Language Futures Research Report

Hawkes, R.

LanguageFutures

Contents

Chapter 1: **Introduction to Language Futures** **page 2**

Chapter 2: **Language learning landscape in England** **page 16**

Chapter 3: **Methodology** **page 20**

Chapter 4: **Case study 1- Language Futures as in-curriculum 2nd foreign language** **page 28**
- Language Futures model
- Data analysis and findings

Chapter 5: **Case study 2 – Language Futures as in-curriculum community language accreditation** **page 51**
- Language Futures model
- Data analysis and findings

Chapter 6: **Case study 3 – Language Futures as KS3 in-curriculum alternative language provision** **page 68**
- Language Futures model
- Data analysis and findings

Chapter 7: **Case study 4 – Language Futures as extra-curricular language learning programme** **page 92**
- Language Futures model
- Data analysis and findings

Chapter 8: **Discussion - Overall research findings** **page 108**

Chapter 9: **Implications** **page 114**
- Language Futures programme
- Further research
- Community languages
- Mainstream language learning classroom

Appendices **page 120**

Chapter 1: Introduction to Language Futures

1.1 What is Language Futures?

Language Futures is an approach to language learning that was initially developed in 2009 by Linton Village College in Cambridgeshire as part of the Learning Futures initiative led by the Paul Hamlyn Foundation, in partnership with the Innovation Unit. Learning Futures itself drew significantly on the Foundation's prior Musical Futures initiative, which has transformed music teaching in hundreds of schools across the UK and internationally.
The core purpose of Learning Futures is to generate deep engagement with learning, such that learners are motivated not solely by outcomes but also by the learning process, that they take responsibility for their learning both within and beyond the classroom, voluntarily extending it outside school.

Within Learning Futures four key concepts were developed that form the basis of the approach, as displayed in Figure 1 and described briefly below:

- **Project-based learning** for students of all abilities that crosses disciplinary boundaries
- **School as basecamp** for learning rather than as a final destination
- **Extended learning relationships** that support each student so that learning is something that can happen at any time, in any place and with many people – not just in a classroom
- **School as learning commons** for which teachers, students and the local community share responsibility, and from which they all benefit.

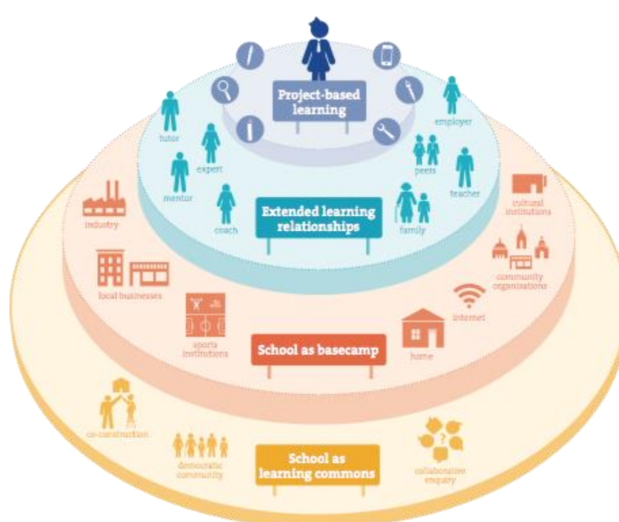


Figure 1: Learning Futures Conceptual Model

1.2 Language Futures conceptual framework

Building on its origins in Learning Futures, Language Futures (LF) envisions the optimum motivational blend for language learning of learner autonomy and collaboration, of self-directed learning and scaffolded co-construction, and there are five core features of the approach that underpin this overarching aim:

Student choice and agency

Students choose the language they wish to learn. The reasons for their language choice may be varied but an earlier study of the first LF cohort highlights the importance of choice, finding that "choice in language learning is positively aligned with motivation for language learning" (Hawkes, 2011a, p.16). In addition, findings suggest it is not only a question of choosing the language of study, but is, perhaps more importantly, a matter of learners exercising control over other significant aspects of their learning such as topic choice, selection of language within a topic, methods of learning, resources, classroom activities, and follow-up work outside the classroom. The link between autonomy within LF and learner motivation is therefore a key focus for the present study, too. As Dörnyei points out, "Autonomy and motivation go hand in hand." (Dörnyei, 2014).

