing a greater degree of quality in the observation process (Kawulich, 2005).

3.4.3.2. Design

As observations were supplementary to the data gathered through questionnaires, a non-structured format of observations was favoured. Instead of structured observations, a field notes approach was preferred, and the advice of Schensul and colleagues (1999) followed, ensuring that confidentiality was preserved by using students' codes instead of their names; comments were noted verbatim; notes were descriptive and sequential in nature, and key information (date, time, background information) were recorded.

3.4.3.3. Procedures

Two lessons were observed in school C, one before and one during the delivery of the intervention materials, to set the learning in context. One lesson was also observed in schools D and E, to establish the style of teaching and learning taking place, and to contextualise responses from the questionnaires and interviews.

3.4.4. Teaching logs and learning logs

3.4.4.1. Rationale

The study aimed to give an opportunity for teachers and learners to voice the value they attributed to intercultural teaching and learning, and to provide an insight into their respective perceptions of the place attributed to interculturality in language lessons in practice. As a result, it was important to record some of these views in context, and in action.

Because of the ongoing, dynamic and reflective nature of learners and teachers' attitudes and perceptions with regards to intercultural understanding (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Chien, 2013; Coyle et al., 2010; Scarino, 2010), qualitative data were

collected through teaching logs, in the form of annotations on lesson plans (Appendix 4) and materials used during the intervention phase of the study: This was particularly useful as materials need to be continuously reviewed to take into account the contexts, the learners, and the constraints in which they may be used (Coyle et al., 2010; McGrath, 2002). This approach was also particularly relevant to the purpose of the study, and in particular to the dimension of the intervention aiming to evaluate the possible impact of CLIL materials on developing students' intercultural understanding. The logs provided another supplement to the findings of the questionnaires, while having the advantage of being more time efficient. Furthermore, one key advantage was the ability for this method to facilitate both reflexive practice and an element of collegiality and peer- development (Symon, 2004), as the intervention teachers in schools B and C were in effect able to 'share notes'.

Students' behaviour and responses to the intervention materials were also recorded through 'learning logs', comprising a portfolio of students' work produced during the intervention phase, as well as notes taken by the teachers and teaching assistants (each intervention class had the benefit of being assigned a teaching assistant who worked with the class on a regular basis) reporting on students' comments. The use of the teaching assistants was particularly useful, as by the very nature of their work, they were situated amongst the students, enabling further insight than teachers' notes or the researcher's observation notes may allow.

3.4.4.2. Design

There are known limitations to this approach, in that logs can be perceived as time consuming and effort intensive, and that a time delay between the event and its recording in the log may lead to less accurate findings (Symon, 2004). To remedy

these potential shortcomings, where teaching logs were concerned, teachers were asked to only make short annotations, and were provided with pre-printed materials, including lesson plans, on which blank spaces were provided to facilitate quick and easy note-taking.

Learning logs comprised examples of students' work (Appendix 5), informal notes on student responses and interactions during lesson observations, and notes taken in each intervention class by the teacher and/or teaching assistant detailing interesting comments made by students during the delivery of the intervention lessons. This was kept simple in format, with the teaching assistants being provided with a blank notebook on which to record dates, lesson number and student comments. Again, the aim of the learning logs was to provide supplementary data from a differing viewpoint, and although not the principal instrument, proved valuable nonetheless given the plurality and complexity of the research problems.

3.4.4.3. Procedures

Teachers were asked to annotate either during the lesson, or if not feasible, within a couple of days following the lesson to ensure accuracy of recount. There was no pressure placed on teachers to annotate every single lesson plan. Annotations were collated, key themes highlighted, coded and relevant annotations used to supplement findings from the questionnaires.

For the learning logs, the only instruction given to the teaching assistants was to record students' comments verbatim, and where applicable, to add their own comments about students' feelings and experiences of the materials and topics of the lessons.

3.4.5. Intervention materials

3.4.5.1. Rationale

As found in the literature review, there is a current lack of ready-made materials available for intercultural teaching (Coyle et al., 2010). Therefore, I designed a set of teaching materials for delivery with the intervention classes. All these materials, including annotated slides, lesson plans, handouts, video and sound materials, and assessment materials were provided and discussed with teachers in advance.

3.4.5.2. Design

Teachers were given a choice of three topics to ensure that the materials were in line with their Department's schemes of work. Upon discussion with the other participating intervention school, it was agreed to centre the study on the same topic for the materials.

The topic of 'Children in France during the Second World War' was selected among the three on offer. This was an interesting choice on the part of teachers involved, and seemed to reinforce the view that Humanities subjects are often perceived as the best content subject areas for CLIL implementation (Wolff, 2002).

In particular, the materials would include facts about the start of the war, to establish some key background knowledge and to enable learners to reflect on their own knowledge and culture before investigating the events through a different cultural viewpoint (Duffy & Mayes, 2001). Learners would also find out about the specific events in Oradour-sur-Glane, a French martyred village, and the impact of the events on real-life children, thus promoting a sense of empathy in learners owing to their age proximity (Byram et al., 2002) and a representation of a key event in French WW2 history through the eyes of children, using the medium of the French movie 'la Rafle' as well as key extracts from other related movies, songs and poems, in order

to investigate the potential of lesser-used materials (as identified through questionnaires) in developing intercultural understanding.

The lesson resources also included a range of methods, such as presentations, pair and group work, research and games, and were designed so as to promote a learner-centred approach (Coyle et al., 2010). Materials also covered the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Appendix 6). Importantly, all materials were designed to include both vocabulary and key grammatical structures, as well as key skills, which were the ones students should have studied at the time had they been following the 'normal' scheme of work (aligned to a given textbook) with a three-fold objective: to ensure students were not disadvantaged when compared to their peers in non-participating classes, to ensure comparability, and to facilitate teachers' continuity of planning.

In my study, partial instruction through the vehicular language approach was chosen, based on the understanding that the proportion of target language use varies in CLIL classrooms (Grenfell, 2002), and because of the potential negative effects on learners' motivation if instruction through the sole use of the target language had been chosen (Jones & Jones, 2002; Macaro, 2008).

3.4.5.3. Procedures

The intervention period lasted for 15 lessons over approximately six to eight weeks depending on the lesson time allocation and the demands of school activities and events, with delivery starting in March 2014. I timed the delivery of the lessons with my own class to happen first, followed the next week by delivery of the lesson conducted by the other teacher in intervention school C. As previously discussed, lesson observations were also carried out to see the delivery of the lessons in action, and teaching and learning logs were kept during this phase of the study.

Following the teaching of the intervention lessons, the two intervention classes (schools B and C) were asked to complete the same questionnaire again, for comparative purposes and to gauge the impact, if any, of the lessons delivered. Although classes in schools D and E went on with their regular lessons, and were not given the intervention materials, these resources were shared with colleagues in these schools once the intervention phase of the study was completed, since the sharing of good practice is a key aspect in implementing a CLIL model (Coyle et al., 2010), and also as an acknowledgement of the schools' participation in the study.

3.5. The intervention

3.5.1. Lesson 1

In the first lesson, the aim was to launch the topic of the intervention, and to set the scene by presenting the village of Oradour-sur-Glane in a descriptive way, which the learner would be accustomed to through their previous study of vocabulary on the topic of 'local area'. Materials used included a slide presentation, with key information presented in French and using vocabulary and structures which were drawn from prior learners' knowledge, as well as using cognates. Teachers delivered the lesson almost entirely in the target language, with the use of student translators where necessary, and materials used called upon their listening and reading skills. The linguistic focus was on the use of *il y a / il n'y a pas,* and *tu peux*, while the CLIL approach aimed to develop learners' sense of curiosity, their knowledge about cultural and geographical facts, and their affective motivation through their desire to learn more about French people and places.

3.5.2. Lesson 2

In the second lesson, the aim was to create a sense of mystery about the village of Oradour-sur-Glane, by exposing learners to a range of contradicting statements about

the village. Materials used included a slide presentation, with key statements presented in French and using the key grammatical structures *est / n'est pas*, thus focusing on the use of negatives in French. Materials also included some photographic clues which learners had access to during the group speaking task, during which they had to use the information provided, and the photos, to formulate a hypothesis about the events in Oradour-sur-Glane. Learners were provided with a speaking frame for support, and had access to a bilingual dictionary. Teachers acted for the most part of the lesson as facilitators of the group task. The CLIL approach aimed to develop learners' sense of curiosity, their cognitive skills through the use of inference and deduction, their ability to work independently through a learner-centred approach, and their affective motivation through their desire to find out what had happened in the village of Oradour-sur-Glane.

3.5.3. Lesson 3

In the third lesson, the aim was to gauge learners' existing knowledge of the Second World War, and to address any gaps in knowledge to facilitate their progress through subsequent lessons, by contextualising the events in Oradour-sur-Glane. Learners were welcomed into the lesson by the means of a sensory experience (the sounding of the air raid siren) and a spoken starter task in which they were encouraged to express their feelings about this, in French, through the use of a speaking frame slide showing a range of adjectives they could use. Learners then had to complete a mind-map, in English, to identify in pairs their existing knowledge about WWII. Learners then watched a video without commentary (but to a musical background) explaining the key events of the Second World War Following the watching of the video, learners were handed out, in pairs, a summary text in English, and its translation in French, but cut into strips, for them to re-order. The French text relied heavily on the

use of cognates, as well as using transparent items such as dates, and the names of people and places. Teachers' role was again that of facilitator. In addition, teachers ran a multiple-choice quiz at the end of the lesson, aiming to check learners' recall and understanding of key historical facts encountered through the extended reading task. The CLIL approach aimed to develop learners' sense of empathy, their knowledge about cultural and historical facts, their ability to take a different standpoint by viewing global historical events from a different perspective, their cognitive skills, and their affective motivation through their ability to demonstrate more expert knowledge within the language lessons, by sharing what they already knew about the events.

3.5.4. Lesson 4

In the fourth lesson, the aim was to re-centre the learning on the events of Oradour-sur-Glane, with a focus on the story of real-life survivor Roger Godfrin, who was a child at the time of the events. Materials used included a slide presentation, with key information presented in French in the format of diary entries from Roger Godfrin, using cognates and focusing on the use of verbs in the perfect tense, and a review of the use of negative forms. Teachers delivered the lesson almost entirely in the target language, with the use of student translators where necessary, and materials used, such as the pair match up task, called upon learners' listening and reading skills. The CLIL approach aimed to develop learners' sense of empathy, and their affective motivation through their ability to relate to another child in a different historical and geographical context.

3.5.5. Lesson 5

In the fifth lesson, the aim was for learners to fully understand the events of Oradour-sur-Glane. Materials used included a slide presentation, presenting a selection of the

structures used in the text of the diary entries presented in the previous lesson, a copy of which students were handed out. The linguistic focus was on the use of the verb *avoir* in the perfect tense and the use of different subject pronouns. From this, learners had to infer the rules of the perfect tense in French, through a deductive approach to grammar. Teachers supported this process through questioning and further explanation where needed. The lesson ended in the viewing of a video, in English, recounting the events in Oradour-sur-Glane, to ensure learners' understanding and to consolidate the recall of key facts. This was further reinforced through a re-order task where learners had to re-order sentences in French in chronological order, and joining the statements by using time markers. In this lesson, the CLIL approach aimed to develop learners' sense of empathy and their knowledge about historical facts, their cognitive skills and their affective motivation through the experiencing of the events through the eyes of a survivor child.

3.5.6. Lesson 6

In the sixth lesson, the aim was to present learners with the rest of Roger Godfrin's life history, directly after the events in Oradour-sur-Glane, but also later in the war, and following the end of WWII. Learners were presented with an extended text, and a match-up task with items from the text and English translations, to aid their overall comprehension of the text. Learners worked for the most part individually and independently, with teachers providing occasional support through individual questioning. Upon the end of the time allocated to the independent reading task, the teacher checked correct answers with the class, and introduced the true/false quiz in English, to check on learners' recall of key facts. The CLIL approach aimed to further develop learners' sense of empathy, their knowledge about cultural and

historical facts, and their affective motivation through their exposure to Roger Godfrin's tale of survival.

3.5.7. Lesson 7

In the seventh lesson, the aim was to focus on developing learners' listening skills, through recordings of some of the survivors' accounts of the events of Oradour-sur-Glane. Learners were provided with a list of questions they had to gather information on, about each survivor. The teachers played the recording of each account twice, pausing and repeating key information as necessary. Once all recordings had finished playing, teachers proceeded to check answers with the class, and where particular comprehension difficulties were encountered, specific extracts were repeated as a class activity, to help learners identify the information or vocabulary they had missed initially. In this instance, the CLIL approach aimed to develop learners' sense of curiosity and empathy, and their affective motivation through their desire to find out more about the fate of some of the other survivors of Oradour-sur-Glane.

3.5.8. Lesson 8

In the eighth lesson, learners were provided with a speaking and writing frame handout, and were also given an information card about one of the other survivors of the massacre in Oradour-sur-Glane. A slide presentation was also left on display during the lesson, with the frame for additional support. The teachers checked for understanding and modelled responses at the start of the lesson, and learners were given a time limit for preparing their answers in writing, using the frame and information provided. The remainder of the lesson involved a group task, in which each learner played a different role, and answered their peers' questions, who took notes on the key information provided on each survivor. Teachers monitored for progress and to gauge learners' performance. The CLIL approach in this lesson

aimed to develop learners' sense of empathy and curiosity, their ability to view events from a different viewpoint, and their affective motivation through their taking the role of one of the survivors of the massacre of Oradour-sur-Glane.

3.5.9. Lesson 9

Lesson nine was timetabled in a computer room. Learners were asked to work in pairs, and to prepare an article for the next newsletter / school website.

In this article, they had to explain what they had been learning so far in French lessons about World War 2 and the village of Oradour-sur-Glane, and what happened there. Success criteria were shared with the class by the means of a slide, which teachers discussed with the class before they started work independently.

Each article had to be completed in English, so as not to limit the extent to which they could share their experience, but be a maximum of 200 words. Learners were guided to ensure that their piece was well structured, and that it should contain information about the village before, during and after the massacre. The article also had to contain information about what the village is like today, to include three pictures that would catch the readers' attention, and a list of 5 useful internet links for readers to find out more if they wished to.

Learners were also told that the best three entries in each intervention class would win a prize and feature on the school's website / in the next newsletter (according to each intervention school's context).

Once the task had been explained, learners went on to work on the computers to begin writing their article, and had the opportunity to finish this for a subsequent lesson. The CLIL approach was applied through the use of a learner-centred, project-based activity, the opportunity to gain further cultural and historical knowledge, to

develop further learners' sense of empathy, and their affective motivation through the use of rewards and the ability to work with peers.

3.5.10. Lesson 10

The aim of the tenth lesson was to expose learners to materials which the questionnaire had found to be rarely or never used in language lessons: poems and songs. In keeping with the broader theme of WWII, a set of slides introduced learners to the French Resistance movement. The linguistic focus was on recycling structures and vocabulary previously seen, in particular verbs in the perfect tense and the use of negatives. The teachers presented this in the target language, with the use of student translators where needed. Following this, the profile of Emmanuel d'Astier de la Vigerie was presented, as founder of the newspaper *Libération,* and as the author of the poem *la complainte du Partisan.* The text of the poem was shared with the class, and translated collaboratively, with teachers leading the questioning to aid comprehension. Teachers went on to explain the many subsequent adaptations of the poem, and in particular as a song by Leonard Cohen, the text of which was in English and in French. The teacher led a discussion on the reasons for the use of the two languages, focusing on two aspects: the historical aspect, with the role of the Resistance movement in Occupied France, and the linguistic aspect, with the fact that Leonard Cohen was a Canadian singer-songwriter, thus providing a good opportunity to further develop learners' intercultural knowledge and understanding. The lesson ended with learners listening to the song, which they were free to sing along to as the lyrics were on display.

3.5.11. Lesson 11

The aim of lesson 11 was to broaden learners' understanding and knowledge of the impact on WWII on the cultural capital of French people, by 'zooming out' of the

events of Oradour-sur-Glane. The teachers presented the class with information on the home for Jewish children in Izieu, the children who lived there, and the tragic event which led to only one surviving as a result of the many *rafles,* or 'round-ups' going on at the time. The poem 'Holocaust' by Barbara Lonek was discussed with the class, a poem in English to deepen their understanding. This was followed by the account of a contemporary teenager having visited the house with his class, and the impact this had on him. The learners had an opportunity to discuss the information and their feelings with peers and with their teacher, before watching a short video on Izieu to end the lesson.

3.5.12. Lesson 12

Lesson twelve was led by learners, who took it in turns to share their articles with their peers and their teacher. The expectations which had been set as success criteria for the completion of the articles were used by the teachers and the class to collaboratively decide on the best three submissions. For prizes, I had purchased some books centred on the lives of children during WWII in Europe, and each learner was allowed to pick one from a selection of three. Winning articles were also published on the school's website and/or on the school's newsletter.

3.5.13. Lessons 13, 14 and 15

Lessons 13, 14 and 15 were dedicated to a film study, using the movie *La Rafle.* Teachers were provided with a film pack, and began by reminding learners of relevant prior knowledge, to contextualise the events. Teachers were also provided with a presentation on slides to explain the events of the *Vel' d'Hiv,* on which the movie was based. Learners were provided with worksheets bearing a range of activities, including vocabulary match-up tasks, comprehension questions in English, gap-fill tasks and re-order tasks in French. Teachers then played the movie in French

with English subtitles, one section per lesson, asking learners to make notes of questions they may have as they were watching. These were then discussed upon which there was also an opportunity to complete the worksheet tasks and check answers. At the end of the third and final section, the teacher facilitated a class discussion, helping learners link all of the aspects of WWII they had studied, and how these affected France and French children - and also asking them to compare these to what they had learned about WWII and its impact on Britain, an opportunity to reflect on their own culture by contrast and comparison.

3.6. The sample

In order to gain participation, schools within a practical travelling distance were considered and approached first, via email or telephone. In addition, schools with which I had existing contacts were also approached, and the research project was also shared on a professional online forum, in order to seek additional participants. Some who expressed an interest had to be discounted, for instance schools which were outside of England or groups with a language other than French being studied, as this would have been beyond the scope of the study. Single-sex schools were also discounted, for comparability reasons. Private schools were not considered for inclusion, as one of the intended focus of the study was to seek to establish the feasibility of delivering a set of resources within the specific constraints of the state education sector and in light of recent and current changes to the statutory curriculum; the latter would not have necessarily impacted on private schools to the same extent. Key information about participating schools and classes is summarised in table 3.2.

Table 3.2
Participating schools and classes

School	A	B	C	D	E
School Type	Mixed State	Mixed State	Mixed State	Mixed State	Mixed State
School Participation Level	Pilot	Data Collection Intervention	Data Collection Intervention	Data Collection	Data Collection
School Context	Suburban	Suburban	Suburban	Suburban	Suburban
Number of Teachers in Languages Department	4	12	2	5	7
Number of Participating Teachers	3	7	1	4	4
Number of Students	19	16	20	20	19
Age Range of Students	12-13 (Year 8)	12-13 (Year 8)	12-13 (Year 8)	12-13 (Year 8)	12-13 (Year 8)
First Foreign Language Studied	French	French	French	French	French
Ability Range at Start of Year (NC Levels)	2a - 4c	2a - 4c	2a - 3a	2a - 4c	2a - 3a

3.6.1. Participating schools

The aim from the outset was always to include one of my own classes as part of a process of research in action. A class in my own context was selected, following which additional participant schools were sought. A first school was selected as a pilot for the student and teacher questionnaires. The pilot guided me to make several amendments to the questionnaires and to the way I had planned to administer them, namely:

- Making sure that I would be the one administering the questionnaires, as it proved difficult for the main class teacher to avoid guiding learners' answers through questioning, especially in the quiz sections. This would be especially important for intervention classes, who would need to retake the questionnaire following the period of intervention.

- Establishing a set of 'ground rules' for the completion of student questionnaires, in particular asking them to complete these quietly, to avoid

peer-influence - especially relevant for questions pertaining to perceptions and attitudes;

- giving learners plenty of reassurance that this did not form part of an assessment of their work, and that responses would be anonymous and for my sole attention;

- explaining to learners why the 'correct' answers to the quiz questions would not be shared with them straightaway - this would need to be done with intervention classes as learners are accustomed to checking work immediately after completion - yet intervention classes would need to wait until the questionnaire was administered a second time for this to occur;

- Some of the phrasing of the questions was reviewed, for greater clarity;

- Some of the layout was adjusted, for ease of completion;

- making sure that a whole hour could be allocated to the completion of questionnaires, longer than initially anticipated.

A further four schools were then selected for data collection from learners and teachers, and an intervention was implemented in two of these schools, including my own, to assess the impact of the teaching intervention by comparing student responses before and after the intervention. While schools D and E did not participate in the intervention phase, they were invaluable in enabling me to collect responses from a sufficiently large sample to generate a data set which would enable me to reliably identify some of the issues raised by learners and teachers alike, and to attempt to address these through the design and selection of intervention materials.

All schools selected were suburban mixed-gender state schools, two schools were 11-16 schools, while the other two were 11-18 schools, although this was not a deliberate choice but was dictated by their availability and willingness for participation. All schools had been rated 'good' at their latest Ofsted inspection at the time of participants' selection.

3.6.2. Participating classes and students

Of those who expressed an interest, the final participant schools, and participant classes and students, were selected based on the assumption that they would provide both a broad enough range to be representative, and comparability based on their gender, age, school type provenance and language background both in terms of home language and experiences learning a foreign language. With regards to number distribution, the number of student participants was broadly equal.

All classes were also selected because French was the sole foreign language they studied as part of their timetabled curriculum. For the purpose of this study, a deliberate choice was also made to select lower set classes, for comparison purposes but also to investigate whether some of the literature claims that learners' access to intercultural materials was dependent on their linguistic ability were founded (Mughan, 1998, 1999), and sharing others' stance that CLIL classes should not be the remit of the privileged or the most able (Duffy & Mayes, 2001; Springer, 2002).

All students stated English as their home language. All students were in Year 8, therefore aged between 12 and 13 years old, and were in their second year of studying French at secondary level.

Students in the intervention schools seemed to have had more exposure to the study of French at primary level, with 75% of students in the intervention schools stating in their questionnaire responses that they had been studying French for at least 4 years,

with only 61.5% of students in the remaining schools making a similar statement. However, the 'length of study' was open to students' interpretation and the depth and level of French studied would have greatly varied depending on students' primary school provenance, as well as personal interpretation as to how much exposure amounted to the 'study' of the subject, and this generated some of the questions students had during the administration of the questionnaires - with students needing clarification on how to quantify this, but encouraged to include any period of exposure to the language they could recall. Nonetheless, when asked if they had studied French in primary school, results between the intervention schools and other schools were comparable, with 97.2% of intervention school students and 94.9% of other schools' students confirming that the language had been studied, whatever the extent, whilst in primary school (with 91.7% and 92.3% respectively indicating that the language studied at primary level was French).

3.6.3. Participating teachers

A total of 19 teachers took part in the study, including myself. Each school was assigned a main contact teacher who coordinated the collection and return of questionnaires. The gender and age of teachers was not part of the information collected through questionnaires, as it was not relevant to the study. However, the length of service was sought as it was felt it could have been an influential factor both in terms of teacher experiences and openness to different pedagogies. The average length of teaching service was 9.3 years, with teaching experience ranging from 1 year to 28 years. 42% of teachers had English as their mother tongue, 31.6% French, 10.5% Spanish and 10.5% German, and one teacher was a native Dutch/Flemish speaker.

3.7. Data analysis

3.7.1. Analysis

3.7.1.1. Analysing student and teacher questionnaire data

Data analysis of questionnaire data was guided by the three research questions and the research problems identified through the review of literature. Following the first round of questionnaires in schools B, C, D and E, questionnaires were allocated an identifying student code and school code. All responses were coded. Coding was derived from answers provided by students and teachers. Data were then exported to SPSS for analysis. Analysis followed a three-step approach: A first round of descriptive, frequency analysis was carried out, serving to gather basic data as well as identifying salient and/or recurring themes worthy of further investigation. As the data were not normally distributed and were mainly ordinal in nature, the initial frequency analysis was followed by non-parametric analysis of correlations between key aspects, and where comparison between schools was required, Mann Whitney U tests were carried out. This second step served to test findings from the literature review as well as to further explore frequency analysis findings. Finally, for the two intervention schools, where a post-test questionnaire was administered, Wilcoxon signed rank tests and McNemar tests were carried out to observe changes between time one and time two of the intervention.

3.7.1.2. Analysing semi-structured interview data

Interviews were recorded, transcripts written, and read through. Transcripts were taken verbatim in order to reduce possible researcher bias (Halcomb & Davidson, 2006), and to fully recount the participating teachers' views. Upon initial reading of the transcripts, salient points were highlighted and coded by key theme, and those

were subsequently used to supplement qualitative data collected from the questionnaires, as detailed in the analysis section.

3.7.1.3. Analysing lesson observation notes data

As lesson observations were only used as a supplementary instrument, coding was carried out only on relevant information gathered within the key themes identified in questionnaires (De Munck & Sobo, 1998). Notes were read through following observations, and relevant points distributed according to the research question and problems they could serve to supplement.

3.7.1.4. Analysing teaching log and learning log data

Teaching logs and learning logs were also only used as a supplementary instrument. Teachers and Teaching Assistants' notes were transcribed, key themes identified and student comments linked to the research questions and problems.

3.7.2. Reliability and validity

The intention in conducting the study was to select intervention schools where students would have had a limited experience of using CLIL pedagogy and materials as a means to develop learners' intercultural understanding, in order to ascertain more clearly if the intervention resources used had had any impact on various aspects of students' learning and development of intercultural understanding. For this purpose, at the selection stage, I did not contact schools which I knew had already trialled CLIL, or those who were more experienced and/or at the forefront of CLIL innovation, as it was assumed likely that attitudes and practice would have been different.

Consideration was given to the validity of using my own class in the intervention: being relatively new to the school, I made a conscious effort to not use any resources related to the proposed pedagogy to be investigated, and in effect, prior to delivering

the intervention materials as part of the study, I followed, as all teachers did in the Department, an existing scheme of work, which was not devised by myself but which had already been put in place by my predecessor. To ensure the reliability of this approach with my own class, I also purposefully waited until the start of my second academic year in the school I had just joined as Head of Faculty, and selected a group I had not met before.

Neither answers nor outcomes of the quiz were shared with students in intervention groups, as it would have affected the reliability and validity of running the questionnaire and quiz again in the final phase of the study. This also avoided any possible impact on their confidence level.

I also chose to administer the questionnaire myself in all schools, to reassure students that this was not a test, and to remove higher stakes from completing work with their own teacher.

3.8. Research considerations and limitations

3.8.1. Limitations of the study

3.8.1.1. Practical limitations

Practical considerations were taken into account, such as the ease of access for the selection of participating schools, and the limited time available to me as a practising teacher and Head of Faculty. Therefore, the small scope of the study was an inherent limitation, albeit an unavoidable one. Although the study aimed to sample 120 students and 20 teachers, in the end the sample was reduced to 94 students and 15 teachers, owing to some students and parents not giving consent, and also through student absence during the administration of the questionnaires or the delivery of the intervention materials where applicable. In addition, the limited number of schools prepared to participate in a small scale study (which would, for the intervention

schools to a greater extent, interfere with their busy schedules and curriculum delivery), had to be factored in, and selecting a suitable sample of participating schools proved more difficult than anticipated. However, both large scale research and classroom-based inquiry have their place in developing the knowledge base on CLIL practices and outcomes (Coyle et al., 2010).

3.8.1.2. Methodological limitations

Because CLIL and intercultural learning are by nature highly contextualised, it is difficult for any study to draw generalisable, transferable conclusions (Coyle et al., 2010). The intervention phase of the study was seeking to establish if certain materials would prove suitable in developing learners' intercultural understanding. In doing so, a number of limitations were taken into account, namely:

- The small scale of the study;

- The difficulty in comparing outcomes when taking into account the many variables which may account for learners' perceptions,

- The challenge in finding truly comparable contexts, in the knowledge that culture is a highly contextualised concept constructed through social, institutional and national influential factors.

In light of the above, a purely evaluative or experimental approach to the inquiry was neither suitable nor possible. For instance, the research had to rely on willing participants and existing groups of learners, rather than randomly, closely matched allocated groups. Furthermore, as discussed in the literature review, there is a distinction to be made between knowledge and competence, highlighting the importance of knowing how to use what we learn over knowledge we may have accrued (Marsh & Langé, 2000), and therefore simply quantifying the learners' knowledge before and following intervention would not serve to describe fully their

attitudes and perceptions, whether changed or not. In addition, there is also a growing acknowledgement that it may be more suitable to evaluate the achievements of CLIL learners rather than comparing them with their peers in 'control' groups (Coyle et al., 2010). As a result, although questionnaires were designed and administered to all groups to gauge learners' perceptions, attitudes and cultural knowledge, a post-test was only conducted with the intervention groups in schools B and C, and not with schools D and E, where students had not been exposed to the CLIL materials. Tools such as semi-structured teacher interviews, lesson observations, teacher self-reflection logs and records of learners' comments were also used with a view that they could provide an additional insight into perceptions and attitudes to the main findings from the teachers and students' questionnaires.

3.8.3. Ethical considerations

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. Prior to the testing phase, consents were obtained from the headteachers, parents, students and teachers of all schools and classes involved. In addition, information sheets were designed and provided for all parties, as was is important to inform learners and their parents on the benefits and processes associated with a CLIL approach (Coyle et al, 2010). This was also in line with the University of Reading's ethical guidelines and processes. All forms, letters, questionnaires, structured interview schedules and information sheets were also submitted successfully for approval to the University's Ethical Committee (Appendix 7). Each student was asked to ensure their questionnaire was kept anonymous, with each of them generating their own code by using their initials and numbers related to their date of birth. I administered and collected all questionnaires myself.

The issue of power was considered carefully in the design and implementation of the study. Colleagues approached as a first contact in participating schools were Heads of Department, like me, and therefore less likely to perceive attempts to trial a new pedagogy as an imposition, and more as a collegial enterprise involving peers of a similar professional status and standing. Furthermore, one of the intervention schools was my own. Consequently, extra care was taken, and I also considered my position as Head of Faculty when asking teachers in my own school to complete the teacher questionnaires: in addition to providing teachers with the information sheet, I spoke to them as a group about the project and assured them that the information given would not be used to evaluate them in any way, and questionnaires were returned in unnamed envelopes via my pigeonhole in the staffroom, rather than by hand directly from teachers. As Head of Faculty, I was responsible for their ongoing Performance Management and evaluation, and therefore I did not want them to either feel obliged to participate or, if they chose to do so, to have concerns as to whether any questionnaire answers, for example, may be used for the purpose of teacher evaluation. Some of the teachers chose not to participate, while some completed the questionnaire and a few also volunteered to take part in the interviews.

I also felt it important for my students to understand that this project was separate from their usual work, and that any work done as part of this would not be used towards their own assessment and evaluation. In addition, when administering the questionnaires with my own class, I asked my teaching assistant to collect these, to reassure students of the anonymity of their responses. Finally, I also clearly explained to students and parents that they were not obliged to participate in the questionnaire and indeed one student and their parents in my class did not consent to

participation, a clear indication that their participation and responses were not unduly affected by my status as their teacher and Head of Department.

3.9. Summary

This chapter has sought to re-establish the aim of this study, as well as providing an insight into the research design and participants' selection process, and the research instruments used to gather pertinent data. An outline of the data collection and analysis processes was given. To conclude, this section also provided a reflection on issues of reliability, validity and the limitations of the study, as well as a summary of the ethical considerations which were raised throughout this study. I will now give a detailed analysis of the data gathered in order to determine the key findings of the research project.

CHAPTER 4 – RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

As detailed in the previous chapter, a mixed-method approach was followed in order to gather data, through the use of student questionnaires, teacher questionnaires, lesson observations, teacher interviews, and teaching and learning logs. Data gathered sought to address the research problems identified in the literature review, in turn providing answers to the three broad research questions.

In this chapter, a first section aims to discuss findings relevant to the first research question:

How much importance do learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of Intercultural Understanding (ICU) within MFL education?

In particular, findings focusing on the following research issues will be useful in providing a response to this question:

- How do teachers define culture?

- What place does intercultural teaching have in language teachers' beliefs?

- Do learners value intercultural learning?

A second section will provide insight relevant to the following research problems, in turn providing evidence towards the second research question of the study: ***To what extent is ICU incorporated in MFL teaching and learning?***

- What place does intercultural teaching have in language teachers' practice?

- What place is given to intercultural learning from learners' perspective?

- To what extent does learners' context influence how they value intercultural learning?

- Are there any perceived constraints to the implementation of intercultural teaching?

The third section will detail the findings pertaining to the following three research issues:

- Which materials are best suited for intercultural teaching?

- Can intercultural teaching develop cultural knowledge acquisition?

- Can CLIL pedagogy and teaching materials positively impact on the development of learners' intercultural understanding?

The above will serve to gather evidence towards responding to the third research question of the study: *To what extent can CLIL materials develop learners' ICU?*

Within each section, findings from students and teachers' questionnaires will be presented first, as questionnaires were the primary instruments for the purpose of this study; the main findings will be supplemented by data obtained from interviews, lesson observations, teaching and learning logs, where relevant. Non-parametric statistics were used because of the small sample size, non-normal distribution of the data and the ordinal nature of the responses.

4.2. How much importance do learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of Intercultural Understanding (ICU) within MFL education?

4.2.1. How do teachers define culture?

A range of definitions were offered to teachers, from which to select that which best matched their own. In addition, teachers had the opportunity to state their own definition if they so wished. The largest proportion of teachers (47.4%) defined

culture as 'shared and observable customs, habits, and behaviours'. Other definitions

and frequency of responses are detailed in the table below.

Table 4.1.
Teachers' definition of culture, in %
(N=19)

	% (Frequency)
Shared and observable customs, habits, behaviours	**47.4** (9)
Shared history, geography and politics	**15.8** (3)
What is shared by a group and sets them apart from others	**15.8** (3)
Cultural heritage	**10.5** (2)
Own definition	**10.5** (2)

The two teachers who offered their own definition viewed culture as 'what a society

has in common, built and inherited', and the 'opportunity to learn about all aspects

(from those listed) respectively.

4.2.2. What place does intercultural teaching in language teachers' beliefs?

The stated place of ICU within MFL

The majority of teachers (78.9%) stated that intercultural teaching should form an

integral part of language teaching. Only a small proportion of teachers (10.5%) said

it should be an add-on. When teachers were asked, in the questionnaire, to rank

aspects of language learning according to importance, most identified speaking skills

as the most important aspect (47.4%), followed by vocabulary acquisition and

retention (42.1%). Listening skills and grammar were only ranked as most important

by 5.3% of teachers each, and reading skills, writing skills and cultural awareness

were not identified by any teacher surveyed as the most important aspect of language

learning. However, reading skills were ranked as third most important by 26.3% of

teachers, and so were writing skills. In stark contrast, cultural awareness was ranked least important by 63.1% of all teachers, with a further 10.6% ranking this aspect in sixth position, one before 'least important'. It was also interesting to note that two teachers annotated their questionnaire in this section, to comment on the difficulty of ranking these different aspects of language learning.
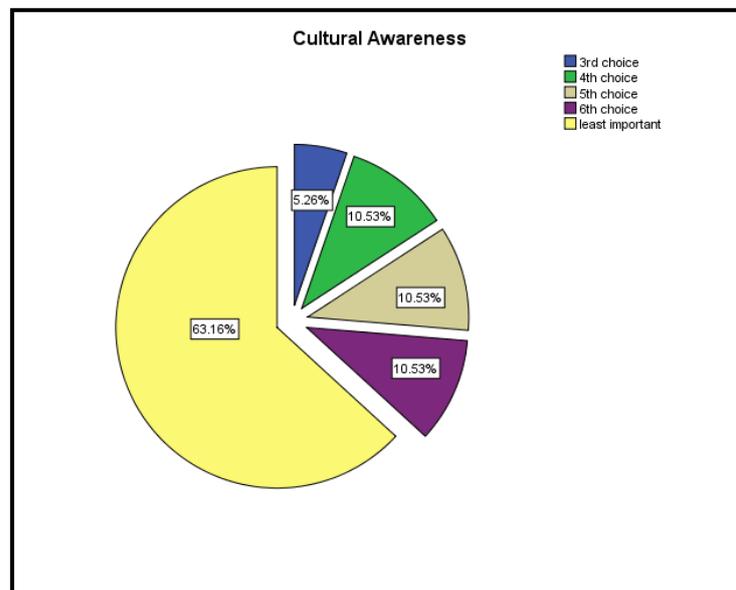
Figure 4.1. The place of cultural awareness in language teaching according to teachers of MFL

(N=19)

Teachers were also asked to number in order of importance the five most important attributes that constitute a successful language learner (1 being the most important).

Table 4.2.
Desired language learners' attributes, as ranked by teachers, in %
(N =19)

Item	Ranked 1st	Ranked 2nd	Ranked 3rd	Ranked 4th	Ranked 5th	Cumulative
	% (Frequency)					
Positive attitude	26.3 (5)	21.1 (4)	10.5 (2)	10.5 (2)	0 (0)	68.4 (13)
Understanding of grammar	0 (0)	15.8 (3)	5.3 (1)	26.3 (5)	15.8 (3)	63.2 (12)
Interest for the subject	31.6 (6)	5.3 (1)	5.3 (1)	10.5 (2)	10.5 (2)	63.2 (12)
Motivation	15.8 (3)	21.1 (4)	15.8 (3)	0 (0)	5.3 (1)	58 (11)
Sense of curiosity	10.5 (2)	26.3 (5)	10.5 (2)	10.5 (2)	0 (0)	57.8 (11)
Ability to memorise a large amount of vocabulary over time	10.5 (2)	0 (0)	26.3 (5)	10.5 (2)	0 (0)	47.3 (9)
Knowledge of a wide range of vocabulary	0 (0)	0 (0)	10.5 (2)	10.5 (2)	10.5 (2)	31.5 (6)
Open-mindedness	0 (0)	5.3 (1)	5.3 (1)	5.3 (1)	10.5 (2)	26.4 (5)
Good pronunciation	0 (0)	5.3 (1)	5.3 (1)	5.3 (1)	10.5 (2)	26.4 (5)
Ability to write at length and accurately	0 (0)	0 (0)	5.3 (1)	0 (0)	10.5 (2)	15.8 (3)
Ability to understand and use idioms	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5.3 (1)	5.3 (1)	10.6 (2)
Spends time abroad practising the language	5.3 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5.3 (1)	10.6 (2)
Knowledge about cultural facts	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	10.5 (2)	10.5 (2)
Understanding of differing social conventions and customs	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5.3 (1)	0 (0)	5.3 (1)
Fluency	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5.3 (1)	5.3 (1)
Sense of empathy	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)

In doing so, the most valued attributes were interest for the subject (31.6%), followed by a positive attitude (26.3%) and motivation (15.8%). As a first attribute, open mindedness, a sense of empathy, understanding of customs or knowledge of cultural facts did not feature. When considering the top five attributes cumulatively, a positive attitude was the most featured attribute (68.4%) followed by a good understanding of grammar and interest for the subject (both with 63.2%). While a sense of curiosity featured quite highly (57.8%), open-mindedness, cultural knowledge and understanding of customs ranked lower overall (26.4%, 10.5% and 5.3% respectively), while a sense of empathy failed to be ranked by any teacher within the top five language learner attributes.

4.2.2.1. Supplementary findings on teachers' beliefs

The stated place of intercultural teaching and learning was also reflected in teachers' interviews, and seemed to consolidate the view of many (78.9%) that intercultural teaching should form an integral part of language teaching.

Teacher B:

'In an ideal world, culture would form part of all lessons'.

Teacher D:

'Little but often is my method of teaching culture.'

Motivation, which ranked quite highly within the first five language learners' attributes ranked by teachers, was also related by some to intercultural teaching and learning during the interview process.

Teacher H:

'The first few years of my teaching career (I've been teaching 12 years now) allowed for a good mixture of learning and assessing a language, and bringing in the cultural element. It was making learning more fun and relevant for those learning a language and helped them sustain that interest for longer.'

4.2.3. Do learners value intercultural learning?

4.2.3.1. Learners' attitudes towards language learning

Learners' attitudes were established through the student questionnaires and the learning logs. A key aspect was to gauge students' enjoyment of language learning, as a potentially determining factor for other responses.

Table 4.3.
Learners' responses to the question: 'Do you enjoy learning languages?', in %
(N=75)

	Yes	No
	% (Frequency)	
Total Participating Students	65.3 (49)	34.7 (26)
School B	62.5 (10)	37.5 (6)
School C	70 (14)	30 (6)
School D	70 (14)	30 (6)
School E	57.9 (11)	42.1 (8)

To ensure that there was no significant association between learners' enjoyment and the school or school type, a Chi-square test was run, and the probability was found to be not significant (Chi Square= .906; p=.829).

When asked to give a reason for enjoying the study of French, the main reason given was that it was fun or enjoyable, by 28% of respondents. This was followed by the fact that it was judged to be interesting and / or different, with 9.3% of respondents citing this as their main reason for enjoying the learning of French. Only 5.9% of all respondents cited 'learning about France, French culture, French people' as their main source of enjoyment. In addition, only 2% of respondents stated that the main reason for enjoying learning French was that 'it is good to know more than one language'.

A significant proportion of students who said they did not like learning French chose the statement 'it is boring, it lacks interest' as the reason for this (53% of students). 20% of those students also said it was because they found the subject difficult and a further 10% because they felt that 'there is no need to learn another language'. The distribution for all given reasons is given in figure 4.2.
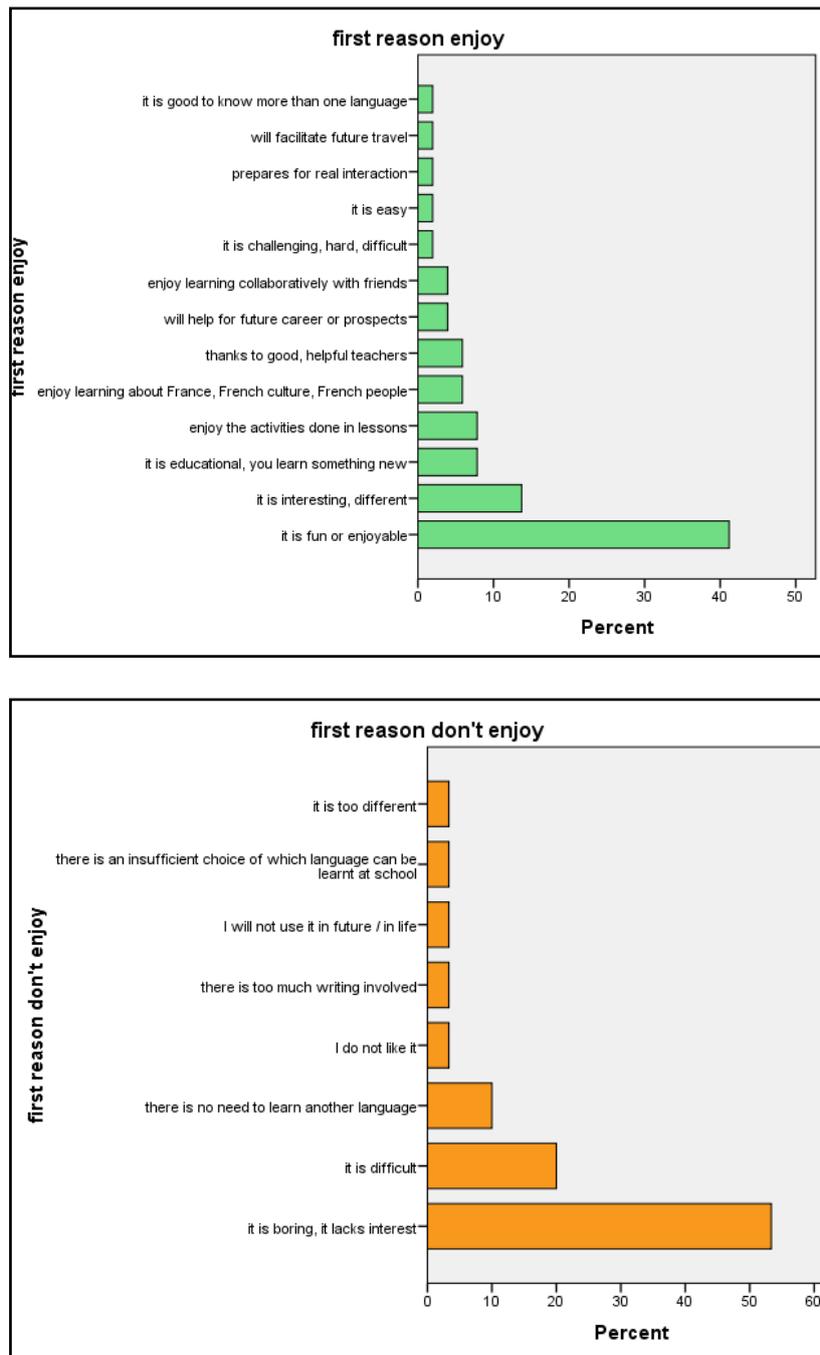
Figure 4.2. Learners' reasons for enjoying and not enjoying language learning (N=75)

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4.2.3.2. Learners' attitudes towards intercultural learning

Students were also asked to comment on which aspects of their language learning they valued the most. Responses are summarised in the table below, showing each aspect's ranking level.

Table 4.4.
Learners' views on aspects of language learning, ranked in order of importance (%)
(N=75)

	most important	2nd choice	3rd choice	4th choice	5th choice	6th choice	7th choice	8th choice	least important
	% (Frequency)								
being able to have a conversation	34.9 (22)	15.9 (10)	7.9 (5)	12.7 (8)	12.7 (8)	6.3 (4)	3.2 (2)	4.8 (3)	1.6 (1)
being able to write in the language	1.6 (1)	16.1 (10)	25.8 (16)	14.5 (9)	16.1 (10)	9.7 (6)	11.3 (7)	3.2 (2)	1.6 (1)
being able to understand people	32.8 (21)	21.9 (14)	12.5 (8)	10.9 (7)	9.4 (6)	10.9 (7)	1.6 (1)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)
being able to read information and texts	9.7 (6)	9.7 (6)	16.1 (10)	29.0 (18)	11.3 (7)	4.8 (3)	6.5 (4)	12.9 (8)	0.0 (0)
being able to meet new people who speak the language	7.9 (5)	11.1 (7)	12.7 (8)	12.7 (8)	17.5 (11)	12.7 (8)	11.1 (7)	14.3 (9)	0.0 (0)
learning and knowing a lot of words and sentences	3.2 (2)	0.0 (0)	12.9 (8)	3.2 (2)	9.7 (6)	22.6 (14)	29.0 (18)	16.1 (10)	3.2 (2)
being able to make accurate sentences	0.0 (0)	8.1 (5)	9.7 (6)	6.5 (4)	16.1 (10)	17.7 (11)	22.6 (14)	16.1 (10)	3.2 (2)
learning about the people and the country	11.3 (7)	12.9 (8)	1.6 (1)	8.1 (5)	1.6 (1)	14.5 (9)	11.3 (7)	32.3 (20)	6.5 (4)
other ranked	11.8 (2)	11.8 (2)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	17.6 (3)	5.9 (1)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	52.9 (9)

As the table shows, students favoured skills relating to verbal communication. This compared with a much lower proportion of students where first responses cited learning about the people and the country, or being able to meet new people who speak the language as the most important aspects in learning a language.

Learners were also asked to rank aspects of language learning in order of perceived value.

Table 4.5.
The value of language learning according to learners, in %
(N=60)

	most important	2nd choice	3rd choice	4th choice	5th choice	6th choice	least important
	% (Frequency)						
It can get you a better job later	32.3 (20)	24.2 (15)	19.4 (12)	3.2 (2)	11.3 (7)	3.2 (2)	4.8 (3)
It can help you get into university	28.3 (17)	28.3 (17)	15.0 (9)	10.0 (6)	6.7 (4)	6.7 (4)	5.0 (3)
It gives you access to more jobs	16.7 (10)	26.7 (16)	30.0 (18)	8.3 (5)	6.7 (4)	11.7 (7)	0.0 (0)
It helps you meet people from different countries	10.0 (6)	5.0 (3)	10.0 (6)	21.7 (13)	18.3 (11)	18.3 (11)	16.7 (10)
It can help you understand and use your own language better	6.7 (4)	1.7 (1)	13.3 (8)	11.7 (7)	20.0 (12)	23.3 (14)	23.3 (14)
It can help you understand how people may do things differently	6.6 (4)	3.3 (2)	3.3 (2)	27.9 (17)	24.6 (15)	14.8 (9)	19.7 (12)
You can use the language when you go on holidays	3.3 (2)	10.0 (6)	8.3 (5)	16.7 (10)	10.0 (6)	21.7 (13)	30.0 (18)
I don't think learning a language is important	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	100.0 (8)	0.0 (0)

Items which reflected a practical, instrumental worth such as getting access to better or more jobs, and / or improved access to higher education, were the most prominent, with a cumulative 77.3% of first responses. The one item explicitly relating to communication: *'You can use the language when you go on holidays',* represented only 3.3% of first responses, an interesting finding considering that learners had previously stated that communication skills were most important in ranking language learning skills, indicating a difference in the perceived value attributed by learners to communication, when considering its role in language acquisition as opposed to its broader perceived worth / value. In this latter sense, communication was perceived has having less value than aspects relating to learners' willingness and openness to finding out about other cultures and ways of life, represented by statements such as

'It helps you meet people from different countries' and *'It can help you understand how people may do things differently'* taken cumulatively with 16.6% of first responses. Furthermore, when adding to these two aspects the statement '*It can help you understand and use your own language better*', which can be viewed as a representation of the learners' ability to reflect on their own language and therefore, culture, the cumulative broad value attributed by learners to cultural aspects increases to 23.3% of first responses.

This was further reinforced by learners' apparent motivation for cultural learning: of all students surveyed 56% responded positively to the statement *'I want to learn more about French-speaking countries and people',* 70.6% to the statement '*I like to learn about different people'*, and 82.6% to the statement *'I like to learn about different countries'*.

A Mann Whitney U test was conducted to examine whether levels of enjoyment differed according to students' motivation for developing intercultural understanding. The test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between students depending on whether they showed an interest in developing their knowledge and understanding of other countries (z =4.156, p<.001), with students who were open to learning about other countries more likely to enjoy learning languages. A further Mann Whitney U tests revealed that learners' enjoyment of language learning differed at a statistically significant level according to whether they liked to learn about different countries or not (z=4.134, p< .001).

4.3. To what extent is ICU incorporated in MFL teaching and learning?

4.3.1. What place does intercultural teaching in language teachers' practice?

4.3.1.1. The place of ICU within assessment frameworks

When asked if their main objective was to ensure their students' success in formal assessments and examinations, 84.2% of teachers either agreed or strongly agreed. It was of little surprise therefore, that 89.5% of them also stated that the content of what they taught was determined by the requirements of assessments and examinations. While the majority of teachers felt that intercultural understanding should be an integral part of language teaching and learning, the proportion of teachers who felt that ICU should be included in assessments and examinations was less clearly defined, as detailed in the table below.

Table 4.6.
Teachers' response to the statement '*Cultural Understanding should be included in formal assessments and examinations*', in %
(N=19)

Item	% (Frequency)
Strongly Agree	26.3 (5)
Agree	31.6 (6)
Unsure	26.3 (5)
Disagree	5.3 (1)
Strongly Disagree	5.3 (1)
unanswered	5.3 (1)

While 57.9% of teachers agreed or strongly agreed that ICU should be part of assessments and examinations, 42.2% were still unsure or in disagreement about this.

For instance, Teacher G, who stated in the interview:

'I really don't believe that cultural understanding should be included in formal assessments, because students are not able to choose their teacher, and each teacher has a separate background and experiences.'

4.3.2. What place is given to intercultural learning from learners' perspective?

In Section 4 of the questionnaire, students were presented with a number of statements about their attitudes, experiences and perceptions, to which they were asked to respond in the positive or negative. Some of these statements sought to establish their current level of exposure to intercultural learning activities and experiences both inside and outside the classroom.

To the statement ***'We spend a lot of time in lessons finding out about French-speaking countries and people',*** of all students surveyed 54.6% agreed. To the statement ***'We sometimes do projects / homework in which we have to find out more about French-speaking countries and people',*** of all students surveyed 74.6% said that they did not get such opportunities. In addition, of all students surveyed 53.3% said they did not seek to find out things for themselves about French-speaking countries and people.

To the statement ***'I have travelled to France before',*** of all students surveyed 54.6% said they had travelled to France before. Only 17.3% said they had ever been on a school trip to France. Furthermore, of all students surveyed 80% said they had met French-speaking people before.

4.3.3. To what extent does learners' context influence how they value intercultural learning?

As both language and culture are highly contextualised, key elements of learners' context were also identified. This included their perception of language learning within their school context, as well as their own personal context, at home. Learners were first asked to rank the extent to which language learning was popular in their school context.