Studies of language learning with secondary age students that focus on choice are rare, but in one interesting study of pupil voice in the area of curriculum planning (Payne, 2007), students were asked to suggest their ideal language curriculum model. One of the groups presented Mandarin, Modern Greek, Russian, French, German, Japanese, Spanish and sign language as equal status choices for Year 7 (age 11-12). This selection bears an uncanny resemblance to the language choices within several of our LF models. This is how the group explained their model:

"Girl: I think in an ideal world everyone should have the opportunity to learn a language they want.
Girl: We should be able to have the choice of any.
Girl: I think we should have the choice from the very beginning of what we want to do.
Boy: So this represents really all the languages taught in the school. There is a choice from Year 7."
A level focus group, School B
(Payne, 2007, p.104)

The conclusion drawn in the study was that increasing pupil choice in terms of the languages of offer would serve to raise pupil motivation.

In terms of choice in other aspects of language learning, a 2008 meta-analysis of 41 studies found a strong link between giving students choices and their intrinsic motivation for doing a task, their overall performance on the task and their willingness to accept challenging tasks (Patall, Cooper & Robinson, 2008). Another study focused particularly on choice in vocabulary learning (Wang et al., 2015). The researchers found, over a 14-week study, that the participants who were given the freedom to choose their own target words showed higher task motivation than those who had to learn pre-selected words. However, the overall attitude to language learning was not influenced by this choice. They also noted fluctuations in task motivation over time and between individuals. There have also been indications that too much choice may not be beneficial, as students may spend too much time and energy working out what to do, leaving their enthusiasm for actually doing the task depleted (Patall, Cooper & Robinson, 2008, Iyengar & Lepper, 2000).

Choice and agency are grouped together within the LF framework, and are clearly linked, but are not the same. Choice is the freedom the LF framework provides, whereas agency is the capacity of the individual to take up those choices; his/her capacity for self-awareness and self-determination, decision-making and taking responsibility for actions (Carson, 2012).

In this brief account of choice and agency we glimpse the two principal unifying concepts of the LF framework: autonomy and motivation. These are implicated in all five features and as such, merit further exploration here. In particular, it is important to distinguish between agency and autonomy, and define them for the purposes of this study, as they often overlap and are even used interchangeably in some studies. One of the most helpful distinctions is that agency resides within the individual, whilst autonomy can apply to individuals but also to (learning) situations. It follows that there can be a relationship between autonomous learning and agency. Agency is the ability, but also the choice to act, or not to act (Duff, 2012). Autonomy, on the other hand, can mean taking responsibility for, and managing one's own learning, and it can also be the psychological need to experience self-determination (Lamb, 2007). Other authors distinguish between independence and autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2009; Lee, 2016). Ryan and Deci (2009), working from a self-determination theory perspective, describe working in a self-directed way as independence, and view autonomy as concerned with volition and self-regulation, meaning that learners may be autonomously dependent, for example when a student chooses to follow the guidance of an adult. These authors underline the psychological basis for autonomy by talking about a 'feeling of choice':

"One can have many options and not feel autonomy, but instead feel overwhelmed and resentful at the effort entailed in the decision making. Alternatively, one could have only one option (which functionally means no choice) and yet feel quite autonomous so long as one truly endorses that option." (Ryan & Deci, 2006, p.157).

There are many references in the literature that point to the interdependent relationship between choice, agency, autonomy and motivation (Ushioda, 2011). From a psychological perspective, involving people in making choices and decisions instils a sense of responsibility, since people become responsible for the choices they make and their outcomes (Deci & Flaste, 1996), and thereby nourish their intrinsic motivation (Little, 2004). On the other hand, as we have already seen, too much choice may impact negatively on agency and feelings of autonomy.

Perhaps surprisingly, there is scant empirical work focusing on the relationship between autonomous language learning and the development of linguistic competence (Reinders & Loewen, 2013). One key exception is the pioneering work of a Danish secondary school teacher of English and Mathematics, whose teaching formed the basis of a longitudinal study of autonomous classroom language learning (Dam, 1995; Dam & Legenhausen, 1996; Legenhausen, 2003; Little et al., 2017).