Table 4.7.
Perceived popularity of languages in school, according to learners, in %
(N=75)

Item	% (Frequency)
languages are very popular	**1.3** (1)
languages are popular	**9.3** (7)
languages are quite popular	**45.3** (34)
languages are not very popular	**41.3** (31)
languages are not popular at all	**2.7** (2)
Total	**100.0** (75)

As shown by the table, the perceived popularity of languages among students was difficult to establish, with a similar proportion of students stating that languages were quite popular in their school compared to those who stated they were not very popular. When positive perceptions were grouped together (very popular / popular / quite popular), there was a slightly higher proportion of students who felt positively about the popularity of languages in their school context (56%).

The perceived popularity of Languages in learners' school was a highly contextualised question, and therefore, as expected, this was one of the few areas of

the questionnaire in which responses varied greatly by school, in particular where students were asked to give reasons.

In school B, the two main reasons for the perceived popularity of Languages as a curriculum subject were that it is considered fun to study and enjoyable, with 28.6% of the respondents for each reason. On the other hand, school B, among students who felt that Languages were not popular, it was because 55.6% disliked it, and a further 33.3% stating it was due to the subject lacking interest.

In School C, 40% of students stated enjoyment as a reason for the popularity of Languages, and 30% the fact that the subject has a prominent place on the school's timetable. However, 28.6% of students felt it was unpopular and said this was because they disliked it, with the same proportion citing the difficulty of the subject as a reason.

In school D, Languages were seen as a popular subject choice at KS4 by 53.3%, and therefore students implied that this equated to the subject being popular. A further 33.3% of students in the school cited enjoyment as the main reason for the subject's popularity. Nonetheless, 30% of students who felt the subject was unpopular felt this was because it was boring and lacked interest.

In School E only two reasons were cited for the popularity of Languages in the curriculum: 66.7% cited the fact that it was an interesting subject as the main reason for its popularity, while 33.3% of students said it was because the subject was enjoyable. On the other hand, 33.3% of students who viewed the subject as unpopular attributed this to the fact that students simply disliked it.

A Mann Whitney U test was conducted to examine whether levels of enjoyment of French differed in relation to the perceived popularity of French as a curriculum subject. The test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between

students depending on whether they perceived languages to be popular within their school context (z=2.077, p=.038), with students who perceived languages as unpopular more likely to not enjoy languages themselves.

Home context was also taken into consideration. The stated Home Language for all students without exception was English. When asked to respond in the positive or negative to the statement: '***Everybody can speak English***', however, 88% of all students surveyed acknowledged that not everybody can speak English, and therefore that English was not viewed as a Lingua Franca by the vast majority of students.

When asked to respond to the statement: '***My parents / guardians think languages are important***', of all students surveyed 61.3% said that their parents or guardians thought that languages are important. A Mann Whitney U test was conducted to examine whether levels of enjoyment of French differed by parental attitudes towards language learning. The test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between students depending on whether their parents perceived languages to be important (z= 4.428, p< .001), with students whose parents perceived languages as unimportant more likely to not enjoy languages themselves.

4.3.4. Are there any perceived constraints to the implementation of intercultural teaching?

4.3.4.1. Low motivation: Lack of ability vs. lack of cognitive challenge

The perceived popularity of Languages as a curriculum subject among teachers was overall positive, with a cumulative 68.4% of teachers perceiving languages as popular or quite popular within their school context. No teacher however rated Languages as 'very popular' on the given scale. Some teachers commented in the interview that this was related to the ability level of some learners:

Teacher A:

'MFL isn't very popular, especially with lower ability students.'

Teacher C however felt this may be due to the perceived lack of progress and cognitive challenge presented to learners:

'Students often seem to be disinterested because of how basic the topics are; they lack relevance to them, especially as they cover more complex and challenging topics in other subjects [...] I think also, because we often teach from word, to sentence, to text level, students might feel that they are making too little progress, and they might then think that they're not good in this subject as a result, so I can see how off-putting this could be as a learner.'

4.3.4.2. Lack of intercultural opportunities

The place of trips and visits to French-speaking countries was important for a majority of the teachers surveyed, with 68.4% of all teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing that they were important in the development of intercultural understanding for students. However, whilst this was an important aspect of developing ICU, many teachers (52.7%) also noted that few of their students had had the opportunity to enjoy a visit or trip to a French-speaking country, with a further 5.3% unsure as to whether or not they had been given this opportunity. Trips and visits abroad also featured in several teachers' interviews:

Teacher A:

'There are not a lot of opportunities for students to go abroad; ours can only go to one residential trip to France, and they can also join the annual ski trip to Austria - but because it's not Languages led the focus isn't really on developing language.'

Teacher C:

'We can't do exchanges anymore; when I was learning a language, that's the experience I remember the most, and they're the best trips to really develop language skills. But now we can't do exchanges anymore, there are so many potential issues to do with safeguarding, and schools just don't want to take the risk anymore.'

Teacher G:

'I think my students do have opportunities to travel abroad on a regular basis, but that's if we count holidays with the family. Even though we run a few trips here, they're only open to certain year groups and only for 30 or 40 kids at once.'

4.3.4.3. The influence of learners' context

The perceived level to which the subject was valued within teachers' school context was more nuanced, with the same proportion (68.4%) stating that Languages was valued by 'some', rather than 'all' or 'most'. Parental attitudes were also seen by some teachers in the interview as a potential barrier to students' motivation for learning languages and for the development on intercultural understanding:

Teacher G:

'I think that MFL is a valued subject in school, but pupils don't always see the relevance, and parents aren't always that encouraging'.

4.3.4.4. Educational policy context as a barrier to ICU

A level of uncertainty was also a recurrent theme, especially where the place of Languages in the curriculum could be seen as fluctuating and therefore its status as unstable. This was reflected in Teacher G's interview:

'I think that language learning is promoted and supported in this school as they are obligatory in KS4. As we are getting a new Headteacher, this may change'.

Teacher A also reflected this flux in the status of Languages:

'Languages were only compulsory for one year, they're not any longer.'

While the view of teachers on this aspect was divided, regardless of their preference with regards to the place of ICU in formal assessment frameworks, none of the teachers could agree, strongly or otherwise, with the questionnaire statement ***'The current examination model takes into account and rewards cultural understanding'***, with 89.5% either disagreeing or strongly disagreeing, and the same proportion of teachers finding that the current examination model was actually acting

as a barrier to the development of intercultural understanding. This aspect also featured regularly in teachers' interviews:

Teacher B:

'The current GCSE exams don't take culture into account at all, and actually prevent teachers from allocating time in lessons to do this.'

Teacher C:

'I feel that the way we assess students, especially at KS4, stops teachers and students from learning anything apart from the language they need for the exams.'

Teacher F:

'KS4 is a really poor foundation for helping the students to appreciate the culture of learning another language. The Speaking Controlled Assessment, in particular, is not indicative of what a genuine experience in speaking French should be, and it's not very interactive at all. Role Plays were much better [...] Unfortunately, today, everything is measured in exam success, so there's little time to develop a love or appreciation for the culture of the country [...] KS4 seems to always be about Controlled Assessments, which is a shame - but it's weighed at 60% so you can't really ignore it!'

Teacher H:

'The pressures from school to prove a child's level mean that more and more, you're focused on moving from unit to unit, and doing regular assessments. This means that lessons based on a pure cultural element get put back or reduced.'

4.3.4.5. Time constraints and the planning of materials for teaching ICU

94.7% of teachers stated in the questionnaire that they planned their own teaching materials (cumulative total of strongly agree / agree responses) - with teachers planning the materials for the delivery of the content prescribed by the textbook, rather than setting their own sequencing or linguistic or topical content. Within their own school, 89.5% of teachers said they shared resources with colleagues, therefore implying that some of the resources they used themselves were borrowed. Interestingly however, only 47.4% of them stated that they shared materials with colleagues outside of their own school. Both findings relating to the collegiality aspect in material design and use can also be related to the finding that 57.9% of teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed when asked if they had time to plan

their own teaching resources, with a further 21.1% unsure. This lack of planning time

can therefore be seen both as motivation for collegiality with immediate colleagues,

and as a barrier to collegiality beyond the boundaries of teachers' own schools. The

issue of time constraints on the planning of materials for teaching was also reflected

in teachers' interviews:

Teacher A:

'I just don't have enough time during PPA to plan my own resources.'

Teacher G:

'While I'm happy to create my own resources, I do like to have a textbook to fall back on for good reading and listening exercises. Creating these from scratch would be too time-consuming and I find the structure of using a textbook both beneficial for teachers and pupils.'

In addition to the lack of time as a barrier to planning materials (whether for ICU or

not), the issue of lack of instrumental value attributed to planning materials for

developing ICU was also identified in some teacher interviews:

Teacher A:

'Especially at KS4, the content of what I teach is determined by the exam. The main objective [at Key Stage 4] is to ensure exam success. The only reference I may make to cultural aspects is when we cover things like festivals [a topic on the examination syllabus].'

This reinforces the view that cultural aspects are only covered in so far as they

respond to an instrumental need to learn the language for the purpose of examination

success, rather than as a worthwhile aspect of language learning in its own right.

4.4. To what extent can CLIL materials develop learners' ICU?

Students were asked in the questionnaire to rank how often each type of materials

from a list was used during their language lessons. The vast majority (83.3%)

reported that their teacher(s) almost always used their own slides and presentations

during lessons, rising to 93% when also taking into account those who stated these were often used. This was followed by the use of textbooks, used almost always or often for 68.1% of lessons, and 59.7% for worksheets. 68% of students also reported that quizzes and games were sometimes or often used in lessons.

However, 66.2% of students reported that online resources were only sometimes or rarely used in lessons, and 61.1% for video clips. Furthermore, movies were never or rarely used for 90.3% of lessons, while 71.8% rarely or never had access to songs and poems, and 69% reported that printed works such as books, magazines or newspapers were never used in lessons. The table below details the exact rating for each resource type.

Table 4.8.
Frequency of use of teaching materials in language lessons,
according to learners (%)
(N=75)

Item	almost always	often	sometimes	rarely	never
	% (Frequency)				
teacher's presentations and slides	**83.3** (60)	**9.7** (7)	**4.2** (3)	**2.8** (2)	**0.0** (0)
textbook	**37.5** (27)	**30.6** (22)	**18.1** (13)	**12.5** (9)	**1.4** (1)
worksheets	**26.4** (19)	**33.3** (24)	**27.8** (20)	**9.7** (7)	**2.8** (2)
quizzes and games	**19.4** (14)	**44.4** (32)	**23.6** (17)	**9.7** (7)	**2.8** (2)
online resources	**5.6** (4)	**14.1** (10)	**35.2** (25)	**31.0** (22)	**11.3** (8)
songs and poems	**2.8** (2)	**4.2** (3)	**18.3** (13)	**21.1** (15)	**50.7** (36)
video clips	**2.8** (2)	**15.3** (11)	**27.8** (20)	**33.3** (24)	**20.8** (15)
magazines, books, newspapers	**1.4** (1)	**4.2** (3)	**4.2** (3)	**18.3** (13)	**69.0** (49)
movies	**0.0** (0)	**0.0** (0)	**6.9** (5)	**48.6** (35)	**41.7** (30)

4.4.1. Learners' preferred materials

Students were asked to rank types of materials in order of preference based on how helpful they found them in learning French, and were asked to list their favourite three. Teachers' presentations and slides were given first preference by 27% of students, second preference by 20.3% and third preference by 20.5%, giving a

cumulative total of 67.8% of students having ranked this type of materials in their top three. Quizzes and games were given first preference by 24.3% of students, second preference by 16.2% and third preference by 16.4%, with a cumulative percentage of 56.9%.The use of textbooks was given first preference by 21.6% of students, and third preference by 16.4%, with a cumulative total of 38%. Finally, worksheets totalled 20.3% of responses, although not mentioned as a first or third preference, but only in second preference category.

Upon listing their three favourite types of learning materials, students were asked to justify their choices. This was an open question and responses were listed and subsequently coded.

The most cited reason for preferring a certain type of material over others was that it helped learning through fun (25% of first responses). 14.7% of students also stated that they favoured certain types of materials because they suited their preferred learning style better, 11.8% said it was because the said resources gave them additional information and helped build their vocabulary base, and 10.3% stated it was because the resources were interactive, whilst the same proportion gave ease of understanding as the main factor for favouring particular types of materials. Figure 4.3 details the frequency analysis for all stated first reasons given for materials preference.

first reason for favourite resource type

- it helps you learn through fun
- it is better suited to the learner's preferred learning style
- it provides more information / widens vocabulary
- it is easier to understand
- it provides interaction / it engages with the learner
- it helps me to remember more / to learn more / to take in more information
- it is interesting
- it offers a wide choice of tasks and activities
- it is a reliable / accurate resource
- it helps with revisions and exams
- it provides essential knowledge
- it is useful to access future prospects
- it enables the learner to find things out independently
- it gives an opportunity to hear and use the spoken word
- it enables immersion learning

Figure 4.3. Learners' reasons given for preferences of learning materials (N=75)

4.4.2. The use of textbooks

From the literature review, it was apparent that textbooks are often seen as insufficient and at times inadequate mediums for providing learners with intercultural insights (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Baker, 2015; Coyle et al., 2010; Genc & Bada, 2005; Madjarova et al., 2001; Navés, 2009; Pulverness, 2003; Saniei, 2012). Despite this however, textbooks still form a central role in language lessons (Rivers, 1981), and their role was therefore an important one to investigate.

84.2% of all teachers indicated that the scheme of work they followed in their everyday teaching was based on a particular textbook, and 68.4% that the content (topical and grammatical) of what they were teaching was also closely related to the content of this textbook. Some teachers, when interviewed, viewed the use of the textbook as a means to guarantee consistency in the delivery of the languages curriculum, for instance Teacher G:

'When I was doing my PGCE, one school didn't follow a textbook, and because of that the consistency and quality of teaching and resources varied a lot between teachers and between classes.'

Nonetheless, despite the close link between the textbook structure and contents and what was taught, 63.2% of teachers disagreed that they relied on the textbook in their teaching. In addition to this, 52.6% of all teachers surveyed either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement 'I find the topics in the textbook interesting', with a further 15.8% of them unsure.

Interestingly, despite their own negative attitude, 47.4% of them stated they were unsure whether their students found the topics in the textbook interesting themselves, with 26.3% of them also agreeing the topics were of interest to their students.

For students however, despite featuring in the top three of most helpful language learning materials for both boys and girls, and despite being the highest ranked resource for more than a fifth of all students surveyed, when asked if they enjoyed learning from the textbook, the majority of students (66.7%) answered 'no'.

For those students who did enjoy learning using a textbook, the first reason given for this was that the textbook enabled them to understand and learn more (38.5% of students who said they enjoyed using textbooks), with further reasons detailed in figure 4.4.
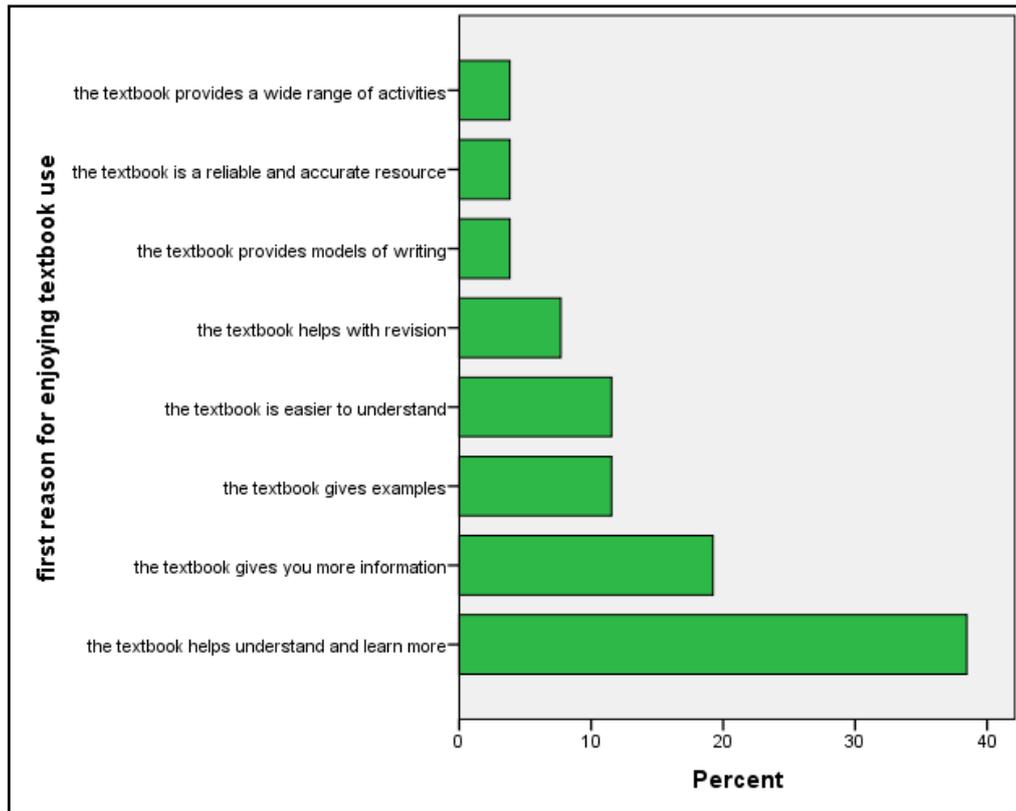
Figure 4.4. Learners' first ranked reason for enjoying the use of the textbook (N=26)

An overwhelming majority (67.3%) of students who disliked using textbooks stated it was because they found them boring, with further reasons detailed in figure 4.5.
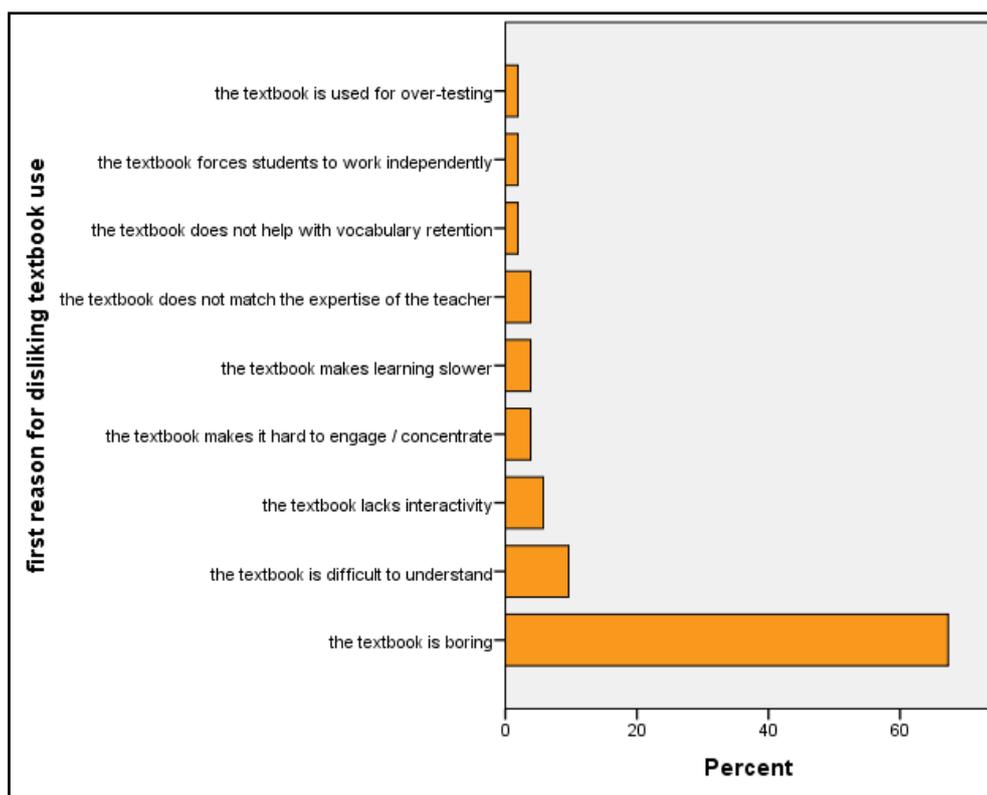
Figure 4.5. Learners' first ranked reason for disliking the use of the textbook (N=52)

In section 4 of the questionnaire about their attitudes, experiences and perceptions, students were also asked to respond in the positive or negative to the statement: '***The textbook helps us find out more about French-speaking countries and people'.*** Of all students surveyed 53.3% felt that the textbooks did not help them find out more about French-speaking countries and people.

This view was shared by teachers, with 68.4% of them finding that textbook did not provide a good insight into the target culture (cumulative total of disagree/strongly disagree to the statement 'Textbooks provide a good insight into the culture of the language being taught/learnt'). Teacher C in particular felt that:

'Cultural aspects in the textbooks are really just tokenistic, and when you're trying to break stereotypes with some students it just doesn't help.'

4.4.3. Which materials are best suited for intercultural teaching?

In planning for materials which promote intercultural understanding, 68.4% of teachers said they felt confident planning their own, and 47.4% of them said they did not prefer ready-made materials for teaching intercultural understanding, with a further 26.3% of teachers feeling unsure that these were the most suitable type of materials for teaching ICU. Teacher H, when asked about ready-made materials during interview, stated:

'I tend not to use ready-made resources when I try to teach something cultural, but of course this depends on what the resource looks like.'

Teachers were also asked to rank a list of materials based on their suitability for teaching intercultural understanding. This list was the same as that provided to students for ranking the materials they found most helpful in learning languages. For teachers, the best type of material for teaching ICU was videos (47.4%). Movies, pictures, internet resources and songs and poems came quite far behind, with 10.5% each. Texts, magazines, newspapers, books were not ranked as the most suitable type of material for teaching ICU by any teacher, possibly reflecting the earlier finding that no teacher had ranked reading skills as the most important aspect of language learning, a perception shared by students with only 9.7% finding reading skills as the most important aspect of language learning. Interestingly however, no teacher felt that quizzes and games provided a good medium through which to teach intercultural understanding, with 31.6% of them actually ranking them as the least useful in doing so. It is also interesting to note that several teachers viewed themselves as the best source for providing learners with cultural insights:

Teacher G:

'I think that the best resource to promote cultural understanding is actually the teacher, through their knowledge and explanations.'

Teacher D however noted that:

'Teachers can only teach culture passionately if they have firsthand experience of the country's culture. The reason why cultural topics and target language tend not to feature is because there can be a lack of teachers' readiness and experience in the target language culture.'

When asked to respond to the statement *'**You can only teach culture through authentic materials**'*, 57.9% of teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed, and a further 10.5% were unsure. When asked if the teaching materials they used came from authentic sources however, teachers' responses were rather mixed and ambiguous. While 42.1% agreed to the statement, the same proportion of teachers surveyed was unsure, possibly owing to the fact that some of the materials used were not of their own design, and may be borrowed from published materials, whether related to a set textbook or other. Teachers also felt that using authentic materials was linked to students' linguistic ability:

Teacher D:

'Books are only useful to develop cultural knowledge and understanding at A Level.'

Teacher E:

'It depends on the students - I use far more authentic documents at Key Stage 5.'

4.4.4. Impact of the intervention on materials use and learners' preferences

In this section, in order to gauge the impact of the intervention lessons, frequency statistics were observed. As the data were not normally distributed, the most suitable statistical test was the Wilcoxon Signed-rank test, and this was conducted where relevant to analyse the pre and post differences in students' responses on key aspects of attitudes, perceptions, experiences and knowledge. For some multiple-choice

responses, pre and post intervention valid percentage scores were also compared, to investigate any change in the distribution of responses.

4.4.4.1. Impact of intervention on learners' perceptions of materials used

When asked at pre-test, learners identified the most frequently used materials as textbooks, followed by teachers' own presentations and slides, quizzes and games and worksheets (Table 4.9). On the other hand, online resources magazines, books and newspapers were not used frequently, and songs, poems, video clips and movies were never or rarely used in lessons. The intervention materials included presentation slides, worksheets, online resources, featured texts from songs and poems, a range of video clips and the study of a full movie related to the topic being covered. It was interesting to note that learners perceived the shift in materials used. The table below presents distribution results pre and post intervention for each category of materials used in lessons, as perceived by learners. Where relevant, the percentage of 'never' responses was also indicated in brackets.

Table 4.9.
Frequency of use of teaching materials in language lessons,
according to learners, pre and post-test (Frequency and %)
(N=36)

Item		almost always/often (Frequency)	almost always/often (%)	rarely/never (Frequency)	rarely/never (%)
textbooks	Pre-test	31	91.2	1	2.9 (0)
	Post-test	**27**	**79.4**	**1**	**2.9 (2.9)**
teacher's presentations / slides	Pre-test	30	88.2	2	5.9
	Post-test	**31**	**88.6**	**2**	**5.7**
quizzes and games	Pre-test	21	61.8	6	17.6
	Post-test	**12**	**38.7**	**6**	**19.3**
worksheets	Pre-test	18	52.9	4	11.7
	Post-test	**17**	**51.5**	**1**	**3.0**
Online resources	Pre-test	11	33.3	11	33.3
	Post-test	**12**	**35.3**	**10**	**29.4**
magazines, books, newspapers	Pre-test	4	12.1	28	84.8 (72.7)
	Post-test	**0**	**0**	**29**	**93.6 (71.0)**
songs and poems	Pre-test	0	0	32	96.9 (72.7)
	Post-test	**0**	**0**	**31**	**96.9 (53.1)**
video clips	Pre-test	0	0	29	85.3 (38.2)
	Post-test	**4**	**12.5**	**22**	**68.8 (18.8)**
movies	Pre-test	0	0	33	97.1 (70.6)
	Post-test	**4**	**12.1**	**23**	**69.7 (6.1)**

When comparing materials use at time 1 and time 2, it was clear that learners had noticed that textbooks were not used as often, and that fewer learners ranked worksheets as rarely or never used. As the materials for the intervention were centred on a set of presentation slides, the distribution for this type of materials use remained fairly constant, as did the perceived use of online resources, since learners only relied on online resources for independent learning and research (in class and at home) during the delivery of the intervention lessons. Although the distribution for songs and poems remained equal pre and post intervention, it is however interesting to note that the proportion of learners who perceive these were never or rarely used decreased from 72.7% to 53.1%, implying that, although they may not have seen these materials as prominent amongst materials used in lessons, more of them were aware of their use, even if limited (only one lesson in the intervention featured the study of songs and poems related to the topic). The most significant changes were for learners' perceptions of the use of video clips and movies in lessons. While both types of resources did not feature frequently in lessons prior to the intervention taking place, learners noted that these were used almost always or often in lessons following the intervention (12.5% and 12.1% respectively). Most significantly, the proportion of students who said video clips never featured in their language learning lessons went from 38.2% to 18.8%, while for movies, this drop was even more striking, going from 70.6% to 6.1%, indicating that the 2-3 lessons taken for the study of a film related to the topic covered had had a significant impact on learners. Wilcoxon Signed rank tests were conducted on all material types to analyse the significance of students' responses pre and post test. While no significant statistical difference was to be noted for many of the materials, there was a significant increase from time 1 to time 2 in the use of video clips ($z = 2.980$, $p = .003$) and movies in

lessons (z = 4.124, p< .001), with a medium effect size for increase in video clips (r = 0.38) and a large increase occurring in particular with movies (r = 0.52). This impact was further evidenced from learners' responses, as recorded in some of the learning logs:

Learner A (School B):

'Oh my god, we are actually watching a movie for the whole lesson, we never watch movies in French!'

Learner B (School C):

'Miss, can you give me the link for the video? It was really good, and I like the music.'

Learner C (School C):

'Are there any other good French films Miss, that was really good. I mean, it was sad, but can we watch another film next lesson?'

Learner D (School B):

'Miss, can I see the box of the DVD? I want to write the name of the movie, can I buy it online, or did you buy it in France?'

4.4.4.2. Impact of intervention on learners' materials preferences

Learners in the intervention schools identified textbooks (59.6%), teachers' slides (56.8%), quizzes and games (53.5%) and online resources (45.3%) among their top three preferred material types for learning languages. Although on the whole there was little change in the overall distribution within the top three favoured material types following the intervention, with textbooks (56.2%), teachers' slides (53%), quizzes and games (53.4%) and online resources (47.6%) still the more prominent within the top three, it was interesting to note that learners had changed their first preferred material type more significantly, as detailed in the table below.

Table 4.10.
Learners' preferred material type, pre and post-test, in %
(N=36)

	Pre-test % (Frequency)	**Post-test %** **(Frequency)**
textbooks	34.3 (12)	**19.4** **(7)**
teacher's presentations / slides	25.7 (9)	**19.4** **(7)**
quizzes and games	11.4 (4)	**5.6** **(2)**
worksheets	11.4 (4)	**5.6** **(2)**
Online resources	11.4 (4)	**25** **(9)**
movies	5.7 (2)	**16.7** **(6)**
magazines, books, newspapers	0 (0)	**0** **(0)**
songs and poems	0 (0)	**0** **(0)**
video clips	0 (0)	**8.3** **(3)**

While magazines, books, newspapers, songs and poems still did not feature as a first choice for learners, this was to be expected as only one intervention lesson out of the 15 delivered was based on the study of songs and poems, while no printed materials were used during the intervention. This lack of change however, couple with the significant shift in preference for the remaining items listed above, seem to indicate that learners, given the opportunity to experience a wide range of material types, can and do discover new preferences, and also that they can only like - or dislike - something they have been exposed to.

Prior to the intervention, students in test schools were equally split with regards to textbooks, with 50% stating they enjoyed using a textbook in language lessons, and the other 50% that they did not. Following the intervention, the proportion of student who stated they did not enjoy using textbooks increased to 69.4%. A McNemar test was performed and found that the increase from time 1 to time 2 in learners' negative opinions on the use of textbooks was not significant (N= 36; p=.065). Nonetheless,

some of the responses from learners, recorded in the learning logs, related to this shift:

Learner E (School B) (after the teacher had been absent due to illness):

'Miss, why did we have to do some boring textbook stuff when you weren't in? The cover didn't want to let us get on with our article, that's rubbish...Can't you make sure we can carry on next time, I just can't be bothered with the book - I swear I will hide them next time!'

Learner F (School B) (to a student from another class coming to borrow textbooks):

'Go ahead, you can keep them, we don't use them anymore!' (in a triumphant tone)

4.4.5. Can intercultural teaching develop cultural knowledge acquisition? Learners' existing cultural knowledge

When asked to respond to the statement: '***I already know a lot about French-speaking countries and people'***, 53.3% of learners said they did not already know a lot about French-speaking countries and people. Teachers shared learners' views, and according to 57.9% of teachers surveyed, learners were not culturally aware. This was reflected in some of the teacher interviews. For instance, Teacher C, when asked about learners' cultural awareness, stated:

'Students' don't even know enough about their own culture so it's hard for them to compare with others', and that's a massive barrier in itself I think. [...] Mind you, that might be our own fault, because a lot of teachers are just too afraid of giving time to teaching cultural stuff at KS3 / KS4, [...] but then we can't really complain at their (students)' lack of awareness.'

In the first part of section 5 of the questionnaire, when comparing total scores pre and post-test, a small increase was noted post-test ($z= .91$, $p= .363$) for the true/false answers, seeking to gauge learners' generic 'big C / little c' cultural knowledge, while in the second section 5, pertaining to learners' specific cultural knowledge, the increase, albeit still small, was more important ($z= 1.71$, $p= .087$, $r = -0.20$). This last

section was asking learners to name three things they knew for each category listed below:

- Things France is famous for;
- Famous French people;
- French words also used in English;
- French cities or towns;
- French brands also found in the UK;
- Countries other than France where French is spoken.

When observing frequencies for each category, the main finding was that, in the categories directly related to the type of factual knowledge developed in the intervention lessons (historical/geographical knowledge), learners were able to name more items post intervention; for instance, when asked about famous French cities and towns, 50% of learners were unable to name more than one, and 61.8% more than two French cities prior to the intervention taking place; following the intervention, these fell to 12.1% and 33.3% respectively. In particular, following the intervention, 16.6% of students cited the village of Oradour-sur-Glane, on which the lessons were based, as one of their first three named places. This was a place unknown to learners prior to the intervention. Similarly, when asked about French-speaking countries, whilst 40% of learners were unable to name more than one prior to the intervention taking place, this fell to 16.7% post intervention. Only 37.5% of learners were unable to name more than two French-speaking countries post intervention, compared to 64% pre intervention. In addition, although learners still had difficulty in recalling famous people's names, an average of 4.5% of learners named a historical figure pre-intervention, and this increased to 9.9% post intervention. A Wilcoxon signed rank test was conducted to establish whether any of the changes in frequency of response was significant (Table 4.11).

Table 4.11.
**Significance of pre/post test responses to the cultural knowledge quiz section
(z and p values)**

Item	N (Pre-test)	N (Post-test)	z value	p value
Naming 3 famous French persons	20	27	.966	.334
Naming 3 cognates	29	29	2.354	.019
Naming 3 French brands	29	24	.072	.943
Naming 3 French cities	34	33	1.897	.058
Naming 3 French-speaking countries (other than France)	25	24	.108	.914
Naming 3 things France is famous for	34	36	.779	.436

As shown by the table, the difference was only significant where naming cognates and French cities were concerned (which approached significance). It could be argued that this was related, as previously mentioned, to the content, both topical and linguistic, of the intervention materials. Topical, since a large proportion of the resources referred to geographical information, and linguistic, in that CLIL materials used in the intervention relied heavily on the use of cognates, and on developing learners' skills in identifying those to aid comprehension.

4.4.6. Can CLIL pedagogy and teaching materials positively impact on the development of learners' intercultural understanding?

4.4.6.1. Impact of intervention on students' attitudes

Before the intervention, 66.7% of students in intervention schools stated that they enjoyed learning French. Following the intervention, the proportion was 63.9%. A McNemar test was run and found that there was no statistically significant difference (N=36, p=1.00). Reasons given by students for their enjoyment (or lack of) for language learning varied pre and post test (Table 4.12). Prior to the intervention

taking place, the majority of learners who stated they enjoyed French said it was because it was fun or enjoyable, while only a small proportion of students stated this was because they enjoyed learning about France, French culture and people. Following the intervention however, there was a marked difference in the distribution of responses. The proportion of students giving the 'fun' aspect as a main reason had halved, with enjoying learning about France, French culture and people now achieving the same proportion of responses - having increased six-fold from time one. The proportion of students who felt that it was important to know more than one language doubled following the intervention.

Table 4.12. Reasons given by learners for enjoying / not enjoying language learning, in % (pre and post- test) (N=36)

Item	Pre-test frequency	Post-test frequency	Pre-test %	Post-test %
I enjoy learning French because...				
I enjoy learning about France, French culture, French people	1	6	4.3	26.1
I enjoy learning collaboratively with friends	1	0	4.3	0
it is challenging, hard, difficult	1	0	4.3	0
it is easy	1	0	4.3	0
it is educational, you learn something new	1	0	4.3	0
it is fun or enjoyable	12	6	52.2	26.1
it is good to know more than one language	1	2	4.3	7.7
it is interesting, different	3	4	13.0	17.4
it prepares you for real interaction	1	0	4.3	0
I have good, helpful teachers	1	1	4.3	4.3
it will facilitate future travel	1	1	4.3	4.3
it will help for future career or prospects	1	0	4.3	0
I don't enjoy learning French because...				
it is boring, it lacks interest	8	6	57.1	46.2
it is difficult	4	3	28.7	23.1
I don't like it	0	2	0	15.4
there is no need to learn another language	1	1	7.1	7.7
it is too different	1	0	7.1	0
I don't get on with the teacher	0	1	0	7.7

As for students who said they did not enjoy learning French, although their numbers did not dramatically change, it was interesting to note that, when looking more

closely at the reasons given pre and post intervention, the majority of learners initially stated it was due to finding the subject boring, with nearly a third finding the subject difficult, and some that it was too different or that there was no need to learn a different language. Following the intervention, the main reason given for not enjoying learning French was still its perceived lack of interest while the perceived difficulty had decreased. It was also interesting to note that no learner, following the intervention, said they did not enjoy learning French because it was too different (Table 4.12).

4.4.6.2. Impact of intervention on students' perceptions

Learners' were asked to rank from most to least important the different benefits of language learning. Responses were compared pre and post test, and a Wilcoxon rank test was performed to gauge the potential impact of the intervention.

Table 4.13.
Pre and Post Test value of language learning, according to learners
(%, z and p values)
(N=36)

Item	Pre-test% (Frequency)	Post-test% (Frequency)	z value	p value
It can get you a better job later	50 (15)	23.1 (6)	1.258	.208
It gives you access to more jobs	17.9 (5)	18.5 (5)	.285	.776
It can help you get into university	14.3 (4)	29.6 (8)	.412	.681
It can help you understand how people may do things differently	10.3 (3)	11.5 (3)	1.497	.134
You can use the language when you go on holidays	7.1 (2)	3.8 (1)	.199	.842
It can help you understand and use your own language better	3.6 (1)	3.8 (1)	.245	.806
It helps you meet people from different countries	3.6 (1)	14.8 (4)	.406	.685

Items which reflected a practical, instrumental worth such as getting access to better or more jobs, and/or improved access to higher education, were the most prominent

prior to intervention, with a cumulative 82.2% of first responses among all students in intervention schools. The one item explicitly relating to communication: *'You can use the language when you go on holidays'*, represented only 7.1% of first responses. Aspects relating to learners' willingness and openness to finding out about other cultures and ways of life, represented by statements such as *'It helps you meet people from different countries'* and *'It can help you understand how people may do things differently'* taken cumulatively with 13.9% of first responses. Furthermore, when adding to these two aspects the statement '*It can help you understand and use your own language better*', which can be viewed as a representation of the learners' ability to reflect on their own language and therefore, culture, the cumulative broad value attributed by learners to cultural aspects increased to 17.5% of first responses.

Following the intervention, the instrumental value decreased to 71.2%, and so did the communicative value (3.8%), while the value attributed to cultural aspects of language learning almost doubled to 30.1% when taken cumulatively. Wilcoxon signed rank tests did not overall demonstrate a statistically significant differences pre and post test, and the only statement seeing a more notable change in responses pre to post test, however, was the following :*'It can help you understand how people may do things differently'* (z=1.497, p=.134, r =.21).

Following the intervention, it was also interesting to note that, although no difference was found to be statistically significant, the only aspect of language learning to have increased in the distribution of responses was the development of listening skills, increasing to 35.5% of responses, while speaking and reading skills both saw the most notable decreases in importance for learners.

Table 4.14.
Most important aspects of language learning, according to learners
Pre and post-test
(%, z and p values)
(N=36)

Item	Pre-test% (Frequency)	Post-test% (Frequency)	z value	p value
being able to have a conversation	**34.4** (11)	**20** (6)	.298	.766
being able to understand people	**27.3** (9)	**35.5** (11)	.612	.540
being able to read information and texts	**12.9** (4)	**3.3** (1)	1.499	.134
learning about the people and the country	**12.9** (4)	**6.9** (2)	.767	.443
being able to meet new people who speak the language	**9.4** (3)	**9.4** (3)	.070	.944
being able to write in the language	**3.2** (1)	**0** (0)	.087	.931
learning and knowing a lot of words and sentences	**3.2** (1)	**3.3** (1)	.205	.837
being able to make accurate sentences	**0** (0)	**0** (0)	.506	.613

4.5. Summary

In this chapter, findings were presented in relation to the research questions. An analysis of the data gathered, both qualitative and quantitative, served to identify the **importance learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of Intercultural Understanding (ICU) within MFL education.** In particular, findings focused on understanding how teachers defined culture, what place intercultural teaching had in language teachers' beliefs, and whether learners valued intercultural learning. All highlighted the importance attributed by both teachers and learners to ICU, albeit for different reasons, and to varying degrees, with learners seemingly more likely than their teachers to value aspects of ICU within the MFL paradigm.

The analysis of findings also provided evidence towards the second research question of the study: **To what extent is ICU incorporated in MFL teaching and learning?**

This was achieved through an analysis of all data pertaining to the place intercultural teaching had in language teachers' practice, and how this was perceived from learners' perspective. The findings also provided evidence with regards to whether learners' context influenced how they value intercultural learning. Notable findings here were for the most part related to the evident gap between teachers' beliefs and practice, but also to teachers' perceptions and perceived - and at times self-imposed - constraints where teaching for ICU was concerned, and issues of inclusivity and equality were raised when considering learners' access to opportunities for developing ICU.

Finally, findings pertaining to the materials used for teaching ICU identified teachers and learners' differing perceptions on the materials best suited for intercultural teaching. Furthermore, an analysis of findings relating to the intervention phase of the study found some evidence that a CLIL approach could help develop cultural knowledge acquisition, and that **CLIL materials could also positively impact on the development of learners' intercultural understanding.**

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1   Introduction

The initial impetus to address the issues in this study came from my own perceptions and experiences as a languages teacher in England. The study was predicated on the views that language and culture cannot be conceptualised nor taught as separate entities, and that intercultural teaching could enrich the language learning process and develop learners' intercultural understanding - while acknowledging that many constraints may prove problematic to the implementation of intercultural teaching in the English secondary school. Although there has been considerable commentary on the relationship of language and culture, and on CLIL methodology, very little of that commentary has been derived from empirical research in the context of secondary schools. It could be argued that the rigidity of the curriculum in England could be a cause for the paucity of research in this context, and it could also be contended that the fact that CLIL practice remains isolated and experimental (Hunt et al., 2009) is also a contributing factor. Stemming from this gap in research and from my own sense of identity as a teacher and researcher, the study therefore began with the belief that, in order to truly gauge the value and place of intercultural teaching and learning in teachers' practice and learners' experiences, the study needed to be practice-informed (Coyle et al., 2010) and anchor the investigation in teachers and learners' perspectives and perceptions, through the use of student questionnaires, teacher questionnaires, lesson observations, teacher interviews, and teaching and learning logs. Data gathered sought to address the research problems identified in the literature review, in turn providing answers to the three broad research questions. As it was also my belief that my role as a language teacher in developing learners'

intercultural understanding is an important one, and since as a practitioner I understood the importance of both contexts and constraints in implementing intercultural teaching, the study therefore also aimed to investigate the potential benefits of CLIL methodology and materials with my own students, but also in other secondary schools.

In light of the stated aims of the study, the research focused on the following questions and sub-questions:

1. *How much importance do learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of Intercultural Understanding (ICU) within MFL education?*

2. *To what extent is ICU incorporated in MFL teaching and learning?*

3. *To what extent can CLIL materials develop learners' ICU?*

This section is structured in line with the research questions above, and discusses findings and how, if at all, these relate to some of the literature explored in chapter two.

5.2 Summary and discussion of findings

5.2.1. How much importance do learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of Intercultural Understanding (ICU) within MFL education?

5.2.1.1. How do teachers define culture?

Literature has long established the interdependence between culture and language (Barthes, 1990; Bourdieu, 1991; Brown, 2007). Because of the 'linguistic relativity' which exists among learners (Gumperz & Levinson, 1996), language is essential in the conceptualisation of culture, and therefore, it could be contended that language is key in defining the concept of culture itself. Further to this, some have argued that language acquisition can be enhanced through the opportunities for a greater conceptualisation of discourse that the integration of language and culture can offer (Saniei, 2012; Masuhara & Tomlinson, 2004).

Yet culture is a complex concept to define, as evidenced by the many definitions presented in the literature reviewed in an earlier chapter (Altpekin, 1993; Boylan & Huntley, 2003; Brooks, 1964; Byram, 2008; Goodenough, 1957; Hofstede, 1994; Hudson, 1980; Hymes, 1967; Kramsch, 1998; Nostrand, 1989; Tomalin & Stempleski, 2013). The discussions during interviews with some of the teacher - participants supported this view, with most stating that, in selecting from a list of suggested definitions provided in the questionnaires, they had selected one over the others in a spirit of best fit rather than an exact match. In doing so, the majority of teachers surveyed in the study (47.4%) conceptualised culture as three-dimensional by defining culture as 'shared and observable customs, habits and behaviours', echoing the many authors who have attempted to conceptualise culture as a triptych

of beliefs, values and behaviours (Byram, 1998; Hofstede, 1994; Holló & Lázár, 2000; Tomalin & Stempleski, 2013).

5.2.1.2. What place does intercultural teaching have in language teachers' beliefs?

A somewhat expected finding of the research was that the vast majority of teachers viewed intercultural teaching and learning as an integral part of language learning, a finding from both the questionnaires and interviews (78.9%). This finding echoed much of the existing literature (Aleksandrowicz-Pedich et al., 2003; Byram & Risager, 1999; Sercu & Bandura, 2005). Interestingly, in the course of the study, a recurring finding was that intercultural teaching was often perceived as a tool for motivation by making the learning relevant and engaging for learners, reflecting the views of Hennebry (2014b) that intercultural teaching is not frequently perceived as a key element of language learning in its own right. Surprisingly, the instrumental imperative for intercultural teaching in the wider context of globalisation (Beacco et al., 2010) was not found in the responses of teachers participating in the study, and as such the integration of aspects relating to culture as a political statement was not evident in the findings.

A notable finding of this research, and of many studies before it (Baker, 2015; Driscoll et al., 2013; Hennebry, 2014b; Sercu & Bandura, 2005), was that many teachers, despite identifying intercultural understanding as a key element in defining their beliefs, failed to translate this attributed value when ranking the various aspects of language teaching and learning, with the linguistic elements often having greater importance than the intercultural. The extent of this was rather surprising, with none of the teachers surveyed identifying cultural awareness as the most important aspect of language learning, and a majority (73.7%) ranking it either in last or penultimate

position. Teachers favoured speaking skills and vocabulary acquisition over all other skills developed in language learning, a clear indication if it was needed that communicative and linguistic competence are still the priority in many a language classroom, as found by many authors (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Byram, 2008; Grenfell, 2002; Mughan, 1999; Sercu & Bandura, 2005).

In seeking to establish the value that teachers attributed to the development of learners' intercultural competence, defined as the combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes (Byram, 1998), the research also sought to establish which learner attributes teachers valued most. The general impression from the inquiry was that attributes relating to intercultural competence, such as open-mindedness, cultural knowledge and the understanding of customs ranked low, while attributes relating to motivation, such as a positive attitude and interest for the subject, and attributes relating to linguistic competence, such as a good understanding of grammar all ranked highly among the top five desired learner attributes.

If we posit that all three aspects - knowledge, skills and attitudes - should have parity in order to provide a strong framework for intercultural competence (Burwitz-Melzer, 2001; Fantini, 2000), then the question should be asked as to whether low teacher expectations with regards to learner attitudinal attributes make for a sufficiently strong foundation on which learners can build their intercultural competence.

5.2.1.3. Do learners value intercultural learning?

Learners also seemed to afford intercultural learning less importance than motivational or linguistic reasons for enjoying language learning, with fewer than 6% of respondents citing it as the main reason. Whether they liked learning languages or not, enjoyment and the 'fun' element featured highly as a reason, with

over half of learners who stated they did not enjoy learning languages citing lack of interest as the main reason.

A noteworthy finding was that, like their teachers, over a third of learners also attributed more worth to communicative skills than to intercultural skills developed, but interestingly, very few (under 4% for learners, over 40% for teachers) valued vocabulary acquisition, and learners attached more value to intercultural learning than their teachers did (nearly 20% of learners citing aspects of intercultural learning as most important, and none for the teachers) - and this before any intervention had taken place.

This finding was further reinforced when learners were asked to respond to attitudinal statements relating to their openness to intercultural learning, with the vast majority indicating a desire to learn about different people and countries. Furthermore, there was a statistically significant relationship between this desire to learn about otherness and learners' stated level of enjoyment for language learning; while it could be argued that learners' enjoyment for the subject may naturally lead them to be more interculturally open, it could also be asked whether or not those learners who do not enjoy learning languages would do so if their intercultural understanding and skills were given an opportunity to develop further, or indeed if the lack of intercultural openness on the part of some learners could be improved if their motivation for language learning itself was also improved - and how this could be achieved.

Another interesting finding was that, while learners ranked communicative skills highly for their language learning experience, instrumental worth for the application of language learnt was prevalent in learners' responses, with particular emphasis on future education and employment prospects, while only a small proportion (a little

over 3%) valued a communicative application of their skills. Even more interesting, the fact that intercultural aspects, such as meeting people from different countries and understanding how they may do things differently, seemed a much more worthy application of language learnt to learners (over 20%) than communicative ones.

There is evidence in the literature that the teaching of culture can represent an important affective motivation for learners, and that the development of intercultural awareness / competence may prove a longer-lasting legacy for them, beyond any linguistic competence they may - or many not - have acquired and, most importantly, that they may or may not have occasion to apply (Arens, 2010; Mughan, 1999).This, and the above findings, leads me to the dual hypothesis that:

- There is a relationship between learner motivation for and enjoyment of language learning, and their intercultural awareness; since motivation is often an issue in language teaching and learning in England, then intercultural teaching could have a greater role to play in improving learners' motivation;

- Learners seem to value intercultural learning more than their teachers, whether in their learning experience or in how they get to apply their language skills in the wider sense of the term, one which includes intercultural understanding.

5.2.2. To what extent is ICU incorporated in MFL teaching and learning?

Policy documents across countries and continents have also often reflected the interrelationship between language and culture (Baker, 2015; Council of Europe, 2001; MLA, 2007). Yet despite the widening role given to intercultural competence in policy, owing to the demands of globalisation, the curriculum for languages in England, while it has afforded culture varying degrees of importance over the years,

has failed to afford intercultural learning the same level of importance when compared to other European curricula. Even in versions of the curriculum where greater mention was made to intercultural learning, it could be argued that teachers did not always make the most of this licence to explore its potential scope in their daily practice (Baker, 2015; Barnlund, 1999; Campos, 2009; Driscoll et al., 2013). Yet both policy and practice need to reflect this interrelationship between language and culture, and its role in integrating the cultures of the modern classroom.

Globalisation and the growing diversity of learners can be seen as an opportunity for teachers, but also as an imperative for intercultural teaching and learning in their classroom - yet none of the teacher participants mentioned globalisation and diversity as a motive for intercultural learning and teaching. Although some national curricula may offer a prominent role to intercultural understanding, its place in practice can only be defined within the framework of teachers' and learners' perceptions and the place that *they* afford to ICU in their everyday practice and experiences (Beacco et al., 2010). Indeed, the perception of teachers of their own role in developing intercultural competence in their learners is a key factor (Hennebry, 2014a).

5.2.2.1. What place does intercultural teaching have in language teachers' practice?

The findings of the study were clear as to the place afforded to intercultural learning and teaching in teachers' everyday classroom practice. As mentioned previously, despite stating that ICU should form an integral part of language learning (78.9% of teachers surveyed), teachers still viewed linguistic skills as the most important aspects of language learning (with speaking and vocabulary acquisition most important). If further evidence was necessary, this can be provided by the finding that over 60% of all teachers surveyed ranked cultural learning as least important,

and no teacher ranked this aspect of language learning as most important. These findings seem to add to the evidence base in the existing literature, namely that although ICU forms an important part of many language teachers' stated beliefs, its application in classroom practice is rarely evident (Baker, 2015; Byram et al., 2002; Byram & Risager, 1999; Grenfell, 2002; Lázár, 2007; Sercu & Bandura, 2005). For the most part, teachers still perceive the development of linguistic competence as the driving force for their practice, a finding for several studies (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Sercu & Bandura, 2005) and my own.

Teachers surveyed also acknowledged that, while intercultural teaching should have a regular place in their lessons, this was perceived as an 'ideal world' scenario, which they rarely felt able or willing to implement, owing to a wide range of constraints - be they imposed by a lack of time, by inflexible curriculum and assessment frameworks or by the perceived lack of ability of their students in accessing intercultural content. These constraints - or perceived constraints, could be the cause for the teaching of culture often being seen as an add-on (and sometimes ignored completely) rather than being perceived as an integral part of language learning in practice (Baker, 2015; Barnlund, 1999; Campos, 2009; Damen, 1987; Kramsch, 1993, Tomalin, 2008).

Furthermore, the vast majority of teachers surveyed in the present study (over 80%) had assessment and examination success as a key priority for their learners and therefore as a key driver for the contents of what they taught. It is against this background that it becomes worthwhile to wonder why, then, more teachers, while they shared their belief that intercultural learning is an essential part of language learning, did not feel that intercultural understanding should be included in formal assessments. This particular element of the inquiry was one of the most divisive, with

as many teachers seeing the worthiness of including intercultural elements in formal assessment, as there were teachers who were either unsure or against the idea. For some, what seemed to be emerging was the notion that intercultural understanding is both very subjective and difficult to measure, and therefore would not be suited to formal assessment. Perhaps the reason lies in the fact that assessment and examination frameworks in England lack flexibility (Hennebry, 2014a) and only attribute worth to measurable, finite linguistic outcomes which are often externally assessed. Meanwhile, the development of intercultural understanding and competence is seen by many as a process rather than an acquired attribute (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002) which, because of its highly contextualised and individual nature, can only be gauged from an insider's perspective over a period of time, and therefore involve the teacher as well as the learners (Beacco et al., 2010). Nonetheless, the simple fact is that such formal assessment frameworks are likely to remain crucial in education in England, and whilst they remain so, teachers may only be motivated to put intercultural skills on a par with communicative skills if these are included in formal assessment frameworks, a view shared by Aktor and Risager (2001).