In the study, gains in linguistic competence for the Danish autonomous classroom learners were measured in terms of vocabulary acquisition, grammar and oral interaction, and compared with two notional control groups, one of which was a Danish textbook-based class, and the other a German Gymnasium (equivalent to UK grammar school) class, also following a traditional textbook-based curriculum. Broadly speaking, outcomes compared very favourably.

There were key differences between the autonomous classroom conditions in that study and those in the current study, most notably that the Danish classroom learners were all engaged in learning one language, English. In addition, the teacher only used English with the class, expecting them to use as much English in response, as they were capable of. Similarities between the two models are the high levels of learner negotiation in terms of tasks, activities and resources, the collaborative learning in pairs and small groups, and the expectation that learners kept a written record of all of their own learning. The teacher's role to raise learners' awareness of form and to support their evaluation of their own progress is another point of similarity between the two models. Given the degree of overlap between the models, I return to the Danish study in the discussion chapter, following an analysis of the findings in this current study.

For the purpose of clarity in this study I refer to autonomy as the need for, sense and experience of self-regulation, to agency as the ability and choice to take up the freedom and choices offered by the

LF programme, and to directing one's own learning in the classroom as independent or autonomous learning. As we can see, autonomy, autonomous learning and motivation are theorised to be mutually supportive. However, motivation for language learning is a complex phenomenon and cannot be investigated out of context. Therefore, we return to the concept of motivation for foreign language learning within the context of the English secondary classroom in the second chapter of this report.

Teacher as designer and facilitator

With the explicit emphasis on student autonomy and autonomous learning, the role of the teacher within LF is deliberately different from that of language teacher in the traditional secondary classroom context. The teacher is a specialist linguist but may not have expertise in all or any of the languages being learnt in the LF classroom. LF teachers design and frame the learning through the creation and presentation of projects, and most importantly through the asking of strategic questions that prompt and probe students' understanding of particular language structures, help them to set goals for their learning, and offer guidance as to where to go for resources. Teachers advise students and mentors, and inspire confidence in the learning process through their encouragement and enthusiasm, which help learners to develop resilience, particularly in the early stages, when this more independent way of learning can prove challenging and hard to get used to. Studies of classroom interaction have highlighted the significant motivational and learning gains to language learning arising from a suspension of traditional teacher-student roles (Richards, 2006; Hawkes, 2012). Writing about autonomous learning, Ushioda (2011) states that it serves to diversify 'social roles and relations within the classroom, since these extend beyond default 'teacher-student' roles and relationships and engage the personally valued identities of students…" (p.229). Nevertheless, previous studies (Beckett, 2002; Stewart, 2007; Hawkes, 2011a and 2011b) indicate that learners respond differently to the opportunities for autonomy and autonomous learning that the LF and other similar approaches afford, and the extent to which the teacher is able to provide contingent support that meets the needs of individual learners is an aspect of the teacher role that warrants further investigation in this study.

School as basecamp

This important concept indicates a deeper level of student engagement with learning, such that the timetabled lessons in school represent just one site of learning. In education, engagement refers to the degree of attention, curiosity, interest, optimism, and passion that students show when they are learning or being taught, which extends to the level of motivation they have to learn and progress in their education. Fredricks, Blumenfeld and Paris (2004), drawing on Bloom (1956) identify three aspects to student engagement: behavioural, emotional and cognitive, whereby cognitively-engaged students are invested in their learning to the extent that they seek to go beyond the course requirements.