Since language and culture are intrinsically connected, it seems evident that this connection should also exist between the teaching of culture and the teaching of language, and that the purpose of language teaching and learning should be wider-reaching than often reflected in policy and practice, a view shared by many authors (Arens, 2010; Baker, 2015; Brockmann, 2009; Brown, 2007; Furstenberg, 2010; Grenfell, 2002; Kramsch, 1993; Mughan, 1999). It is argued, therefore, that, since language and culture are interconnected, assessment of language learning should also include assessment of intercultural understanding, and in doing so, should combine

the linguistic and intercultural learning, evaluate through the formal and informal, the external and internal, the summative and formative, and take into account both the performance and affective evidence (Coyle et al., 2010) - and most importantly, give both parity in evaluating a learner's journey towards successful and holistic language learning.

5.2.2.2. What place is given to intercultural learning from learners' perspective?

Throughout this research, I also sought to establish learners' perceptions and experiences of intercultural teaching and learning already taking place - if at all, in their own context. Although most learners had had some experience of intercultural learning in the classroom (teacher-led), the majority (nearly 75%) were not given the opportunity to develop independently their own intercultural understanding through project-based learning or homework. Furthermore, although more than half of all students surveyed had travelled to France before, only a few had done this through the medium of a school trip.

5.2.2.3. To what extent does learners' context influence how they value intercultural learning?

The research aimed to establish the extent to which context influenced the value attributed by learners' to intercultural teaching and learning. In particular, the enquiry focused on three contextual factors likely to impact on learners: their school context (as the place where learners develop knowledge and skills), their home context (where learners are most likely to develop their attitudinal attributes), and the wider national context (as a contributing context to learners' cultural identity). The perception of learners of the popularity of languages as a curriculum subject within their school was overall positive, although not by a wide margin (56%). An interesting finding was that learners, when asked to identify reasons for the perceived

popularity of the subject, cited the prominent place it was given in their school on the timetable and for their option choices at Key Stage 4, indicating that a link between the status of languages as a subject could be established with learners' motivation for the subject. Other, more affective motivations were often cited by students who felt the subject was popular, with enjoyment and interest the most frequent. Unsurprisingly, the two main reasons given by students who felt the subject was not popular were its perceived lack of interest and level of difficulty. The findings of the study also show that there is a statistically significant relationship between learners' enjoyment of the subject and whether they felt it was popular in their school context, leading to a likely link between learning context and learners' affective motivation, an important consideration if we posit that intercultural teaching can foster affective motivation in learners (Driscoll et al., 2013; Hennebry, 2014b). If such is the case, it may well be that intercultural teaching and learning could positively impact, or at least contribute to improving learners' school context and perceptions of language learning.

Home context was also an important aspect investigated; the study found a contradiction in that, while most learners stated that their parents viewed languages as important (61%), teachers felt that parental attitudes may be a barrier to learners' motivation for language learning. Regardless of this contradiction, parents have an important role in the transmission and development of their own culture, but also of the necessary attributes and attitudes which can facilitate intercultural awareness and competence in their children (Kawashima & Conteh, 2008; Lloyd-Smith & Baron, 2010). It was not overly surprising, therefore, that one of the findings of the research was a statistically significant relationship between learners' enjoyment of the subject, and the perceived importance their parents attached to language learning. The

implication of course is that, where parents do not transmit these necessary attributes and attitudes for language learning, teachers may very well have their work cut out in teaching towards intercultural understanding, in particular when we consider that the ability to show empathy towards others is age related, in that it has been found to decline as learners grow older (Hawkins, 1981).

Learners surveyed did not view English as a Lingua Franca, an interesting finding since in the course of the study, I frequently heard comments from teachers implying that their learners' lack of engagement may have been caused by a lack of instrumental motivation for learning languages. As previously mentioned, the majority of learners indicated that their parents believed languages to be important. It could therefore be argued that instrumental motivation is not as much of an issue for learners or their parents as educationalists may perceive, at least where the language learning process is concerned - yet as we have seen earlier, learners' appetite for intercultural learning calls on their affective motivation, in truly justifying the worth they attach to the skills, knowledge and attitudes language learning can provide - and more importantly on how they can apply this.

Furthermore, if we take into account the particular educational policy context of England and its system of performativity and high stakes assessment, this discussion supports the interpretation of previously presented findings by Coyle and colleagues (2010) that lower secondary learners are the ideal audience for intercultural learning. This could provide the ideal attitudinal, cognitive, linguistic and motivational contexts to enable learners to develop their intercultural understanding while avoiding some of the limitations or pressures their school or home contexts may present, by sustaining or improving their affective motivation where it would normally flounder.

5.2.2.4. Are there any perceived constraints to the implementation of intercultural teaching?

As discussed in Chapter Two, there are a number of reasons which may be given in schools for avoiding the integration of language and culture (Byram, 2010; Campos, 2009). In the course of the study, four key constraints emerged where the implementation of intercultural teaching was considered:

- **Teachers' perception that opportunities for intercultural teaching were dependent on learners' linguistic ability**: Some teachers surveyed indicated that their perception that languages were not a popular subject in their school context was related to learners' ability, with lower ability learners less likely to enjoy the subject. Another key finding was that some of the teachers felt that materials they would normally associate with intercultural teaching, in particular authentic materials, were not accessible to their lower ability learners, implying that opportunities for intercultural teaching are, in some instances, only offered to higher ability students - if offered at all. This finding seemed to reinforce Sercu and Bandura's findings (2005) and those of Hennebry (2014b), who found that teachers viewed intercultural teaching and access to materials as dependent on learners' linguistic ability, a view shared by Mughan (1998, 1999). Nonetheless, other teacher participants noted that the issue may be quite the opposite, in the lack of cognitive challenge sometimes offered in the language classroom, especially where content choice is considered and where it is compared to the content learners may be presented with elsewhere in the curriculum. It could therefore be argued that cognitive challenge is essential for successful learning - a view shared by many (Coyle et al., 2010; Cummins, 1984; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Grenfell,

2002; Smith & Patterson, 1998) and that there should not be any prerequisite demand on learners to have acquired a certain level of linguistic proficiency in order to access intercultural learning, as Duffy and Mayes also posited (2001). This is especially true if we consider issues of inclusion and equality, as surely all teachers strive to offer the best of opportunities to all of their students. It seems odd also that, if some teachers find issues with learners' motivation for and enjoyment of language learning, they would not wish to expose their low ability learners to intercultural teaching, which as we have seen could positively impact on their affective motivation (Coyle et al., 2010). Furthermore, if learners' lack of motivation is related to the perceived level of difficulty of the subject, then it would appear logical that the excessive emphasis on the development of linguistic skills at the detriment of other aspects of language learning, including content matter, may be a contributing factor, a finding also for Davies (2004) and Jones and Jones (2002).

- **A lack of intercultural opportunities for learners, including opportunities to reflect on their own culture**: While many learners indicated they had had opportunity to travel to France before, the majority had never had an opportunity to visit the country as part of a school visit. Many teachers viewed trips abroad as an important aspect of teaching for intercultural understanding. They also noted how trips abroad had contributed to their own love for languages and their linguistic skills. Nonetheless, they also recognised the lack of opportunities they could offer their learners where these were concerned.

- **The specific educational policy context of England**: As Hennebry notes, England is a 'notable exception' (Hennebry, 2014a:148) with little time afforded to languages in the curriculum and an over-emphasis on testing which focuses on linguistic competence and leaves little time for other aspects of language learning. This pressure of the system was one which appeared as a recurrent theme in teachers' comments and responses throughout the study, and accords with my own experience. It is a concern which is also engrained in teachers' daily practice. The fluctuating place of languages as a subject, and the lack of curriculum time, both in the national context but also within their own school, was a concern expressed by many teachers, the vast majority of whom (nearly 90% of respondents) acknowledged that current assessment frameworks at best left little or no place to the development of intercultural understanding, and at worst actually acted as a barrier. The general feeling was that little time could be afforded to anything else but what would prepare students for the exams, and that the aspects learners were tested on did not reflect the full richness of the language learning experience as teachers truly viewed it. This lack of time, Baker (2015) argues, is often on the key obstacles to intercultural teaching cited by teachers.

- **Time constraints with regards to planning materials for intercultural teaching**: In addition to the pressure of examinations on lesson time, a key constraint often identified by teacher participants was the lack of time to develop their own cultural resources. Whilst the majority of teachers stated that they planned their own resources, many tailored these to match a syllabus dictated by either the textbook content or the exam. An interesting - and

somewhat sobering finding - was that the time constraints placed on teachers with regards to material design seemed to have resulted in greater school insularity and reduced teacher collegiality within the wider teaching community: while teachers regularly shared materials they had developed with their colleagues within their own institution, less than half indicated that this was the case with their peers in other schools. This clearly leads us to consider the many lost opportunities for sharing good practice with the wider learning community, a finding as damning as it is surprising when we consider that the technology now available to teachers should facilitate both time management and collegiality.

5.2.3. To what extent can CLIL materials develop learners' ICU?

The intervention phase of the research involved the delivery of a series of lessons to participant groups. Lessons comprised a wide range of task and material types, with a particular focus on the two material types learners had identified as the most and least used in their lessons pre-test. As a result, the intervention did not make use of textbooks at all, and included the use of video clips and movies at various stages of the intervention.

5.2.3.1. Which materials are best suited for intercultural teaching?

Although it could be noted that some commercial materials produced to support language teaching and learning have, more recently, afforded a more prominent place to culture (Furstenberg, 2010), many also report that materials combining linguistic and cultural elements do not abound (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Coyle et al., 2010; Navés, 2009).

However, effective materials are essential in the teaching of intercultural understanding, a finding for many authors (Aktor & Risager, 2001; Jones, 1995;

Swarbrick, 2002; Tomalin & Stempleski, 2013; Ur, 1996). If teachers report that they have little time to develop their own materials for intercultural understanding, then it seems evident to conclude that, in order for intercultural teaching to occur, good quality materials need to be available. In light of the importance of materials for intercultural teaching, and because of an apparent lack of evidence as to which materials and tasks are best suited to intercultural learning (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015), this was a key area of inquiry for this research, and one of the motives for conducting an intervention involving the use of a wide range of material types.

Textbooks: As previously discussed, owing to time constraints and assessment pressures, many teachers still rely on the use of a textbook. However, it is the belief of some authors that textbooks can be restrictive and limiting in attempts to integrate language and culture (Coyle et al., 2010; Mughan, 1999). Therefore, the primary focus of the study when considering materials was to seek teachers' and learners' views on the use of textbooks and the role they played, if any, in developing learners' intercultural understanding. It was clear from students' responses that many lessons involved the use of a textbook, although the most frequent types of material used were teachers' presentations or slides. Quizzes and games, as well as worksheets, were also often used in lessons in all of the participating schools. As these were often used in language lessons, learners' perception was often that these represented the most useful materials for learning languages. The vast majority of teachers (over 84%) also reported using a textbook in their regular classroom practice, and indicated that the content they were teaching was for the most part dictated by the content (topical and grammatical) of a specific textbook. Many teachers felt that the textbook reduced their planning time, ensured consistency of teaching and structured progression for learners. However, despite these clear stated benefits of textbooks,

one of the most striking findings of the study was that most teachers did not find the topical content of the textbook they used interesting, nor did they know if their own learners found them engaging or not. Student responses, however, quickly provided a response to this, with many (nearly 67%) stating they did not enjoy learning from a textbook, even where they had said textbooks were useful to learn the language - leading to the hypothesis that although learners could attribute instrumental and linguistic value to the use of textbooks, this type of material did not engage them affectively. Many learners also noted that textbooks did not help them find out more about French-speaking countries and people, a view, interestingly, shared by most of the teachers surveyed as well. Teachers' comments indicated this was because they felt that textbooks, where they did provide intercultural insights for learners, were often tokenistic and stereotypical in the representations they offered. This of course represents an important consideration, as intercultural teaching needs to transcend these stereotypes and teach learners that any given culture they may be exploring is multi-faceted and diverse (Aktor & Risager, 2001). What seems to be emerging, therefore, from the findings, is that learners are making use of a type of material that they (and their teachers) find neither engaging nor interculturally enriching day in, day out in their language lesson - the one lesson, it could be argued, with the most potential for developing their intercultural understanding. As the use of textbooks for intercultural teaching was a key area of enquiry, it was therefore striking to note that, following the intervention, when learners had been exposed to a wider range of teaching materials - and where textbooks did not feature at all - more students indicated that they did not enjoy learning from textbooks.

'Big C' vs. 'little c' cultural materials: Teachers, when asked to rank which type of materials was most suited for intercultural teaching, did not seem to distinguish

based on the common classification of big C / little c culture. Interestingly however, they seemed to attribute less intercultural value to materials calling on learners' reading skills (texts, magazines, newspapers, poems), a possible reflection of the low value they attributed to this skill for language learning in general, as found through the teacher questionnaires. While teachers identified videos as the most useful tool for intercultural teaching, films were not afforded the same worth, a finding contradicting much of the existing literature which has widely acknowledged the value of such materials in promoting intercultural awareness and understanding (Duffy & Mayes, 2001; Gross, 2007; Hammer & Swaffar, 2012; Kasper & Singer, 2001; Stephens, 2001). One of the key findings therefore related to the impact of the teaching intervention on learners' perceptions and preferences for certain types of materials. Learners in intervention schools were quick to notice the change in materials used, and it was especially notable that the materials which had the most impact on learners' perceptions were films and videos, seemingly adding to the many existing findings on the potential benefits of such materials for learners.

Furthermore, songs also ranked surprisingly low among teachers for their potential in developing learners' intercultural understanding, as well as online resources, again despite research evidencing the opposite view (Coyle et al., 2010). Learners surveyed had also noticed the fact that online materials were never or rarely used. Of particular interest also was the view of teachers on the use of literary texts to foster intercultural understanding, with no teacher surveyed identifying texts (whatever their source and format) as a useful tool for the development of ICU. Yet at the time of writing, literature has made a come-back in the curriculum for languages in England, with teachers expected to include the study of literary texts not only for advanced learners, but also for early secondary learners. In light of these recent changes, it was

important to consider how teachers positioned themselves, especially where many authors have identified literary texts as a key tool for intercultural teaching and learning, and one which teachers should make more use of (Kearney, 2010; Lázár, 2007; Reeser, 2003).

Ready-made vs. Teacher-made cultural materials: Despite the finding that many teachers stated they did not have time to plan their own materials, many also said they were confident in designing their own materials for intercultural teaching, and that they favoured these over ready-made materials, with more than a quarter of teacher questioning whether ready-made materials were suitable for intercultural teaching. Many teachers felt they, rather than any material, were the best source of intercultural teaching, although some placed a notable caveat on this statement by adding that unless teachers possessed first-hand experience of the culture in question, they were not able to teach for intercultural understanding.

Authentic vs. Non-authentic cultural materials: While many authors view authentic materials as a prerequisite for intercultural teaching (Coyle et al., 2010; Madjarova et al., 2001), some have also argued that teachers may find it difficult and time-consuming to find authentic materials well-suited to their learners and to what they are aiming to teach (Chien, 2013). In addition to the demands authentic materials may place on teachers' time, which this study has already found to be a barrier to developing materials for intercultural teaching, some literature seems to suggest that teachers often correlate the ability of learners to access authentic materials to their linguistic competence (Simpson, 1997). This finding was also one which emerged from teachers' questionnaires and interviews, and many indicated that authentic materials were only suited to more advanced and older learners.

5.2.3.2. Can intercultural teaching develop cultural knowledge acquisition?

Many learners and their teachers, prior to the intervention, had acknowledged their lack of cultural knowledge, and some teachers also admitted to their own responsibility in this, again owing to time constraints. A key finding of the study was that the cultural content of the intervention materials had resulted in learners having gained further cultural knowledge in related fields. The gains made were both topical/cultural and linguistic, with factual and vocabulary recall benefitting the most from the intervention.

5.2.3.3. Can CLIL pedagogy and teaching materials positively impact on the development of learners' intercultural understanding?

The intervention did not have any significant impact on learners' enjoyment of language learning. However, the impact of the intervention was more notable in terms of learners' motivation: the intercultural motivation following the intervention was on a par with the 'fun' aspect, and the importance attributed by learners to language learning doubled. Furthermore, for those learners who did not enjoy languages still, the perceived difficulty of the subject had decreased, and where some had said they disliked the subject because it was too different, none gave this as a reason following the intervention, a possible indication that difference no longer had a negative connotation for these learners. Another interesting finding was that, following the intervention, learners expressed stronger motivation for intercultural learning, while the instrumental and communicative value of language learning decreased in importance. But, in answer to the question, 'can CLIL pedagogy and teaching materials positively impact on the development of learners' intercultural understanding?, the most significant finding was the positive impact which the

intervention had on learners' acknowledgement that language learning can help you understand how people may do things differently.

5.3. Summary

In this chapter, a discussion of the findings sought to provide responses to the research questions, and whether findings were complementing existing literature, or providing new or contrasting knowledge. When considering **how much importance learners and teachers attach to the development of intercultural understanding within MFL education**, there was a marked gap between teachers' beliefs that ICU is an integral part of language teaching and learning, and the place they attribute to its development in their everyday practice. Teachers' views also seemed at odds with those of their learners, who, despite perceiving the benefits of language learning in instrumental terms for the majority, gave greater importance to aspects of ICU within language learning. Furthermore, despite some of the literature, teachers surveyed did not view the teaching of intercultural understanding as a political statement, but at best as a tool for motivating learners, and in most cases, as an add-on to their teaching, for which there was often no time, despite learners' clear appetite for more. When also considering in more depth **the extent to which ICU is incorporated in MFL teaching and learning**, it was also clear that teachers limited their learners' access to certain material types, such as authentic materials or multi-media resources, as well as access to approaches which promote the development of ICU. In most cases, these self-imposed constraints were based on teachers; perceptions of learners' linguistic competence, the lack of importance attributed to ICU in assessment frameworks, and a false perception that home and national context prevented their learners from showing the required attitudes, knowledge and skills for accessing ICU materials and teaching. Finally, when investigating **the extent to which CLIL**

materials can develop learners' ICU, the study found that traditional materials used in language lessons were not always most suited for teaching ICU, and also that materials which could achieve this were underused in practice; yet when they were indeed deployed, as was the case during the intervention phase, the impact on learners' perceptions and attitudes was notable in some instances, in particular with regards to the use of video clips and film. The intervention also demonstrated the potential of CLIL materials in facilitating learners' acquisition of specific cultural knowledge, but also as a tool for motivation, and as a means to reduce the perceived difficulty they often attributed to the subject. Finally, and importantly in light of the focus of this study, the intervention provided some evidence that a CLIL approach was indeed useful in developing learners' ICU, by increasing their ability to accept otherness.

CHAPTER 6 - CONCLUSION

This study stemmed from my belief that developing learners' intercultural understanding should form an essential part of foreign language instruction. In my desire to contribute to the wider discussion on how this could be achieved, and with a gap in empirical evidence and knowledge, particularly in the context of secondary learners in England, I viewed my role as an agent of change, and the process of action research as a means to this end.

This chapter seeks to evaluate the study, its successes and limitations in answering the research questions; it also provides a reflection on the research process and the methodology applied. Furthermore, it identifies the contributions made by the study, in terms of the new knowledge developed and its implications for pedagogy, before offering concluding comments.

6.1. Evaluation of the study

6.1.1. Successes

The purpose of the study was threefold: Firstly, it sought to investigate **the importance that learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding within MFL education.** While limited in scope, the study was successful in establishing that intercultural understanding is important to teachers and learners alike, and that teachers wish they could, and knew they should, make more time for intercultural teaching.

Secondly, the study sought to establish **to what extent ICU is incorporated in MFL teaching and learning.** The quick answer would be to state that, as expected, little integration exists in current practice. From teachers' perspective, this is due to time

constraints, perceived curriculum impositions, and learners' insufficient linguistic competence to access authentic materials.

Thirdly, the study aimed to explore **to what extent CLIL materials can develop learners' intercultural understanding**, through a process of intervention. The study found that, despite their limited value in teaching ICU, MFL lessons often rely on more 'traditional' materials such as textbooks, while other materials, often more engaging and culturally rich, are often underused. Nonetheless, when exposed to such materials, learners perceived the shift, and gained in motivation, cultural knowledge, and importantly, in their ability to accept otherness. As a result, this study succeeded in establishing that CLIL pedagogy and materials can contribute towards greater learner intercultural knowledge and understanding.

6.1.2. Limitations

The study was always intended to be small in scale, and highly contextualised. The limitations of this approach are acknowledged, and a larger sample could have provided greater reliability and validity. However securing participant schools and teachers was difficult, especially in a changing educational policy context, and within the scope of research in action.

During the intervention stage, it would also have been interesting to ask learners to evaluate each material type in greater depth, and to include more elements requiring them to reflect on their own culture, an important aspect in the development of intercultural understanding. Another interesting aspect to investigate would have been to establish whether there is a link between the exposure to intercultural teaching and materials, and language competence development, however the scope and constraints of this study did not permit this, and would have required the use of

control groups and additional materials to be developed, to permit a reliable assessment of learners' linguistic competence in the four skills pre and post test.

6.2. Reflections on the study

6.2.1. Reflection on the research process

In adopting an action research approach, I made a statement of my commitment to improving my practice as a teacher of MFL, while at the same time offering my learners the opportunity to engage with a different pedagogical approach, in the hope it would serve to develop their intercultural understanding but also to enrich their broader experience of language learning. It was important to me to 'practise what I preached' - and also to share this with the wider community of practitioners and researchers.

Practitioner research does have its challenges, and I did not escape them. Finding relevant literature which focused on CLIL for the teaching of languages other than English (LOTEs) and in the context of secondary education in England was one; managing my time as a busy Head of Faculty whilst completing the study, and in particular the field work, was certainly another. Nonetheless, I stood comforted in the fact that my findings seemed to indicate that the teaching of intercultural understanding was not only desirable but also possible even in the thick of constraints often identified as a barrier, further evidence if needs be that teachers can be agents of change when taking the role of practitioner-researcher, and contribute to knowledge and evidence by drawing on their unique perspectives and experiences.

6.2.2. Reflection on the methodology

As stated above, the study was predicated on the belief that small-scale practitioners' research can contribute to the wider development of evidence and knowledge (Oakley, 2004; Siraj-Blatchford et al., 2006), and followed a pragmatist paradigm in

exploring how the practical application of a teaching approach, namely CLIL pedagogy and materials, could provide a solution to a problem (Patton, 1990) I had myself identified as a teacher - namely that intercultural understanding and its development were given little time in today's language classrooms across England. This was the driver for the choice of processes and instruments employed (Rossman & Wilson, 1985), and in particular for the decision to include questionnaires, as a means to seek participants' perceptions, attitudes and experiences, as well as the inclusion of an intervention phase to investigate potential changes pre and post test. The research also acknowledged the complexity of researching education, and the fact that education itself is a very subjective and diverse cultural phenomenon (Latorre, 2008; Pring, 2000). As such, the most appropriate approach for this small-scale research study was the adoption of a mixed-method one, and while the limitations of both qualitative and quantitative approaches and instruments was considered, this mixed approach was also deemed a way to ensure greater reliability, as well as providing a deeper understanding of the problem by using a range of data sources to explore key issues further and to triangulate findings.

The sample chosen was small both by design and necessity, with a desire to focus on lower attaining, lower secondary learners including my own, but also to serve to the development of new knowledge and evidence where this was lacking. Analysis techniques reflected the mixed-method approach, and included a mixture of descriptive, frequency and non-parametric analysis, to report on the complexity and contextualised nature of both the sample and the focus of the study.

6.3. Contributions made by the study

6.3.1. Contribution to new knowledge

Despite its stated limitations, the study was successful in contributing new knowledge and empirical evidence where little existed, by providing an insight into the potential benefits of a CLIL approach for the teaching of languages other than English in the context of secondary learners in England.

6.3.1.1. Challenging perceived constraints to intercultural teaching and learning

The study found that many teachers identified a number of barriers to intercultural teaching and learning. Yet for every constraint identified, an argument could be made that such barriers may to some extent be self-imposed: While the educational policy context in England was seen as a barrier, it could be argued that elements in the new curriculum and assessment frameworks for modern foreign languages, such as the need to make greater use of literature and poetry for instance, represent opportunities to contribute to the development of learners' intercultural understanding. Furthermore, teachers' argument that the curriculum was too limiting could be questioned, in that prescribed content is no longer present. Where teachers said that their learners' lacked motivation for language learning because they, and their parents, viewed English as a Lingua Franca, this was often not the case - and many parents and learners shared the view that language learning was important, despite teachers' assertions to the contrary. Teachers also stated that designing materials for intercultural teaching was too time-consuming, yet were not willing to share the load by sharing resources beyond their own school, and were not necessarily open to using ready-made materials either. In unearthing these contradictions, the study broke down some of these barriers, and as a practitioner myself, it was interesting to challenge my own perceptions, and to establish that I

could indeed be an agent of change by reducing or removing them to give learners the opportunity the engage in intercultural learning.

6.3.1.2. Reconciling teachers' beliefs with their practice, and with learners' views

A most interesting finding was that teachers did not view intercultural teaching as a political statement. It may well be that the current national and international contexts force teachers to reconsider this view, especially where the teaching of foreign languages is concerned. Nonetheless, there was still a clear chasm between teachers' beliefs, namely that culture is an integral part of language learning, and their practice, where at best, culture is an add on, or a tool for motivation rather than an essential aspect in its own right. However, learners attached greater importance to intercultural learning than their teachers did, and derived much affective motivation from it - a fact which teachers would benefit from taking into account, especially where motivation remains an important issue in language learning in the context of schools in England.

6.3.1.3. Raising expectations, broadening opportunities

Another surprising finding of the study was that teachers did not give much importance to the intercultural aspects of language learning, nor did they seem to value related attributes in their learners. However, if we consider that, in order to develop learners' intercultural understanding, we ought to support the development of their attitudes as well as their skills and knowledge, then, failing to address this would leave learners short-changed. There should exist an expectation from teachers and learners alike, that learning languages must contribute to intercultural learning. Importantly, there should be a further expectation that opportunities are not limited to the chosen few, but are seen as an entitlement for all; limiting access to intercultural

learning on reason of linguistic competence is questionable, and also unfounded since it presents learners with greater cognitive challenge and affective motivation, both often identified as recurring and related issues in the teaching and learning of foreign languages.