According to Richards (2014), there are two important dimensions to successful second language learning: what goes on inside the classroom and what goes on outside of the classroom (Richards, 2014, p.1). Students within the LF approach are encouraged, but not required, to take their language learning beyond the classroom in a variety of ways, and the degree to which they choose to do this might be taken as one proxy measure of intrinsic motivation. Previous LF case studies suggest that, where students embed language learning into their lives outside of school, progress may be significantly enhanced. There have, to date, not been many studies that focus on either the take-up or the benefits of out-of-class learning (Benson, 2011), but those that I found involving secondary-age learners, suggested that not all students take up the opportunities to engage in out-of-class learning, and of those learners that do, not all perceive a benefit to their linguistic progress. However, for some students, participation in learning beyond the classroom is the springboard to

feelings of greater autonomy, which propels them into a felicitous cycle of further out-of-class learning and the perception of greater overall progress (Yap, 1998; Hayland, 2004, Chan, 2016). Other researchers have highlighted the need for learners to develop specific skills before they can engage successfully in out-of-class learning (Reinders, 2011, 2014) and Tassinari (2015) points to the need for teachers and well as students to develop their competences in this area.

The sorts of activities students might typically engage in include: listening to target language music, reading target language books, watching target language films, or other visual media (adverts, clips, music videos), following target language recipes, putting their gaming devices, mobile phones or social media applications into the target language, teaching the target language to a friend or family member, or conducting internet research. The extent and impact of such voluntary activity within the LF approach is one aspect this research study aims to investigate.

Project-based learning

Most teacher and learners are familiar with the notion of project-based learning as an addition to their regular classroom-based learning. However, as the main pedagogical approach through which learning is achieved, project-based learning is relatively scarce in second language education (Beckett, 2006). In broad terms, project-based learning (hereafter PBL) is rooted in constructivist pedagogy and espouses 'learning by doing', in which processes are not strictly defined but proceed from the specific context, learners' needs and interests, and the central project aim or question. Project-based learning as opposed to traditional teacher-directed classroom learning has a long history, originating more than a century ago with the work of educationalist and philosopher, John Dewey (Dewey, 1938/1997).
In the recent proliferation and popularity of student-centred teaching and learning strategies, such as group work, project work, inquiry-based learning, investigations, independent learning, collaborative enquiry, experiential learning, and active learning, there have been attempts to differentiate PBL from other models of learning involving projects, through the application of specific criteria (Thomas, 2000; BIE, 2015). The Buck Institute for Education, an organisation at the forefront of PBL, published Gold Standard PBL: Essential Project Design Elements (BIE, 2015). Projects must have essential conceptual knowledge and understanding at their centre, but then must also build the 'success skills' of critical thinking/problem solving, collaboration, and self-management. Starting out with a challenging question, students engage in sustained inquiry, which involves generating further questions and using a range of resources to answer them. This activity is student-led.

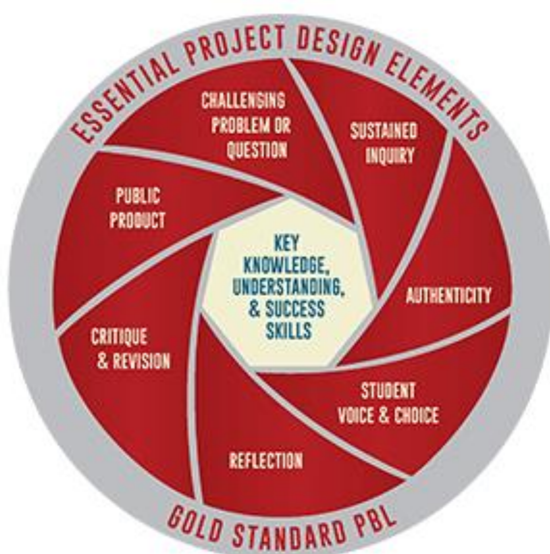


Figure 2: Gold standard PBL: essential project design elements (Buck Institute for Education, 2015).

Project-based learning is held to motivate intrinsically, foster problem-solving and develop independent and cooperative working skills. (Beckett, 2002). Within Second language acquisition (SLA) research, projects are believed to create opportunities for second language (L2) development by enabling interaction in authentic contexts. Compared with general education, research on project-based work in L2 learning is rare (Beckett, 2002), and not as universally positive. In one study (Coleman, 1992) students enjoyed the non-traditional language learning experience that afforded them both greater independent and the opportunity to do team work. However, students in another study engaged in L2 project-based learning bemoaned the lack of explicit, direct teaching, and felt that 'learning by themselves from other sources through project work distracted them from learning English from their teachers and textbooks.' (Beckett, 2002, p.61).

A recent study (Park & Hiver, 2017) of 38 12-13 year-old Korean middle-school learners of English emphasises three characteristics of PBL within L2 learning: the centrality of the learning process, the creation of a tangible outcome and the importance of collaborative effort and performance. The study examined processes of motivation change over a short seven-lesson programme of PBL, and found that students developed a stronger ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2014), were better able to regulate their L2 anxiety and sustained and consolidated their L2 self-efficacy.

Another small-scale study (Fragoulis & Tsiplakides, 2009) of 15 primary age (11-12 years) Greek students explored the impact of PBL on students' local history knowledge and English language competence during a sixth-month project. In terms of linguistic competence, the authors found that the children improved in all four language skills, and that they were more willing to experiment with new language. They showed improved interest and intrinsic motivation, as well as their ability to work collaboratively, although at the beginning of the project not all students found it easy to work in groups, or work independently of the teacher. For some, the project seemed too long and there was a loss of motivation by the end of it. These issues underline the significance of individual learner differences, and point to the complexity of creating conditions that match all learners' needs at the same time. They might also indicate the need to cultivate learners' ability to take control of their own learning. Even at university level, studies have found differences in PBL outcomes concurrent with individual differences with regard to the ability to self-manage and self-direct their learning (Stewart, 2007).

In their brief report (Mikulec & Miller, 2011) on an exploratory study of PBL with eighth grade beginner learners of French, looking at the extent to which PBL in instructional settings might enable L2 learning to meet national foreign language education standards, the researchers indicate that PBL could be a beneficial approach in which learners might improve communicative competence, whilst also developing cultural and knowledge from other disciplines, as well as connecting their language knowledge to real world experiences.

As well as citing a number of empirical studies in which students engaged in PBL outperform those taught using traditional methods in objective measures assessments, Bell (2010) also claims that students acquire a different kind of knowledge from using a PBL approach and develop skills that prepare them better for life in the 21st century. PBL has been shown to be especially effective with unmotivated, low achieving students (Mergendoller, Maxwell & Bellisimo, 2003).

Critics of student-centred instruction cite the centrality of long-term memory for cognition. "The aim of all instruction is to alter long-term memory. If nothing has changed in long-term memory, nothing has been learned. Any instructional recommendation that does not or cannot specify what has been changed in long-term memory, or that does not increase the efficiency with which relevant information is stored in or retrieved from long-term memory, is likely to be ineffective. (Kirschner et al., 2006, p.77). On the other hand, critics of behaviourist and cognitive learning approaches remind

us that, “as far as foreign language learning is concerned, research into language learning and acquisition processes suggest that mere training in structural (grammatical) and vocabulary knowledge will not result in real linguistic competence and language proficiency.” (Rüschoff & Ritter, 2001, p.223).

The authenticity required in genuine PBL occurs in Language Futures as learners engage with open-ended questions that have no one, correct answer, involve engagement with the target language culture and are connected to real-world experience in a target language country. Reflecting on their learning, students should develop language awareness, defined by the Association for Language Awareness as ‘explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use,’ as well as inter-cultural understanding. Projects should produce an output, a product, publication or presentation, which ideally have an (external) audience.

The current study focused on four features of PBL: the existence of a key question, the production of a tangible project outcome, an audience for the project outcome and the freedom to make choices about how to approach the project. In addition, the study sought to ascertain students’ affective responses to involvement in PBL. The aim of this research study with respect to PBL was two-fold: firstly, to determine the degree to which LF projects represent project-based learning, and secondly, to explore the impact that this feature has on the overall approach.