6.3.1.4. Maximising materials used for greater intercultural understanding

The study also presented a further contradiction where the use of materials was concerned; while some materials such as textbooks were noted for their lack of contribution to intercultural learning by teachers and learners alike, they were most prominent in language lessons; all the while, materials which could be seen as culturally rich, such as movies, music, poems and literary texts, were not deemed useful by teachers for developing learners' intercultural understanding. Despite this, it was evident that learners who were involved in the intervention phase of the study relished the opportunity to have access to such materials, and gained from this exposure both in terms of motivation and intercultural learning. It is therefore important to consider the impact of a broader range of materials, and to remember that, as teachers, we need to respond to our learners' needs as well as to their appetite for intercultural learning and materials.

6.3.2. Implications for pedagogy

The purpose of any practitioner research into pedagogical approaches should serve to further practice, and therefore, in an attempt to summarise the key implications for language pedagogy, the following points are made:

1. Teachers and authors alike conceptualise culture as a triptych of beliefs, values and behaviours, and most view intercultural understanding as an important skill to develop within the paradigm of language teaching and learning. Intercultural understanding should therefore not simply be ignored,

or added-on, but form an integral part - and importantly, be on a par with the linguistic, where language teaching and learning is concerned. Culture is not an add-on, or a fifth skill in language teaching and learning. **Culture is language, and language is culture**, and the failure to either acknowledge this in the conceptualisation of both, or to enact it in practice, is the biggest constraint which can - and is - placed on language teachers and learners.

2. The acculturation process which can, and should be promoted in language teaching and learning, is also a way to achieve deeper enculturation. The opportunities for learners to reflect on their own culture at all stages of the process should not be sidelined. **Enculturation should be a central tenet of acculturation**, in providing opportunities for learners to engage in reflection, comparison and contrast. It is therefore essential that teachers give sufficient time and opportunity for learners to reflect on their own culture as well as exploring those of others. Furthermore, the role of materials in the process of acculturation need not be seen as insignificant: although representations of other cultures in some materials may be viewed as stereotypical or over-simplified, it can also be argued that making complex concepts accessible to learners is central to teachers' role in mediating acculturation for learners (Brumfit, 2001), and that critical reflection on the part of learners may serve to palliate the limitations of simplified cultural representations (Baker, 2015; Byram, 1997).

3. If what is meant through intercultural teaching is a greater understanding of one's own and others' beliefs, values and behaviours, then this needs to include the development of intercultural skills, attitudes *and* cultural knowledge. **Cultural knowledge acquisition is an important part of**

developing intercultural understanding, and also one which is, initially, more accessible to learners, and for which it is easier, from teachers' view point, to plan for in terms of materials development but also in terms of charting progress, especially where this concept is at the core of educational policy and practice in England. Therefore, I share the view of Hennebry (2014a) that integrating cultural knowledge transmission and intercultural understanding can prove a more effective model. There is no need for a divide between 'big C' and 'little c' culture - it is simply a false debate, and one which has only served to contribute to the subordinate place intercultural teaching and learning have been afforded in curriculum policy and practice, and which has placed barriers on the development of effective models.

4. The link made by some researchers and practitioners between linguistic competence and the suitability of 'lower ability' learners for intercultural teaching and learning, is, in my view, not acceptable, nor is it informed or ethical. Whilst linguistic competence may well be a consideration when planning and teaching, it is one which can be addressed through careful task, material and language selection, something which many teachers have the necessary expertise to navigate. Whether time constraints are an issue here is very possible, and it may well also be that the little place which has traditionally been afforded to intercultural understanding in most published language teaching materials aimed at younger secondary learners has served to strengthen this false perception that materials associated with the development of intercultural understanding are not suited for younger and/or less linguistically able learners. The focus of the intervention has demonstrated that learners who were not necessarily very able in terms of

linguistic competence, were able to access complex texts and materials, and were also able to develop their cultural knowledge base as well as their intercultural attitudes. **Linguistic ability should not be a prerequisite for intercultural learning.**

5. Beyond their linguistic ability, a number of other factors should be considered. In particular, learners' cognitive ability should be considered a more decisive factor, both in terms of the materials on offer, but also in nurturing their motivation for language learning, especially when comparing engagement across curriculum subjects. In considering learners' cognitive ability, we also ought to consider how their age may impact on their openness to intercultural teaching and reflect on what the optimum stage of their education may lend itself best to intercultural teaching, when external pressures are also taken into account. I believe the evidence may point towards the fact that **an effective model of intercultural teaching includes a combination of enculturation and acculturation across late primary and early secondary phases**, the latter not having been considered systematically in existing research.

6. Teaching is complex, in particular the teaching of culture and intercultural understanding. Schools and classrooms are also complex and highly contextualised and diverse places, and teachers are often hard-pressed to know what to prioritise, especially where time constraints do not afford them the opportunity to 'step-back' and reflect on their practice. However, it may be that teachers' interpretation of the curriculum, and of the level of freedom it may or may not give them, is blinkered by these time-constraints, and their reluctance to engage with intercultural teaching influenced by how much time

they feel they would have to devote to the development of a successful model and materials; yet **some models, past and present, exist to provide at the very least an initial framework for the implementation of intercultural teaching**, even in the fraught context of secondary schools in England.

7. Such models also include useful ones for assessment. There has been considerable commentary on the issue of assessment in CLIL, but I contend that the issue is not of assessment within a CLIL framework, but rather the **need to position the assessment of intercultural understanding within existing formal frameworks for assessment**: as evidenced in the study, the instrumental motivation for teachers to implement intercultural teaching, and for learners and teachers alike to give this parity with linguistic and grammatical skills, is unlikely to occur if intercultural understanding is not afforded higher-stake importance in formal assessment. Why developing models of assessment for intercultural understanding, such as the diplomas model, were scrapped, and whether they will re-emerge, and whether or not recent changes to the curriculum for languages and to assessment and examinations frameworks in England will contribute to, or further distract from giving intercultural learning greater importance, remains to be seen, especially if the sole focus of assessment remains on external summative assessment at the expense of other, equally valuable approaches.

8. While teachers express reluctance to make use of ready-made materials for the teaching of intercultural understanding, the study has clearly established an over-reliance - for many reasons - on textbooks and materials such as worksheets and slides, all of which can easily be accessed and re-utilised. It may therefore be worth considering a **corpus of materials for intercultural**

teaching, even if these can only serve as a starting point and would need adapting to learners' and teachers' specific contexts.

9. Nonetheless, teachers need training in how to plan for and deliver intercultural teaching, and guidance on how to implement their own model within their specific contexts, be they at classroom, school, local or national level. **Training teachers for intercultural teaching needs to occur both at initial training stage, and throughout their career**.

10. In order to facilitate the implementation of intercultural teaching within the language curriculum, **greater emphasis should be placed on the role of technology**, both in terms of access to authentic materials, but also in establishing a community of practitioners and in fostering greater collegiality across contexts.

11. While some may argue that integrated models need to be normalised and replicable (Wiesemes, 2009), the very contextualised nature of both culture as a concept, and schools as organisations need to be acknowledged and taken into account for the effective development and implementation of integrated models. **Intercultural teaching may not be generalisable or transferable, but if it is purposeful, systematically planned and delivered, supported at all levels *and* contextualised, then it is more likely that the model will be effective and sustainable.**

12. While integrated models may not be fully generalisable or transferable, it is also important to acknowledge that any practice-based research will contribute to the wider knowledge and evidence base. It is therefore also important for research in the field to accept these variations on the same theme, and to liberate itself from the pursuit of replicability and

generalisability, especially where educational research is concerned. Links need to be developed between research and practice. In doing so, **both small-scale practitioners' research (like this study) and larger-scale academic studies should be given parity** and the dialogue between practitioners and researcher should be facilitated by all involved in education.

13. In considering the implementation of integrated models such as CLIL, it is also important to acknowledge that, if intercultural teaching is left to the sole charge of language teachers, there is little chance that learners will be able to conceptualise or realise its true scope and importance. In the same way that language classrooms can play a key role in developing learners' communication skills, they can lead the way where intercultural skills are concerned, but both are sets of skills which can have far-reaching applications - and implications - beyond the classroom walls, and therefore **the responsibility for equipping learners with both communication skills and intercultural skills is one which must be shared by parents, educational organisations and policy makers alike.**

14. Intercultural teaching is not only desirable, it is a necessity, in order to reflect the linguistic and cultural diversity found in many a classroom in England, but also in order to enable acculturation processes where this diversity may still be lacking. **Integrating language and culture is therefore both a pedagogical and political statement.**

15. An important finding was that intercultural teaching has an important role to play in developing learners' motivation and in particular on their affective motivation. Motivation has often been identified as a key issue in language teaching and learning, and in England in particular, and teachers, learners and

policy-makers seem to have an instrumental conception of motivation where language learning is concerned. However, it could be argued that the framing of language learning within an instrumental motivation construct has had little, if any, benefit on the value attributed by all parties to language learning. I believe the answer may lie in shifting the focus of enquiry on how **developing learners' affective motivation through intercultural teaching may benefit motivation for language learning**, and may prove a more pertinent pursuit.

6.3.3. Recommendations for future research

In light of the above implications for pedagogy, five areas of possible future research were identified:

1. **Materials for ICU:** It would be valuable to review new commercially produced materials published for the new curriculum and assessment frameworks, and to investigate the place of ICU within those. In light of the findings indicating a high impact where video clips and films were used for intercultural teaching, and in light of the resurgence of literature in the curriculum for languages at all key stages, it may also be worthwhile to investigate in greater depth how these types of materials are used in practice, how these are made accessible to all learners regardless of their linguistic ability, and the extent to which they may contribute to greater learner motivation but also to the development of intercultural understanding in the specific context of secondary education in England.

2. **The use of technology in developing a community of practitioners for intercultural teaching**: As discussed in the summary of implications, much could be gained from the use of technology for developing a corpus of

materials and a community of shared practice for intercultural teaching, as a sort of antidote to the main stated barrier which time constraints represents for teachers.

3. **The place of ICU in Initial Teacher Training and Continued Professional Development**: If teachers (not limited to language teachers) have a responsibility to develop their learners' intercultural understanding, it seems pertinent to explore the place made to this in initial teacher training and throughout the opportunities teachers may have for further professional development. In the context of language teaching, it would be particularly interesting to investigate how primary teachers, now expected to deliver language teaching as part of the statutory primary curriculum, navigate the issue of intercultural teaching and the processes of enculturation and acculturation.

4. **National context and learners' narrative on the value of ICU learning and teaching**: In view of the impending 'Brexit' process at the time of writing, many language educators are reappraising their role in developing greater intercultural understanding in their learners, but also questioning the likely impact this change in the political/cultural landscape in England may have on the value attributed to ICU by learners, their parents as well as schools and policy-makers.

5. **A cross-phase approach to intercultural teaching**: When we consider some of the findings of this study pertaining to motivation, cognitive competence, challenge and progress, and when we also take into account the many factors affecting learners' motivation for and engagement with language learning, as well as well-documented issues of transition between the primary and

secondary phases where languages are concerned, and recent curriculum and assessment reforms in England, it would be interesting to extend this research project to look at whether a viable model for intercultural teaching could be established, linking upper-primary and lower-secondary language teaching, with the development of intercultural understanding at its core.

6.4. Concluding comments

While the small-scale nature of the study is clearly a limitation, and while it is also accepted that its findings would need to be tested with a larger sample and in a broader range of contexts, it was also responding to a gap in research on CLIL application in the context of secondary schools in England, and it is hoped that it will contribute somewhat to the development of the knowledge base on CLIL practice and add to the already existing evidence suggesting that CLIL can be an effective approach in raising learners' motivation for language learning and in developing their intercultural understanding.

Intercultural competence and developing learners' intercultural understanding may well be a low priority for teachers, and this study has only served to consolidate this well-documented fact. However, language teachers, although not bearing the full responsibility for this task, have an important role to play in supporting learners through this process, through their ability to draw on their own intercultural experiences and competence, but also on their real belief that intercultural understanding is at the core of how they define their very conception of language teaching and learning. As such, they can play a key role in supporting not only their learners, but also their colleagues, be they language teachers or not, secondary or primary, beginning or senior teachers. In doing so, teachers' confidence and adaptability are a key factor in implementing innovative methodology such as CLIL,

and it may well be that this adaptability on the part of teachers needs to begin by adapting their own perception on how much freedom to innovate the curriculum can offer despite its flaws, and by adapting to change by embracing it and translating it into good practice.

In order to make intercultural learning possible, teachers will also need to take into account the extent to which it can contribute to learners' affective motivation, and the very specific contexts within the four walls of their own classroom, in acknowledging learners' linguistic, cognitive and cultural relativity. Learners do have an appetite for intercultural learning. Language learning is not simply about linguistic competence, and limiting the experience of language learning can only serve to de-motivate learners and teachers alike, and to reduce the very affective value of the experience. This is also the reason why assessment of language learning cannot be confined to the assessment of linguistic competence.

Learners benefit from having access to cognitively challenging materials, carefully scaffolded linguistic content, and culturally representative materials, not simply in the diverse representations of culture they offer, but also in the acknowledgment that a wide range of material types can serve to contribute to greater cultural knowledge, vocabulary acquisition and intercultural understanding. If the materials are accessible, purposeful, relevant and cognitively challenging, and positively impact on learners' affective motivation for language learning, it may well be that the argument for the instrumental value of language learning, if it is one which we must continue to strive for in the English educational context, can finally be won too.

If we move away from the artificial dichotomies between cultural knowledge acquisition and intercultural understanding development, between linguistic competence and intercultural competence, between the processes of enculturation

and acculturation, we might be able to focus both teachers and learners beyond mere 'tolerance', towards deeper understanding.

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STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION 1 - ABOUT YOU

Q1   **Are you**   ☐ a girl   ☐ a boy

Q2   **Which year are you in?**   ☐ YEAR 7
                                                          ☐ YEAR 8
                                                          ☐ YEAR 9

Q3   **How many years have you been studying French (including this year)**   _____ YEARS

SECTION 2 - YOUR LANGUAGES

Q4   **What is / are the main language(s) you speak at home?**

Q5   **Do you currently study another language apart from French at school?**   YES ☐   NO ☐

Q6   **If YES to the above, which language is this?**

Q7   **Have you studied a language in primary school?**   YES ☐   NO ☐

Q8   **If YES to the above, which language was this?**

SECTION 3 - LEARNING A LANGUAGE

Q9   **Do you enjoy learning French at school?**   YES ☐

                                                             NO ☐

Q10   **Why / why not?**

Q11   Do you feel MFL (languages) is a popular subject in your school?

☐ VERY POPULAR
☐ POPULAR
☐ QUITE POPULAR
☐ NOT VERY POPULAR
☐ NOT POPULAR AT ALL

Q12   Why / why not?

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Q13 - Why do you think learning a language is important?
(Ranking them from 1=most important, to 7 = least important)

☐ It can get you a better job later
☐ It helps you meet people from different countries
☐ You can use the language when you go on holiday
☐ It can help you get into university
☐ It can help you understand and use your own language better
☐ It gives you access to more jobs
☐ It can help you understand how people may do things differently in another country
OR
☐ I don't think learning a language is important

Q14 - What is the most important thing in learning a language?
(Ranking them from 1=most important, to 9 = least important)

☐ Being able to have a conversation
☐ Being able to write in the language
☐ Being able to understand people
☐ Being able to read information and texts
☐ Being able to meet new people who speak the language
☐ Learning / knowing a lot of words / sentences
☐ Being able to make accurate sentences
☐ Learning about the people and the country
☐ Other: _____

Q15 - With your teacher, which type of resources do you use during lessons? Please rank each of them 1 - 5.
RANKINGS: 1 = almost always, 2 = often, 3 = sometimes, 4 = rarely, and 5 = never.

- [ ] a textbook
- [ ] worksheets
- [ ] the teacher's own presentations (slides etc.)
- [ ] online resources
- [ ] magazines / books / newspapers in the foreign language
- [ ] songs and poems
- [ ] video clips
- [ ] movies
- [ ] quizzes and games

Q16 - Out of the list FROM Q15, which are the top 3 resources you feel help you learn a language best? *(1 being the most useful)*

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Q17 - Why is this?

Q18 - Do you enjoy learning from a textbook?
YES ☐   NO ☐

Q19 - Why / why not?

Please read the following statements and answer by ticking one box only.

Q20 I like to learn about different people.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q21 I like to learn about different countries.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q22 I have travelled to France before.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q23 My parent(s) / guardian(s) think languages are important.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q24 Everybody can speak English.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q25 I have been on a school trip to France.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q26 I want to learn more about French-speaking countries and people.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q27 We spend a lot of time in lessons finding out about French-speaking countries and people.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q28 The textbook helps us find out more about French-speaking countries and people.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q29 We sometimes do projects / homework in which we have to find out more about French-speaking countries and people.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q30 I already know a lot about French-speaking countries and people.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q31 I sometimes find out things for myself about French-speaking countries and people.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

Q32 I have met French speaking people before.　　　YES ☐　　　NO ☐

SECTION 5 - QUIZ ABOUT FRENCH AND FRENCH SPEAKING COUNTRIES

Please read the following questions and answer by ticking one box only.

Q33 **French is only spoken in France.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q34 **France has a king / queen.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q35 **London is considered France's sixth biggest French city, because many French people live there.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q36 **French people greet each other by kissing on the cheeks.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q37 **The inventor of the modern day Olympic games was French.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q38 **Students have to wear a uniform in France.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q39 **Dinner in France is usually served at 7 or 8pm.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q40 **French has 2 ways of saying the word "you", one formal way and one informal way.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q41 **France is approximately double the size of the UK.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q42 **France does not have many mountains.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q43 **Queen Elizabeth II's coat of arms is in French.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q44 **Cricket is a popular sport in France.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Q45 **The second biggest film festival after the Oscars is held in France.**   TRUE ☐   FALSE ☐

Please read the following statements and answer by writing in the box provided.

Q46	Name 3 things France is famous for.

Q47	Name 3 famous French people.

Q48	List 3 French words also used in English.

Q49	Name 3 French cities / towns.

Q50	Name 3 French brands you can also find in the UK.

Q51	Apart from France, name 3 other countries where French is spoken.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION 1 – LANGUAGES

Q1   **What is your mother tongue?**   _____

Q2   **In order of fluency, please list other languages you can speak / teach.**

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Q3   **Of the above, which do you currently teach? (Please start with mostly taught).**

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Q4   **Up to which level do you currently teach your first language?**

KS2 ☐
KS3 ☐
KS4 ☐
KS5 ☐
Other _____

Q5   **Up to which level do you currently teach your subsidiary / second language?**

KS2 ☐
KS3 ☐
KS4 ☐
KS5 ☐
Other _____

SECTION 2 – YOUR SCHOOL

Q6   How many staff currently teach MFL at your school?   _____

Q7   How many hours of MFL are timetabled for students at KS3 in your school?   ____ HOURS PER WEEK
(Please indicate breakdown of hours if this includes more than one language).

Q8   How many hours of MFL are timetabled for students at KS4 in your school?   ____ HOURS PER WEEK
(Please indicate breakdown of hours if this includes more than one language).

Q9   Is the study of MFL compulsory at KS4?   YES ☐   NO ☐

Q10   Does this represent a recent change in the provision for MFL at your school?   YES ☐   NO ☐

Q11   Do you feel that MFL is a popular subject at your school?
☐ VERY POPULAR
☐ POPULAR
☐ QUITE POPULAR
☐ NOT VERY POPULAR
☐ NOT POPULAR AT ALL

Q12   Do you feel that MFL is a valued subject at your school?
☐ VALUED BY ALL
☐ VALUED BY MOST
☐ VALUED BY SOME
☐ VALUED BY A FEW
☐ NOT VALUED AT ALL

SECTION 3 – CULTURE

Q13 **How would you best define culture?**

Please tick one only.

☐ The shared and observable customs, habits, behaviour of a given group of people.

☐ The cultural heritage of a given group of people: literature, music, fine arts.

☐ The shared history, geography, politics of a given group of people.

☐ The rules that govern behaviour within a given group of people.

☐ The knowledge base of a given group of people.

☐ What is shared by a given group of people, and sets them apart from others.

☐ An internal system for thinking, interpreting and behaving.

Alternatively, please provide your own definition below.

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SECTION 4 – CULTURE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

Students' Cultural Understanding.

Please tick one only.

Most of my students are culturally aware.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

Students gain most of their cultural understanding from trips / visits abroad.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

My students have opportunities to travel abroad on a regular basis (at least once a year).
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

Language Learning Skills.

Please rank the following according to their importance in teaching/learning a language. (1 being the most important, 7 the least important).

☐ Listening Skills
☐ Speaking Skills
☐ Reading Skills
☐ Writing Skills
☐ Vocabulary Learning
☐ Grammatical Understanding
☐ Cultural Awareness

LEARNER ATTRIBUTES

Please number in order of importance the 5 most important attributes that constitute a successful language learner(1 being the most important).

- [ ] Sense of curiosity
- [ ] Sense of empathy
- [ ] Open-mindedness
- [ ] Understanding of grammar
- [ ] Good pronunciation
- [ ] Knowledge of a wide range of vocabulary
- [ ] Ability to memorise a large amount of vocabulary over time
- [ ] Ability to understand and use idioms
- [ ] Knowledge about cultural facts
- [ ] Understanding of differing social conventions and customs
- [ ] Interest for the subject
- [ ] Motivation
- [ ] Positive attitude
- [ ] Spends time abroad practising the language
- [ ] Fluency
- [ ] Ability to write at length and accurately

Teaching Materials.

Please tick one only.

The Scheme of Work I follow is centred on a particular textbook.
Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Unsure [ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly disagree [ ]

What I teach is largely determined by the contents of a textbook.
Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Unsure [ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly disagree [ ]

I mostly rely on a textbook and its related materials in my teaching.
Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Unsure [ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly disagree [ ]

My students find the topics in the textbook interesting.
Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Unsure [ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly disagree [ ]

I find the topics covered in the textbook interesting.
Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Unsure [ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly disagree [ ]

Textbooks provide a good insight into the culture of the language being taught/learnt.
Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Unsure [ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly disagree [ ]

I plan my own teaching resources.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

The materials I use in teaching are from authentic sources.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

You can only teach culture through authentic materials.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

I share my teaching resources with colleagues within my school.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

I share my teaching resources with colleagues outside my school.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

I have time to plan my own teaching resources.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

I feel confident planning resources to teach cultural awareness.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

I prefer using ready-made resources when teaching a cultural element.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

Which of the following materials do you think are most useful in promoting cultural understanding?
Please number in order of usefulness, 1 being the most useful.

☐ Video Clips
☐ Movies
☐ Texts
☐ Magazines / newspapers
☐ Pictures / photos
☐ Books
☐ Internet
☐ Songs, poems
☐ Quizzes, games
☐ Other: _____

Do you think that teaching/learning cultural understanding should...
Please tick one only.

☐	Be an add-on to regular learning (e.g. end of unit project)
☐	Be completed as independent work / homework
☐	Form an integral part of regular lesson
☐	Not form part of students' formal language learning

Teaching Culture and Assessment.

Please tick one only.

The contents of what I teach is determined by the requirements of assessments and exams.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

My main objective is to ensure my students are successful in their assessments/exams.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

Cultural Understanding should be included in formal assessments and examinations.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

The current examination model takes into account and rewards cultural understanding.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

The current examination model is a barrier to developing cultural understanding.
Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Unsure ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐

SECTION 5 - ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

How many years have you been teaching languages? _____

Do you have any other comments you feel might be relevant?
Please use an additional sheet if necessary.

Would you be happy to be contacted for further discussion / interview?

YES ☐   **NO** ☐

If YES, please provide an email address below.

_____

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Appendix 3 - Interview Questions

DRAFT QUESTIONS / PROMPTS FOR SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Introduction of research project and aims of interview.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:
- Training background/pathway.
- Length of teaching experience and length of service at current institution.
- Title, position, current responsibilities.

TEACHING AND LEARNING:
- What motivated you to teach languages?
- Describe your own language learning experience.
- In your view, what is the most important thing we can bring to students as language teachers? Why is this?
- How would you describe your teaching style?
- How do you see the future of language teaching?

INNOVATION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING:
- What pressures/incentives for change in methods of teaching have you experienced?
- Have you tried to introduce new methods of teaching yourself?
- If yes, what have you tried? What was the impact on students? On your own practice?
- If yes, did you feel it was successful? Why/why not?
- If no, why not?
- Are there any challenges / obstacles to innovation in teaching?

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT:
- Are you a member of any subject organisation outside your department?
- How often do you have access to subject-specific training?
- Do you like to keep up to date with the latest developments in language teaching? If yes, how?
- When training as a teacher, what place was given to integrating intercultural understanding elements in language teaching?

TEACHING INTERCULTURAL UNDERSTANDING:
- What do you understand by the term "intercultural understanding"?
- Do you rely on a textbook? If so, how would you evaluate the place of culture in the textbook(s)?
- What place do you give to intercultural understanding development in your current practice?
- What place do you feel intercultural understanding development should have within language lessons?
- Which Key Stage do you feel the teaching of intercultural understanding lends itself best to? Why is this?
- What type of activities do you use to introduce intercultural understanding? Do any of these present a challenge? Do any of these tend to prove more successful / popular with students?

- Do you feel teaching culture can have an impact on language acquisition? On language proficiency? If so, which skill stands to benefit the most/the least?

CROSS-CURRICULAR TEACHING:
- What is your experience, if any, of cross-curricular teaching?
- Are you familiar with CLIL?
- Which other areas of the curriculum do you feel are most efficient for cross-curricular teaching?

ASSESSMENT:
- Do you feel intercultural understanding should be assessed? If yes, why and how? If no, why not?
- What place do you feel culture has within the current examinations framework? Within the current curriculum framework?

Appendix 4 - Example of intervention lesson plan

LESSON	6
RESOURCES NEEDED	***LESSON 6 SLIDES - PPS2 (Presentation)*** Lesson 6 - Plenary Word Search ROGER GODFRIN Lesson 6 - Roger Godfrin Text - French Lesson 6 - Words Match Up
STARTER	**SLIDE 1** - Hand out the words match-up starter task (1 per student), and leave the picture of Roger Godfrin on display during the task. Students have 8 minutes to match up and should complete the task individually, recording answers in the grid provided, at the bottom of the sheet. Advise students to NOT cross off words (they can tick off instead) as they will need to refer to them later.
MAIN PHASE	**SLIDES 2 TO 6**: Check answers with class, students can self-mark or swap papers. **SLIDE 7:** Collect students' results as this will form part of overall assessment. You may prefer to record as a percentage mark (x4) **SLIDE 8**: Ask students if they recall who this is. Answer: Roger Godfrin, one of a few survivors of the massacre of Oradour-sur-Glane. Explain that they are going to find out more about what happened to him after he escaped, by reading a text in French. Explain that all the words from the starter task are taken from the text, and that they should refer to the starter task for help, but that they will need to complete on their own and without teacher support. This may be a good opportunity to recap reading strategies with students before they begin the task. **SLIDE 9:** Hand out the Roger Godfrin Text document, and display the questions on this slide for 8 minutes. **SLIDE 10:** Go through answers with class, and record marks out of 12. **SLIDES 11 TO 19:** Now go through the text. You may read out loud or ask students in turn to do so, with a student reading a sentence, then choosing another to translate.
PLENARY	Slide 20: Plenary task: students to create their own word search (in English OR French) with key words relating to Roger Godfrin's experience. Refer students again to the starter sheet and the text for help. If time allows, they can then swap and complete each other's word searches, or this can be done during the next lesson.
ASSESSMENT OPPORTUNITIES	STARTER TASK **(PLEASE COLLECT MARKS FOR EACH STUDENT)** TEXT TASK **(PLEASE COLLECT MARKS FOR EACH STUDENT)**
NOTES	

Appendix 5 - Sample of students' work

Introductory lessons to the topic. Ask the teacher group task: Pupils observe the pictures and prepare notes (no teacher input) then ask the teacher some questions in order to formulate their own hypothesis on the events and the topic to be studied.
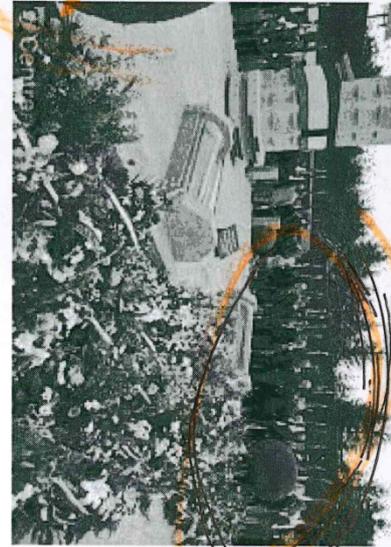
1. Est-ce que = is   Pendant = During

2. Je peux = I can

3. tu peux = You can

       There are

       It is

       Because

       ~~à Cause~~ de Because of

       ~~Grace~~ à Thanks to

Est-ce que Oradour-sur-Glane célèbre pas-ce-que quelque chose ~~qui~~ pendant la ~~mar~~ guerre

Était Oradour-sur-Glane Bombardé pendant la guerre

Était Oradour-sur-Glane re-constructed pendant 1947.

World War 2

Hitler was the leader of Germany

Windsten Churchill

Bombed from planes

Spider Diagram

Had to wear gas masks as they were gased

men, and woman (children) were seperated into different Places.

It made us feel angry because people have last their lives for nothing.

the youngest survivour was roger golfran he was only 6 years old.

I don't think it is right.

a person got shot while in bed!!!

Really horrible

OrAdour surglane

when people were dead they will get thrown down a well of covered in hay and burnt.

- French flag.

innocent people cycling get shot for no reason!!!

I don't think it's right doing that to innocent people

Life threatning

642 people were killed and a baby was baked to death in a oven.

MIND MAP - PUPIL REFLECTION ON CONTENT (HALF-WAY THROUGH INTERVENTION PHASE)

How it made me feel!

Learning about Oradour and the events that happened there was both interesting, yet Heart wrenching at the same time.

The way the Nazi committed the massacres were truly barbaric, and the fact that it was unfounded makes it all the more tragic.

<u>Souviens Toi</u>
Remember

Oradour-Sur Glane

MIND MAP - PUPIL REFLECTION ON CONTENT (HALF-WAY THROUGH INTERVENTION PHASE)

<u>Did you know?</u>
The ages of the people who were Killed range from one week to 90 years old.

<u>What I have Learnt!</u>

We have learnt what happen in oradour (10 June 1944) and why (demour?).
Some of the things we have learnt:-
• 642 people died,
• Roder Godgin was th done requirer,
• And more.

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#	French		English
1.	à la fin de la guerre	A.	a big tree
2.	au bord de la rivière Glane	B.	at the end of the war
3.	d'autres personnes	C.	behind the cemetery
4.	derrière le cimetière	D.	cereal fields
5.	deux soldats me stoppent	E.	I am at school
6.	échapper au massacre	F.	I cross the road
7.	elle explique le massacre	G.	I crumble
8.	je comprends	H.	I find a little dog
9.	je me cache	I.	I go to Mr Thomas' house
10.	je m'écroule	J.	I hide
11.	je reste à Laplaud	K.	I jump in the water
12.	je saute dans l'eau	L.	I see Mr Thomas
13.	je suis à l' école	M.	I stay in Laplaud
14.	je traverse la route	N.	I understand
15.	je trouve un petit chien	O.	Mr Goujon asks us
16.	je vais chez monsieur Thomas	P.	on the shore of the river Glane
17.	je vois monsieur Thomas	Q.	other people
18.	le bois	R.	she explains the massacre
19.	le jour suivant	S.	soldiers shoot at us
20.	les champs de céréales	T.	the next day
21.	les soldats nous fusillent	U.	the woods
22.	monsieur Goujon nous demande	V.	to escape the massacre
23.	nous entendons des bruits	W.	two soldiers stop me
24.	sans succès	X.	we hear noises
25.	un gros arbre	Y.	without success

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
B	P	Q	C	W	V	R	N	J	G	M	K	E	Y	H	I	L	U	T	D	S	O	X	Y	A

NOM: ███████████ SCORE: 25 / 25

EXTENDED READING TASK: MATCH UP
USING UNFAMILIAR LANGUAGE
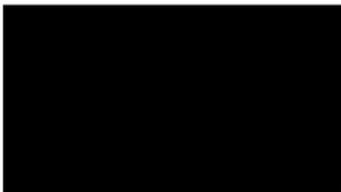
12/12

I chose a new name.	J'ai fini la guerre dans le maquis
I finished the war in the "maquis".	J'ai choisi un nouveau nom
I lost my family in the round up.	J'ai perdu ma famille dans la rafle
I slept in an abandoned farm.	J'ai dormi dans une ferme abandonnée
I took a gun to train.	J'ai pris un fusil pour m'entraîner
I saw the Germans arrive in the village.	J'ai vu les allemands arriver au village
I said goodbye to my life.	J'ai dit au revoir à ma vie
I sold my jewellery.	J'ai vendu mes bijoux
I waited for the night.	J'ai attendu la nuit
I read General de Gaulle's call.	J'ai lu l'appel du Général de Gaulle
I built a fire in a cave.	J'ai fait un feu dans une grotte
I drank water from the river.	J'ai bu de l'eau dans la rivière

2c end of year 7.

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French	English
J'ai joué ✓	I have played
mais ils ont cassé ✓	They have broken ~~everything~~
Ma soeur a aidé ✓	My sister has helped
J'ai écouté ✓	I have listened
les alliés ont débarqué ?	The Allies have landed
~~nous~~ avons mangé	We have eaten
maman a ~~été~~ caché ✓	Mum has hidden
J'ai visité ✓	I have visited
Nous avons rencontré ✓	We have met
Paul a demandé ✓	Paul has asked
Vous avez parlé ✓	Have you spoken
Ils ont massacré ✓	They have massacred
les allemands ont débarqué ✓	The Germans have arrived
Ils ont emmené ✓	They have taken away
J'ai attendu ✓	I have waited
J'ai perdu ✓	I have lost
J'ai tremblé ✓	I have trembled
J'ai pleuré ✓	I have cried
J'ai trouvé ✓	I have found
J'ai dormi ✓	I have slept
J'ai faibli ✓	I have weakened
des villageois m'ont recueilli	Some villagers have taken me in
Je n'ai pas trouvé ✓	I have not found
les villageois ont visité ✓	The villagers have visited
les allemands ont tout cassé ✓	The Germans have broken everything
Ils n'ont pas épargné ✓	They have not spared

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French	English
J'ai joué	I have played
Ils ont cassé la fenêtre	They have broken everything
Ma sœur a aidé	My sister has helped
J'ai ~~en~~ écouté	I have listened
Les alliés ont débarqué	The Allies have landed
Nous Avons ~~en~~ mangé	We have eaten
Maman a caché	Mum has hidden
J'ai visité	I have visited
Nous avons rencontré	We have met
Paul a demandé	Paul has asked
Vous avez parlé	Have you spoken
Ils ont massacré	They have massacred
les allemands ont débarqué	The Germans have arrived
Ils ont emmené	They have taken away
J'ai ~~feemble cettendu~~ attendu	I have waited
J'ai ~~perdu~~ ~~est tremble cettendu~~	I have lost
J'ai tremblé	I have trembled
J'ai pleuré	I have cried
J'ai trouvé	I have found
J'ai dormi	I have slept
J'ai faibli	I have weakened
des villageois m'ont recueilli	Some villagers have taken me in
Je n'ai pas trouvé	I have not found
les villageois ont visité	The villagers have visited
& les allemands ont tout cassé	The Germans have broken everything
n'ont pas epargné	They have not spared

25/26

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French	English	
J'ai joué	I have played	✓
Ils ont cassé la Fenête	They have broken ~~everything~~	✓
Ma soeur a aidé	My sister has helped	✓
J'ai écouté.	I have listened	✓
Les alliés ont débarqué	The Allies have landed	✓
Nous allons mangé	We have eaten	✓
Maman a caché	Mum has hidden	✓
J'ai visité	I have visited	✓
Ou Nous allons rencontré	We have met	✓
Paul a demandé	Paul has asked	✓
Vous avez parlé	Have you spoken	✓
Ils ont massacre	They have massacred	✓
Les allemands ont débarqué	The Germans have arrived	✓
Ils ont emmené	They have taken away	✓
J'ai attendu	I have waited	✓
J'ai perdu	I have lost	✓
J'ai tremblé	I have trembled	✓
J'ai pleuré	I have cried	✓
J'ai trouvé	I have found	✓
J'ai dormi	I have slept	✓
J'ai ~~fai~~ faibli	I have weakened	✓
Des villageois m'ont recueilli	Some villagers have taken me in	✓
Je n'ai pas trouvé	I have not found	✓
Les villageois ont visité	The villagers have visited	✓
Les allemands ont tout cassé	The Germans have broken everything	✓
Ils n'ont pas épargné.	They have not spared	✓

26/26 ☺ ✓✓

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French	English
dimanche le 4 juin 1944 → J'ai joué ✓	I have played
maman ils ont cassé ✓	They have broken ~~everything~~
ma sœur a aidé ✓	My sister has helped
mardi le 6 juin 1944 → J'ai écouté ✓	I have listened
alliés ont débarqué ✓	The Allies have landed
nous avons mangé ✓	We have eaten
maman a caché ✓	Mum has hidden
jeudi le 8 juin 1944 → J'ai visité ✓	I have visited
Nous avons rencontré ✓	We have met
Paul a demandé ✓	Paul has asked
vous avez parlé ✓	Have you spoken
Ils ont massacré ✓	They have massacred
samedi le 10 juin 1944 → Les allemands ont débarqué	The Germans have arrived
Ils ont emmené tous ✓	They have taken away
dimanche 11 juin 1944 → J'ai attendu ✓	I have waited
J'ai perdu ✓	I have lost
J'ai tremblé ✓	I have trembled
J'ai pleuré ✓	I have cried
J'ai ~~trouve~~ trouvé ✓	I have found
J'ai dormi ✓	I have slept
J'ai faibli ✓	I have weakened
villageois m'ont recueilli ✓	Some villagers have taken me in
lundi 12 juin 1944 → je n'ai pas trouvé ✓	I have not found
Les villageois ont visité ✓	The villagers have visited
les allemands ont tout cassé ✓	The Germans have broken everything
ils n'ont pas épargné ✓	They have not spared

26/26 ☺

Mon Témoignage

10th Juin 1944

Je m'appelle Sur Vivoir, ca s'écrit avec en V. J'ai treize ans et je n'ai pas en métier. J'adore bonbons et faire du vélo. Je habité a la Oradour-sur-Glane, jusqu' a les allemands arrivé...

J'ai, je eu, une sœur, qui s'appelé Maria, elle est morte.

Quand les allemands arrivé, j'étais à l'école. Je savais que les allemands étaient dangereux parce que mon père a été lue par les a la guerre.

J'ai couru pour le foret, avec un ami, qui s'appelle Roger. Nous avons vu la fumée, le village était massacré

Apres la guerre, je vais aller et résidé dans le
Oradour-sur-Vayes, avec ma grand mère et mon
grand père.
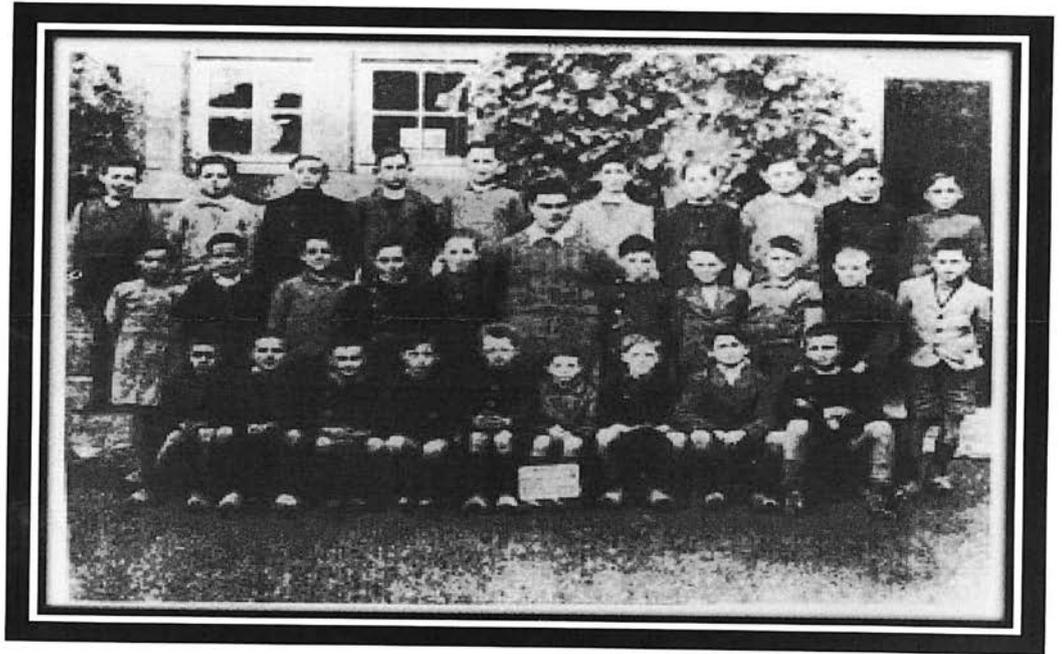
Appendix 6 - Sample intervention materials

Listening Task: Account of a survivor (transcript of recording made using text to speech software.

Le 10 juin 1944, j'ai 47 ans.

Vers 14 heures, les allemands arrivent
dans ma maison.

Les femmes et les enfants sont
rassemblés dans l'église.

Je reste avec ma fille. Les allemands fusillent ma fille à côté de moi.

Je vois une grande fenêtre et une petite échelle.

Je m'échappe par la fenêtre cassée.
Je tombe de 3 mètres de haut.

Une femme et son bébé sont derrière moi.

Les allemands nous remarquent.

Ils nous fusillent.

La maman et son bébé périssent.

Je suis blessée.

Je me cache dans le jardin.

On m'aide le 11 juin, à 17 heures.
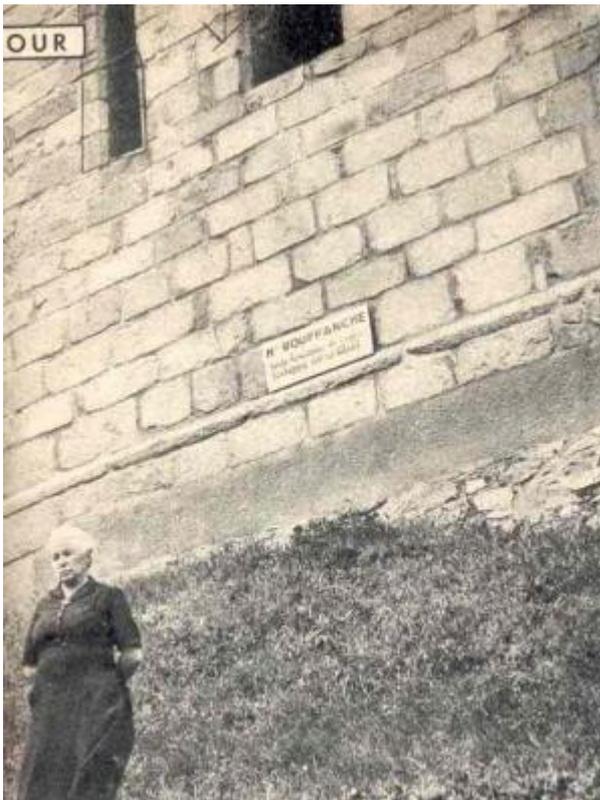
Speaking Task: Speaking Frame for the interview of survivors of the massacre.

Tu t'appelles comment?	
Ça s'écrit comment?	
Tu as quel âge?	
Quel est ton métier?	
A quelle heure sont arrivés les allemands?	
Où étais-tu?	
Avec qui étais-tu?	
Où t'ont amené(e) les allemands?	
Comment t'es-tu échappé(e)?	
Etais-tu blessé(e)?	
J'ai ... ans.	
Je travaille comme...	
Les allemands sont arrivés à... heures.	
J'étais ...	
J'étais avec ...	
Les allemands m'ont amené(e) dans...	
Je me suis échappé(e) ...	
J'étais / Je n'étais pas...	
en sautant	
en me cachant	
en allant	
l'église	
les bois	
la grange	
à l'école	
au travail	
à la maison	

Reading Task: The events in Oradour-sur-Glane: Match-up task to understand key information from a longer text.

1.	à la fin de la guerre	A.	a big tree
2.	au bord de la rivière Glane	B.	at the end of the war
3.	d'autres personnes	C.	behind the cemetery
4.	derrière le cimetière	D.	cereal fields
5.	deux soldats me stoppent	E.	I am at school
6.	échapper au massacre	F.	I cross the road
7.	elle explique le massacre	G.	I crumble
8.	je comprends	H.	I find a little dog
9.	je me cache	I.	I go to Mr Thomas' house
10.	je m'écroule	J.	I hide
11.	je reste à Laplaud	K.	I jump in the water
12.	je saute dans l'eau	L.	I see Mr Thomas
13.	je suis à l' école	M.	I stay in Laplaud
14.	je traverse la route	N.	I understand
15.	je trouve un petit chien	O.	Mr Goujon asks us
16.	je vais chez monsieur Thomas	P.	on the shore of the river Glane
17.	je vois monsieur Thomas	Q.	other people
18.	le bois	R.	she explains the massacre
19.	le jour suivant	S.	soldiers shoot at us
20.	les champs de céréales	T.	the next day
21.	les soldats nous fusillent	U.	the woods
22.	monsieur Goujon nous demande	V.	to escape the massacre
23.	nous entendons des bruits	W.	two soldiers stop me
24.	sans succès	X.	we hear noises
25.	un gros arbre	Y.	without success

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25

NOM: _____ SCORE: _____ / 25

Writing Task: Group task to investigate the events - Ask the teacher.

Le mystère d'Oradour-sur-Glane

15 minutes.
En paire ou en groupe.
1 dictionnaire.
1 feuille et un stylo.
5 indices photo.

3 questions en français.
Le prof dira seulement OUI ou NON ou JE NE SAIS PAS.
1 CONCLUSION HYPOTHESE pour deviner.

Appendix 7 - Ethics Approval and forms

University of Reading
Institute of Education
Ethical Approval Form A (version September 2013)

Tick one:

Staff project: ___   Ed D__x__

Name of applicant (s): Ruth Koro

Title of project: **What is a suitable CLIL model for developing the intercultural understanding of learners of MFL in secondary schools in England**

Name of supervisor (for student projects): Suzanne Graham

Please complete the form below including relevant sections overleaf.

	YES	NO
Have you prepared an Information Sheet for participants and/or their parents/carers that:		
a) explains the purpose(s) of the project	✓	
b) explains how they have been selected as potential participants	✓	
c) gives a full, fair and clear account of what will be asked of them and how the information that they provide will be used	✓	
d) makes clear that participation in the project is voluntary	✓	
e) explains the arrangements to allow participants to withdraw at any stage if they wish	✓	
f) explains the arrangements to ensure the confidentiality of any material collected during the project, including secure arrangements for its storage, retention and disposal	✓	
g) explains the arrangements for publishing the research results and, if confidentiality might be affected, for obtaining written consent for this	✓	
h) explains the arrangements for providing participants with the research results if they wish to have them	✓	
i) gives the name and designation of the member of staff with responsibility for the project together with contact details, including email . If any of the project investigators are students at the IoE, then this information must be included and their name provided	✓	
k) explains, where applicable, the arrangements for expenses and other payments to be made to the participants	✓	
j) includes a standard statement indicating the process of ethical review at the University undergone by the project, as follows: 'This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct'.	✓	
k) includes a standard statement regarding insurance: "The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request".	✓	
Please answer the following questions	✓	
1) Will you provide participants involved in your research with all the information necessary to ensure that they are fully informed and not in any way deceived or misled as to the purpose(s) and nature of the research? (Please use the subheadings used in the example information sheets on blackboard to ensure this).	✓	
2) Will you seek written or other formal consent from all participants, if they are able to provide it, in addition to (1)?	✓	
3) Is there any risk that participants may experience physical or psychological distress in taking part in your research?		✓
4) Have you taken the online training modules in data protection and information security (which can be found here: http://www.reading.ac.uk/internal/imps/Staffpages/imps-training.aspx)?	✓	
5) Does your research comply with the University's Code of Good Practice in Research?	✓	

	YES	NO	N.A.
6) If your research is taking place in a school, have you prepared an information sheet and consent form to gain the permission in writing of the head teacher or other relevant supervisory professional?	✓		
7) Has the data collector obtained satisfactory DBS clearance?	✓		
8) If your research involves working with children under the age of 16 (or those whose special educational needs mean they are unable to give informed consent), have you prepared an information sheet and consent form for parents/carers to seek permission in writing, or to give parents/carers the opportunity to decline consent?	✓		
9) If your research involves processing sensitive personal data[1], or if it involves audio/video recordings, have you obtained the explicit consent of participants/parents?			✓
10) If you are using a data processor to subcontract any part of your research, have you got a written contract with that contractor which (a) specifies that the contractor is required to act only on your instructions, and (b) provides for appropriate technical and organisational security measures to protect the data?			✓
11a) Does your research involve data collection outside the UK?		✓	
11b) If the answer to question 11a is "yes", does your research comply with the legal and ethical requirements for doing research in that country?			✓
12a. Does the proposed research involve children under the age of 5?		✓	
12b. If the answer to question 12a is "yes": My Head of School (or authorised Head of Department) has given details of the proposed research to the University's insurance officer, and the research will not proceed until I have confirmation that insurance cover is in place.			✓
If you have answered YES to Questions 2 and/or 3, please complete Section B below			

PLEASE COMPLETE **EITHER SECTION A OR B** AND PROVIDE THE DETAILS REQUIRED IN
SUPPORT OF YOUR APPLICATION, THEN SIGN THE FORM (SECTION C)

A: My research goes beyond the 'accepted custom and practice of teaching' but I consider that this project has **no** significant ethical implications.	✓

Give a brief description of the aims and the methods (participants, instruments and procedures) of the project in up to 200 words. Attach any consent form, information sheet and research instruments to be used in the project (e.g. tests, questionnaires, interview schedules).

Please state how many participants will be involved in the project: 120 learners, 20 teachers
This form and any attachments should now be submitted to the Institute's Ethics Committee for consideration. Any missing information will result in the form being returned to you.

The study aims to investigate the importance that learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding within MFL education, and to establish the type of materials best suited to develop learners' intercultural understanding. The Research Project also aims to seek the view of MFL teachers on what they believe to be the most appropriate way to assess intercultural understanding for their students. The project focuses in particular on intercultural understanding within Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

Four schools (2 comparison, 2 intervention), and one Year 8 French class from each school, will take part in the main phase of the study, giving a sample of approximately 120 learners and 20 teachers of French. Teachers will be asked to complete a questionnaire to share their views on aspects of language learning and teaching, with a focus on developing students' intercultural understanding. Participant teachers' length of service will also be sought in order to establish if this is a factor in their willingness to trial new methodologies and make changes in their own practice. Teachers will also be asked to indicate on the questionnaire whether they would be happy to take part in an interview at a later stage of the study. The interview will ask about teachers' views in more detail about the place of culture in language learning and teaching, and ways in which intercultural understanding is / should be developed. The interview schedule attached is a draft only and will be modified as necessary following piloting.

Year 8 students in the four classes will be asked to complete a questionnaire and quiz at the start and end of the project, to seek their views on language learning and their understanding of culture. The quiz is not intended as a test, and I am not planning to share outcomes with students, as it would be unsuitable in that I am planning to re-do the quiz with them after the

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[1] Sensitive personal data consists of information relating to the racial or ethnic origin of a data subject, their political opinions, religious beliefs, trade union membership, sexual life, physical or mental health or condition, or criminal offences or record.

intervention. Also, this will avoid any possible impact on their confidence level. I will also administer myself, and reassure students that it is not a test. One or two lessons in each class would be observed to set the learning in context. Information about learners' Attainment Levels in French would also be requested, in order to explore whether levels of intercultural understanding are related at all to attainment in MFL.

In the intervention classes, French teachers would be asked to deliver a set of lessons designed by me. All the materials for these lessons, including slides, lesson plans, handouts and assessment materials will be provided and discussed with teachers in advance. There will be a choice of 3 topics to ensure that the materials are in line with the Languages Department's Scheme of Work. The comparison classes will complete their normal lessons. Following the completion of the lessons, the group(s) will be asked to complete the same questionnaire again, for comparative purposes and to gauge the impact, if any, of the lessons delivered.

One of the intervention schools will be my own. In this instance, extra care will be taken: in addition to providing teachers with the information sheet, I will talk to them as a group about the project and assure them that the information given will not be used to evaluate them in any way. As Head of Faculty, I am responsible for their ongoing Performance Management and evaluation, and therefore I do not want them to either feel obliged to participate nor, if they choose to do so, to have concerns as to whether any questionnaire answers, for example, may be used for the purpose of teacher evaluation. I also feel it important for my students to understand this is separate from their usual work.