Building a learning community

Within the LF approach, learning is essentially a social activity and co-constructed (Vygotsky 1962, 1978). Learning is not seen purely as the acquisition of knowledge by individuals as much as it is a process of *social* participation. The locus of learning is in the relationships between students, teacher, mentors and also parents and other family members or members of the community. LF sets out to provide a context for learning that supports and benefits from multiple, collaborative and dynamic constellations. Students share knowledge of, and about language, with each other by sharing their learning across language groups with, ideally, at least two students studying each language so that they can support and learn from each other. Students receive personalised support from language proficient mentors, who are volunteers with an in-depth knowledge and fluency in a particular language, recruited to provide good models of the language and to advise students on specific language queries and learning tasks. Teachers and students become partners in learning and a culture of collaborative endeavour is established in the classroom and beyond. Parents and other family members support and, in some instances, learn with and from their children. In this way, LF envisions a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 2000) in which the responsibility for learning is distributed and all participants are learners.

Empirical support for the learning benefits of peer-peer collaborative learning (hereafter CL) in the classroom comes most often from studies conducted within a sociocultural framework (Donato, 1994). Aside from this, support for CL highlights its positive motivational impact (Dörnyei, 1997, Slavin, 2000, Ning & Hornby, 2014). In terms of research into the effects of adult mentoring of secondary-age L2 learners, the researcher was unable to find any directly relevant studies. All studies of L2 mentoring were related either to initial teacher training or to peer mentoring, for example, of ESL learners at secondary school. Finally, the role that parents play in their children’s learning is also under-researched, and the studies that have been carried out focus mainly on the impact of parental involvement in homework (Patall et al., 2008; Jeynes, 2007). Jeynes’ meta-analysis of 52 studies demonstrated a positive effect for parental involvement in homework, whereas Patall et al.’s synthesis of 14 studies was unable to show statistically significant gains to

student performance from parental homework support.

1.3 Theories of learning

Familiar though some, if not all, of these core features may be to teachers, their relationship to learning theory is perhaps less explicitly understood. The current educational language is a bewildering plethora of terms, all of which carry, at least implicitly, assumptions about what knowledge is, and how learning occurs. Teachers, even highly reflective practitioners, are essentially pragmatic problem-solvers; they do what works. Pressure of time leads them often to 'cherry-pick' promising ideas and strategies, trying them out the following day in the classroom, without necessarily having the opportunity to examine their underlying principles, or connect to the epistemological well from which they are drawn. An empirical study offers the opportunity to explore those connections and understand them more fully, and in fact, it is a requirement. An in-depth understanding of the theoretical foundations of the Language Futures approach is a necessary first step in providing direction, purpose and coherence to this study.
Learning theories are far from unified, mutually-exclusive explanations of knowing. There are multiple, overlapping, dynamic collections of ideas about learning that, superficially at least, share some of the same elements. Underlying their apparent similarity, however, are different beliefs about reality and knowledge, which substantially change the emphases on, and interpretations of, learning behaviours and processes. As Kuhn notes: 'they seldom employ these borrowed elements in quite the traditional way. Within the new paradigm, old terms, concepts, and experiments fall into new relationships one with the other.' (Kuhn, 1996, p.149).

The table below brings together and presents a comparison of three overarching theories of knowing and learning: Behaviourism, Cognitivism and Social Constructivism. Rather than providing a comprehensive overview, it is a selective comparison highlighting key aspects of learning relevant to the Learning Futures approach.