In addition, consideration has been given to the validity of using my own class in the intervention: being new to the school (September 13), I have made a conscious effort to not use any resources related to the proposed methodology to be investigated, and in effect I have been following, as all teachers in the department, an existing Scheme of Work, which was not devised by myself.

B: I consider that this project **may** have ethical implications that should be brought before the Institute's Ethics Committee.

Please provide all the further information listed below in a separate attachment.
1. title of project
2. purpose of project and its academic rationale
3. brief description of methods and measurements
4. participants: recruitment methods, number, age, gender, exclusion/inclusion criteria
5. consent and participant information arrangements, debriefing (attach forms where necessary)
6. a clear and concise statement of the ethical considerations raised by the project and how you intend to deal with then.
7. estimated start date and duration of project

This form and any attachments should now be submitted to the Institute's Ethics Committee for consideration. Any missing information will result in the form being returned to you.

C: SIGNATURE OF APPLICANT:

I have declared all relevant information regarding my proposed project and confirm that ethical good practice will be f

Signed: Print Nar   4/11/2013

STATEMENT O   SALS SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE
ETHICS COMM

This project has been considered using agreed institute procedures and is now approved.
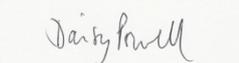
Signed: Daisy Powell   ……   Print Name…Daisy Powell   Date…28/11/2013.
(IoE Research Ethics Committee representative)*

* A decision to allow a project to proceed is not an expert assessment of its content or of the possible risks involved in the investigation, nor does it detract in any way from the ultimate responsibility which students/investigators must themselves have for these matters. Approval is granted on the basis of the information declared by the applicant.

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Teacher information sheet

Research Project: What is a suitable CLIL model for developing the intercultural understanding of learners of MFL in secondary schools in England?

Research Supervisor: Professor Suzanne Graham.

Doctoral Researcher: Mrs Ruth Koro

Dear Teacher,

We are writing to formally invite you to take part in a research study about learning French and developing students' intercultural understanding.

What is the study?

I am conducting a Research Project in the context of my Doctorate in Education at the University of Reading.

The study aims to investigate the importance that learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding within MFL education, and to establish the type of materials best suited to develop learners' intercultural understanding. The Research Project also aims to seek the view of MFL teachers on what they believe to be the most appropriate way to assess intercultural understanding for their students.

The Project hopes to make recommendations regarding how we can best develop learners' intercultural understanding with a view that this presents a key attribute for their future role as global citizens.

Why have you been chosen to take part?

Following our previous contact with the Head of MFL at your school, *Mrs/Mr X* expressed an interest in participating in the project and in answering the teacher questionnaire. In addition, your school is being invited to take part in the project because a substantial proportion of students study French at KS3, and because previous information *Mr/Mrs X* has given us indicates that participation would support the MFL Department's existing work in developing students cultural awareness within the MFL curriculum.

Do I have to take part?

Participation is entirely at your discretion. You may also withdraw your consent to participate at any time during the project, without any repercussions by contacting me using the details given above.

What will happen if I take part?

As part of the study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire to share your views on aspects of language learning and teaching, with a focus on developing students' intercultural understanding. The questionnaire will take no more than 30 minutes to complete.

You will also be able to indicate on the questionnaire whether you would be happy to take part in an interview at a later stage of the study. The interview would ask your views in more detail about the place of culture in language learning and teaching, and ways in which intercultural understanding is / should be developed. The interview would last no more than 45 minutes, take place at a mutually convenient time and, with your permission, would be recorded and transcribed. If you agree to take part in the interview, a further information sheet will be sent to you in due course.

For this project, I would also like to administer a questionnaire with some of your students in Year 8, to seek their views on language learning and their understanding of culture. This will take no longer than 30 minutes to complete and would be conducted in lesson time, so as to minimise disruption.

I would like to observe one or two of your lessons, to set students' learning in context. I would also need access to their attainment data, to set their learning in context and to understand better how a range of learners respond to cultural aspects in MFL learning.

It is anticipated that the questionnaires will be completed either in the Autumn or Spring Term of Year 8. The student questionnaire would be administered by myself, and I am fully CRB checked and I have considerable experience, as an MFL teacher and Head of Department, in working with secondary school children.

If you agree to participation, I will seek further consent from parents/carers and the children themselves. The Headteacher's consent has already been obtained.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information given by participants in the study will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and my Supervisor, listed at the start of this letter. Neither you, the children or the school will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the school.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting and valuable to take part. I anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for teachers in planning how they teach French and in developing greater intercultural awareness and understanding with their students.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, the children or the school to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Participants will be assigned a number and will be referred to by that number in all records.

Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only me and my Supervisor will have access to the records.

The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at conferences, and in written reports and articles. I can send you electronic copies of these publications if you wish.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions by contacting me using the details given above. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the data collected.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham, University of Reading; email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact me directly using the details given above.

I do hope that you will agree to participate in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me, sealed, using the pre-paid envelope provided.

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely

Ruth Koro

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Teacher information sheet (Intervention school)

Research Project: What is a suitable CLIL model for developing the intercultural understanding of learners of MFL in secondary schools in England?

Research Supervisor: Professor Suzanne Graham.

Doctoral Researcher: Mrs Ruth Koro

Dear Teacher,

We are writing to formally invite you to take part in a research study about learning French and developing students' intercultural understanding.

What is the study?

I am conducting a Research Project in the context of my Doctorate in Education at the University of Reading.

The study aims to investigate the importance that learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding within MFL education, and to establish the type of materials best suited to develop learners' intercultural understanding. The Research Project also aims to seek the view of MFL teachers on what they believe to be the most appropriate way to assess intercultural understanding for their students.

The Project hopes to make recommendations regarding how we can best develop learners' intercultural understanding with a view that this presents a key attribute for their future role as global citizens.

Why have you been chosen to take part?

Following our previous contact with the Head of MFL at your school, *Mrs/Mr X* expressed an interest in participating in the project and in answering the teacher questionnaire. In addition, your school is being invited to take part in the project because a substantial proportion of students study French at KS3, and because previous information *Mr/Mrs X* has given us indicates that participation would support the MFL Department's existing work in developing students cultural awareness within the MFL curriculum.

Do I have to take part?

Participation is entirely at your discretion. You may also withdraw your consent to participate at any time during the project, without any repercussions by contacting me using the details given above.

What will happen if I take part?

As part of the study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire to share your views on aspects of language learning and teaching, with a focus on developing students' intercultural understanding. The questionnaire will take no more than 30 minutes to complete.

You will also be able to indicate on the questionnaire whether you would be happy to take part in an interview at a later stage of the study. The interview would ask your views in more detail about the place of culture in language learning and teaching, and ways in which intercultural understanding is / should be developed. The interview would last no more than 45 minutes, take place at a mutually convenient time and, with your permission, would be recorded and transcribed. If you agree to take part in the interview, a further information sheet will be sent to you in due course.

For this project, I would also like to administer a questionnaire with some of your students in Year 8, to seek their views on language learning and their understanding of culture. This will take no longer than 30 minutes to complete and would be conducted in lesson time, so as to minimise disruption.

The project will also involve you delivering a set of lessons on a given topic with a group of Y8 students. All the materials for these lessons, including slides, lesson plans, handouts and assessment materials will be provided and discussed with you in advance. There will be a choice of 3 topics to ensure that the materials are in line with your Department's Scheme of Work.

I would like to observe one or two of your lessons before the start of the Project, to set students' learning in context; I would also like to carry out one or two observations to establish students' responses to the materials. I would also need access to their attainment data to set their learning in context and to understand better how a range of learners respond to cultural aspects in MFL learning.

Following the completion of the lessons, your group will be asked to complete the same questionnaire again, for comparative purposes and to gauge the impact, if any, of the lessons delivered.

It is anticipated that the first wave of questionnaires will be completed either in the Autumn or Spring Term of Year 8, and the second during the Spring or Summer Term of Year 8. Tasks would be administered in normal lesson time, to minimise disruption. The student questionnaire would be administered by myself, and I am fully CRB checked and I have considerable experience, as an MFL teacher and Head of Department, in working with secondary school children.

If you agree to participation, I will seek further consent from parents/carers and the children themselves. The Headteacher's consent has already been obtained.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information given by participants in the study will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and my Supervisor, listed at the start of this letter. Neither you, the children or the school will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the school.

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Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only me and my Supervisor will have access to the records.

The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at conferences, and in written reports and articles. I can send you electronic copies of these publications if you wish.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions by contacting me using the details given above. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the data collected.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham, University of Reading; email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact me directly using the details given above.

I do hope that you will agree to participate in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me, sealed, using the pre-paid envelope provided.

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely

Ruth Koro

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Teacher Consent Form

Please tick as appropriate:

I have received a copy of the Information Sheet about the project and read it. ☐

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. ☐

All my questions have been answered. ☐

I consent to completing a questionnaire . ☐

I consent to taking part in an informal interview. ☐

I consent to some of my lessons being observed informally. ☐

Name of Teacher: _____

Name of school: _____

Signed:

Date: _____

Teacher Consent Form (Intervention School)

Please tick as appropriate:

I have received a copy of the Information Sheet about the project and read it. ☐

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. ☐

All my questions have been answered. ☐

I consent to completing a questionnaire . ☐

I consent to delivering a set of lessons on a given topic. ☐

I consent to taking part in an informal interview. ☐

I consent to some of my lessons being observed informally. ☐

Name of Teacher: _____

Name of school: _____

Signed:

Date: _____

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Teacher information sheet - Interview

Research Project: What is a suitable CLIL model for developing the intercultural understanding of learners of MFL in secondary schools in England?

Research Supervisor: Professor Suzanne Graham.
Doctoral Researcher: Mrs Ruth Koro

Dear Teacher,
We are writing to formally invite you to take part in an interview as part of a research study about learning French and developing students' intercultural understanding.

What is the study?

I am conducting a Research Project in the context of my Doctorate in Education at the University of Reading.

The study aims to investigate the importance that learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding within MFL education, and to establish the type of materials best suited to develop learners' intercultural understanding. The Research Project also aims to seek the view of MFL teachers on what they believe to be the most appropriate way to assess intercultural understanding for their students.

The Project hopes to make recommendations regarding how we can best develop learners' intercultural understanding with a view that this presents a key attribute for their future role as global citizens.

Why have you been chosen to take part?

Following your recent completion of a questionnaire, you have indicated that you would be interested in further involvement through an interview, conducted by myself.

Do I have to take part?

Participation is entirely at your discretion. You may also withdraw your consent to participate at any time during the project, without any repercussions by contacting me using the details given above.

What will happen if I take part?

The interview would ask your views in more detail about the place of culture in language learning and teaching, and ways in which intercultural understanding is / should be developed. The interview would last no more than 45 minutes, take place at a mutually convenient time and, with your permission, would be recorded and transcribed.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information given by participants in the interview will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and my Supervisor, listed at the start of this letter. Neither you, the children or the

school will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the school.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting and valuable to take part. I anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for teachers in planning how they teach French and in developing greater intercultural awareness and understanding with their students.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, the children or the school to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Participants will be assigned a number and will be referred to by that number in all records.

Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only me and my Supervisor will have access to the records.

The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at conferences, and in written reports and articles. I can send you electronic copies of these publications if you wish.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions by contacting me using the details given above. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the data collected.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham, University of Reading; email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact me directly using the details given above.

I do hope that you will agree to participate in the interview. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me, sealed, using the pre-paid envelope provided.

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely

Ruth Koro

University of Reading

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Teacher Interview Consent Form

Please tick as appropriate:

I have received a copy of the Information Sheet about the interview and read it. ☐

I understand what the purpose of the interview is and what is required of me. ☐

All my questions have been answered. ☐

I consent to taking part in the interview . ☐

I consent to the interview being recorded. ☐

Name of Teacher: _____

Name of school: _____

Signed:

Date: _____

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Headteacher information sheet

Research Project: What is a suitable CLIL model for developing the intercultural understanding of learners of MFL in secondary schools in England?

Research Supervisor: Professor Suzanne Graham.
Doctoral Researcher: Mrs Ruth Koro

Dear Head Teacher,

I am writing to invite your school to take part in a research study about learning French.

What is the study?
I am conducting a Research Project in the context of my Doctorate in Education at the University of Reading.

The study aims to investigate the importance that learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding within MFL education, and to establish the type of materials best suited to develop learners' intercultural understanding. The Research Project also aims to seek the view of MFL teachers on what they believe to be the most appropriate way to assess intercultural understanding for their students. The project focuses in particular on intercultural understanding within Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

The Project hopes to make recommendations regarding how we can best develop learners' intercultural understanding as a key attribute for their future role as global citizens.

Why has this school been chosen to take part?
Following my previous contact with the Head of MFL at your school, **Mrs/Mr X** expressed an interest in participating in the project. In addition, previous information **Mr/Mrs X** has given me indicates that participation would support the MFL Department's existing work in developing students' intercultural awareness within the MFL curriculum.

Does the school have to take part?
Whether you give permission for the school to participate is entirely at your discretion. You may also withdraw your consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting me, Mrs Koro (r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk).

What will happen if the school takes part?
As part of the study, French teachers will be asked to complete a questionnaire to share their views on aspects of language learning and teaching, with a focus on developing students' intercultural understanding. The questionnaire will take no more than 30 minutes to complete. They will also be asked to indicate on the questionnaire whether they would be happy to take part in an interview at a later stage of the study. The interview would ask about teachers' views in more detail about the place of culture in language learning and teaching, and ways in which intercultural understanding is / should be developed. The interview would last no more than 45

minutes, take place at a mutually convenient time and, with your permission and that of teachers taking part, would be recorded and transcribed. A further information sheet will be sent to teachers in due course, should they agree to be interviewed.

For this project, I would also like to administer a questionnaire to some of your students in Year 8, to seek their views on language learning and their understanding of culture. This will take no longer than 30 minutes to complete and would be conducted in lesson time, for ease of administration, in either the Autumn or Spring term of 2013-2014.

I would also like to observe one or two French lessons before the start of the Project, to set students' learning in context. In addition, I would also like to have access to the MFL attainment data for the Year 8 students I would involve in the project, to set their learning in context and to understand better how a range of learners respond to cultural aspects in MFL learning.

If you agree to participation, I will seek further consent from individual teachers, parents/carers and the children themselves.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?
The information given by participants in the study will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and my Supervisor, listed at the start of this letter. Neither you, the teachers, the children or the school will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the school.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting and valuable to take part. I anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for teachers in planning how they teach French and in developing greater intercultural awareness and understanding with their students.

What will happen to the data?
Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, the teachers, the children or the school to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Participants will be assigned a number and will be referred to by that number in all records.

Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only my Supervisor and I will have access to the records.

The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at conferences, and in written reports and articles. We can send you electronic copies of these publications if you wish.

What happens if I change my mind?
You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions by contacting me using the details given above. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the school's data.

What happens if something goes wrong?
In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham, University of Reading; email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?
If you would like more information, please contact Ruth Koro (Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk).

I do hope that you will agree to your school's participation in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it, sealed, in the pre-paid envelope provided, to me.

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely

Ruth Koro

University of Reading

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Headteacher information sheet (intervention school)

Research Project: What is a suitable CLIL model for developing the intercultural understanding of learners of MFL in secondary schools in England?

Research Supervisor: Professor Suzanne Graham.
Doctoral Researcher: Mrs Ruth Koro

Dear Head Teacher,

I am writing to invite your school to take part in a research study about learning French.

What is the study?

I am conducting a Research Project in the context of my Doctorate in Education at the University of Reading.

The study aims to investigate the importance that learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding within MFL education, and to establish the type of materials best suited to develop learners' intercultural understanding. The Research Project also aims to seek the view of MFL teachers on what they believe to be the most appropriate way to assess intercultural understanding for their students. The project focuses in particular on intercultural understanding within Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

The Project hopes to make recommendations regarding how we can best develop learners' intercultural understanding as a key attribute for their future role as global citizens.

Why has this school been chosen to take part?
Following my previous contact with the Head of MFL at your school, **Mrs/Mr X** expressed an interest in participating in the project. In addition, previous information **Mr/Mrs X** has given me indicates that participation would support the MFL Department's existing work in developing students' intercultural awareness within the MFL curriculum.

Does the school have to take part?
Whether you give permission for the school to participate is entirely at your discretion. You may also withdraw your consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting me, Mrs Koro (r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk).

What will happen if the school takes part?
As part of the study, French teachers will be asked to complete a questionnaire to share their views on aspects of language learning and teaching, with a focus on developing students' intercultural understanding. The questionnaire will take no more than 30 minutes to complete. They will also be asked to indicate on the questionnaire whether they would be happy to take part in an interview at a later stage of the study. The interview would ask about teachers' views in more detail about the place of culture in language learning and teaching, and ways in which intercultural understanding is / should be developed. The interview would last no more than 45

minutes, take place at a mutually convenient time and, with your permission and that of teachers taking part, would be recorded and transcribed. A further information sheet will be sent to teachers in due course, should they agree to be interviewed.

For this project, I would also like to administer a questionnaire to some of your students in Year 8, to seek their views on language learning and their understanding of culture. This will take no longer than 30 minutes to complete and would be conducted in lesson time, for ease of administration, in either the Autumn or Spring term of 2013-2014.

The project will also involve participant French teachers delivering a set of lessons on a given topic with a group of Y8 students, designed by me. All the materials for these lessons, including slides, lesson plans, handouts and assessment materials will be provided and discussed with teachers in advance. There will be a choice of 3 topics to ensure that the materials are in line with the Languages Department's Scheme of Work.
Following the completion of the lessons, the group(s) will be asked to complete the same questionnaire again, for comparative purposes and to gauge the impact, if any, of the lessons delivered.

I would also like to observe one or two French lessons before the start of the Project, to set students' learning in context, as well as to carry out one or two observations to establish students' responses to the materials. In addition, I would also like to have access to the MFL attainment data for the Year 8 students I would involve in the project, to set their learning in context and to understand better how a range of learners respond to cultural aspects in MFL learning.

If you agree to participation, I will seek further consent from individual teachers, parents/carers and the children themselves.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?
The information given by participants in the study will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and my Supervisor, listed at the start of this letter. Neither you, the teachers, the children or the school will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the school.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting and valuable to take part. I anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for teachers in planning how they teach French and in developing greater intercultural awareness and understanding with their students.

What will happen to the data?
Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, the teachers, the children or the school to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published.

Participants will be assigned a number and will be referred to by that number in all records.

Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only my Supervisor and I will have access to the records.

The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at conferences, and in written reports and articles. We can send you electronic copies of these publications if you wish.

What happens if I change my mind?
You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions by contacting me using the details given above. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the school's data.

What happens if something goes wrong?
In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham, University of Reading; email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?
If you would like more information, please contact Ruth Koro (Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk).

I do hope that you will agree to your school's participation in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it, sealed, in the pre-paid envelope provided, to me.

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely

Ruth Koro

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Head Teacher Consent Form

Please tick as appropriate:

I have received a copy of the Information Sheet about the project and read it. ☐

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. ☐

All my questions have been answered. ☐

I consent to the involvement of my school in the project as outlined in the Information ☐

Sheet .

Name of Head Teacher: _____

Name of school: _____

Signed:

Date: _____

University of Reading

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Parent / Carer Information Sheet

Research Project: What is a suitable CLIL model for developing the intercultural understanding of learners of MFL in secondary schools in England?

We would like to invite your child to take part in a research study about learning French.

What is the study?
The study is being conducted by myself, Mrs Ruth Koro, as part of my Doctorate of Education at the University of Reading.

The study aims to investigate the importance that learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding within MFL education, and to establish the type of materials best suited to develop learners' intercultural understanding. The project focuses in particular on intercultural understanding within Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), an approach whereby students learn about a non-language topic (e.g..geography) through the medium of a foreign language within their language lessons.

The Project hopes to make recommendations regarding how we can best develop learners' intercultural understanding as a key attribute for their future role as global citizens.

Why has my child been chosen to take part?
Your child has been invited to take part in the project because his/her French teacher has expressed an interest in being involved in our project. All learners who are taught French by *Mr/Mrs* in Year 8 are being invited to take part.

Does my child have to take part?
It is entirely up to you whether your child participates. You may also withdraw your consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you or your child, by contacting me (email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk).

What will happen if my child takes part?
Your child will complete a brief questionnaire about learning French, lasting about 30 minutes, in the Autumn or Spring term of Year 8.

So that we can set your child's learning of French in context and to understand better how a range of learners respond to cultural aspects in MFL learning, we would also like your permission for their current school to pass on details of their attainment in French so far. For the same reason, I will also observe some lessons being taught by their regular French teacher.

The questionnaire will be completed during French lesson time and administered by me. I am fully CRB checked.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?
The information you and your child give will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and my supervisor, listed at the start of this letter. Neither you, your child or the school will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Taking part will in no way influence the grades your child receives at school. Information about individuals will not be shared with the school.
Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to complete the questionnaire that I will administer.

We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for teachers in planning how they teach French. An electronic copy of the published findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the Principal Researcher.

What will happen to the data?
Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, your child or the school to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. I will anonymise all data before analysing the results. Children will be assigned a number and will be referred to by that number on all questionnaires and notes. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only me and my Supervisor will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study will be presented at conferences, and in written reports and articles.

What happens if I/ my child change our mind?
You/your child can change your mind at any time without any repercussions by contacting me using the details given above. During the research, your child can stop completing the activities at any time. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard your child's data.

What happens if something goes wrong?
In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham, University of Reading; Tel: 0118 378 2684, email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?
If you would like more information, please contact me using the details given above.

I do hope that you will agree to your child's participation in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it to your child's French teacher, sealed, in the envelope provided.

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

Thank you for your time.

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Parent / Carer Information Sheet (Intervention School)

Research Project: What is a suitable CLIL model for developing the intercultural understanding of learners of MFL in secondary schools in England?

We would like to invite your child to take part in a research study about learning French.

What is the study?

The study is being conducted by myself, Mrs Ruth Koro, As part of my Doctorate of Education at the University of Reading.

The study aims to investigate the importance that learners and teachers of MFL in England attach to the development of intercultural understanding within MFL education, and to establish the type of materials best suited to develop learners' intercultural understanding. The project focuses in particular on intercultural understanding within Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

The Project hopes to make recommendations regarding how we can best develop learners' intercultural understanding as a key attribute for their future role as global citizens.

Why has my child been chosen to take part?

Your child has been invited to take part in the project because his/her French teacher has expressed an interest in being involved in our project. All learners who are taught French by **Mr/Mrs** in Year 8 are being invited to take part.

Does my child have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether your child participates. You may also withdraw your consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you or your child, by contacting me (email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk).

What will happen if my child takes part?

Your child will complete a brief questionnaire about learning French, lasting about 30 minutes, in the Autumn or Spring term of Year 8. A second round of the same questionnaire will take place in the Spring or Summer term of year 8.

Finally, so that we can set your child's learning of French in context and to understand better how a range of learners respond to cultural aspects in MFL learning, we would also like your permission for their current school to pass on details of their attainment in French so far. For the same reason, I will also observe some lessons being taught by their regular French teacher.

The questionnaire will be completed during French lesson time and administered by me. I am fully CRB checked.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information you and your child give will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and my supervisor, listed at the start of this letter. Neither you, your child or the school will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Taking part will in no way influence the grades your child receives at school. Information about individuals will not be shared with the school.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to complete the questionnaire that I will administer. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for teachers in planning how they teach French. An electronic copy of the published findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the Principal Researcher.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, your child or the school to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. I will anonymise all data before analysing the results. Children will be assigned a number and will be referred to by that number on all questionnaires and notes. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only me and my Supervisor will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study will be presented at conferences, and in written reports and articles.

What happens if I/ my child change our mind?

You/your child can change your mind at any time without any repercussions by contacting me using the details given above. During the research, your child can stop completing the activities at any time. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard your child's data.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham, University of Reading; Tel: 0118 378 2684, email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact me using the details given above.

I do hope that you will agree to your child's participation in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it to your child's French teacher, sealed, in the envelope provided.

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

Thank you for your time.

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Parent / Carer Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of my child and me. All my questions have been answered.

Name of child: _____

Name of school: _____

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to my child completing the French questionnaire   ☐

I consent to the school giving the Principal Researcher details of my child's grades in French   ☐

Signed:

Date: _____

Research Project: Invitation to students.
Developing Intercultural Understanding through Language Learning.

This study is part of a Doctoral Dissertation at the University of Reading, under the supervision of
Pr. Graham (s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk)

University of Reading

The Project:
I am doing a project in secondary schools to help develop an understanding of students' learning about the culture of French speaking countries.
The results from this project will be part of my own studies at the University of Reading.

Why have I been asked to participate?

You have been asked to participate because your French teacher and the Languages Department at your school have expressed an interest in taking part in this project.

What will happen if I agree to participate?

You will be asked to fill out a questionnaire. This should take you about 30 minutes to complete, and this will be done during your normal French lesson.

The questions will relate to different ways in which you learn French and your feelings towards learning it. The questionnaire also includes a quiz about French Speaking countries, to help me understand what you already know.

You may also be asked to complete another questionnaire at a later date, to see if your views and knowledge have changed over time.

To help in analysing the information gathered, I will also ask your teacher to give me a copy of your French levels before, during and after the project.

Will I benefit by taking part?

Your participation will help develop an understanding of how students learn a language and if they benefit from learning more about the countries where the language is spoken.

As this involves students' opinions and perceptions, it is important that students are involved in the project.

Will anyone know about my answers?

No. Your name will not appear on the questionnaire and there will be no questions which can be linked to you. You will be assigned a number instead, to help me analyse the information collected.

All completed questionnaires will look the same, allowing you to be open and truthful with your answers. Your answers will not affect your French grades at all.

What happens next?

Your parents have been sent a letter asking for their permission for you to participate in the project.

If they don't object to you being part of the research, you will complete the questionnaire at a time agreed with your teacher. You may also complete another questionnaire at a later date.

Contacts:

If you have any questions please ask your French teacher, or you can contact
Mrs Ruth Koro:
r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

Doctoral Researcher: Ruth Koro
Email: r.koro@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Research Supervisor: Pr. Suzanne Graham
Email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Phone: + 44(0) 118 378 2684

Student Consent Form

Please tick YES or NO for each statement.

I have read the Information Sheet, or someone has read it to me.	YES ☐	NO ☐
I understand what the project is about and what I will need to do.	YES ☐	NO ☐
I agree to participate in the project.	YES ☐	NO ☐
I understand I do not have to take part.	YES ☐	NO ☐
I understand that I can pull out of the project at any time.	YES ☐	NO ☐
I understand that all my answers will be confidential.	YES ☐	NO ☐

Name:		Signature:	
School:		Date:	

This form will be photocopied.

One copy will be given to you, and the other kept confidentially by Mrs Koro.