LanguageFutures

Table 1: Four learning paradigms

	Behaviourism	Cognitivism	Constructivism	Social constructivism
Core principle	All human behaviour, including learning, is a response to external stimuli, and it is understood and explained through observable changes in behaviour	Cognitivism understands and explains human behaviour (including learning) by focusing on mental processes, how information is received, organized, stored, and retrieved by the mind	Constructivism emphasises the interaction between thought and experience. Meaning is created rather than acquired. There is no direct transfer of knowledge from external world to individual mind, rather the individual builds knowledge through interaction and experience	Social constructivist theories of learning emphasise knowledge sharing, and collaborative meaning making through experience and exchange
Nature of knowledge	'What'	'What' and 'how'	'What' and 'how' in meaningful context	'What' and 'how' in meaningful context
Student choice / agency	Students exercise little control over their learning	Teacher is in overall charge. Students are encouraged to have input into aspects of their learning	High student control over many aspects of learning	High student control over many aspects of learning
Role of the teacher	To design effective stimuli to elicit correct responses reliably and efficiently from learners	To plan and present new knowledge with regard to achieving optimum retention and retrieval, taking account of what learners already know and individual learner strengths and preference	To use tasks that prompt learners to perceive patterns and formulate their own answers, ensuring that new concepts are embedded in authentic contexts	To design flexible, open-ended learning projects, driven by challenging questions, and create an environment in which responsibility for learning is shared
Most typical interaction pattern	Teacher - student	Teacher - student	Teacher - student	Student - student
Role of memory	Learning is memorable if the cues are right, and the practice rigorous and regular enough	Learning is memorable if information is stored in memory in an organized, meaningful manner	Learning is memorable if the opportunities for use are 'real' and context-embedded. The emphasis is not on recall but on contextualised use	Memory is synonymous with use. The emphasis is not on recall but on contextualised use
Assessment	Summative	Summative and formative	Formative and summative, integrated with learning	Formative and summative, integrated with learning
Motivation	A response to positive and negative reinforcement mechanisms	Includes cognitive and affective dimensions, and has intrinsic and extrinsic origins	A dynamic system of strands that reside in, and are influenced by, personal, social and environmental factors	Motivation is synonymous with engagement / participation

As suggested in the table above, different paradigms and learning theories suggest different ways of organising learning, and different relationships between the participants. In the Language Futures approach, there is a discernible emphasis on the social constructivist paradigm. However, we must be careful not to conflate theories of knowing with theories of pedagogy, and assume that in constructivist classrooms students will never listen to explanations by the teacher or other experts. Learning theories are beliefs about how knowledge is created. Nevertheless, just as there is every reason to employ the teaching strategies and methods that most clearly align themselves with a given paradigm, it also makes sense to design a research methodology that is congruent with the underlying principles of the focus of the study. I return to this matter in the methodology chapter of this report.

1.4 Motivation in second language (L2) learning

As mentioned above, a second salient thread, which, together with autonomy unites the five core features of LF, is motivation. The pivotal role motivation plays in language learning is clear: 'In a long term learning process such as the mastery of a second language, the learner's ultimate success always depends on the level of motivation' (Dörnyei, 2014).
As Table 1 indicates, motivation, seen through a social constructivist lens is synonymous with engagement; it is not about individual intra-psychological traits, it is a matter of volitional participation in social learning activity that is dynamic and jointly-constructed. (Kaplan & Patrick, 2016). However, given the level of empirical and theoretical work that motivation, and L2 motivation, have received over the past 60 years, it seems useful to review some of the key thinking here.

Theories of motivation for language learning

Claxton writes that motivated students show the 'willingness to persist intelligently in the face of difficulty' (2009:179). It is widely accepted that learning a language is not easy, and that a considerable amount of effort sustained over a long period of time is required in order to be successful (Dörnyei, 1998). Motivation is therefore, unsurprisingly, one of the most thoroughly researched concepts within second language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1972) distinguished two types of language learning motivation: instrumental and integrative. Broadly speaking, instrumental motives are driven by goals such as achieving an exam grade or getting a good job, whereas integrative motivation is a desire to get to know and better understand the speakers of a specific language. Initially developed by Deci and Ryan (1995), self-determination theory is a general theory of human motivation, which sets out intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as explanations of human behaviour. The authors later expanded their theory to propose that there are three main psychological needs implicated in self-determination: the need for competence, autonomy and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

More recently, and in an attempt to synthesise previous theories into one macro theory of L2 motivation, Dörnyei proposed the L2 Motivational Self-System (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), which proposes three primary sources of L2 motivation: the learners' vision of themselves as effective L2 speakers (ideal L2 self); the social pressure coming from the learner's environment (ought-to L2 self); and the learners' positive learning experiences (Dörnyei, 2014).
Another interesting dimension of motivation discussions within the recent literature has been the extent to which the central paradigm of foreign language learning, at least within Second Language Acquisition research, with its goal of native-speaker-like fluency, implicates failure (and therefore, demotivation) from the outset. Were the prevailing paradigm to shift to multilingualism, with its emphasis on a more holistic view of learners as communicators through a variety of linguistic codes, the consequent shifting of the goalposts might result in radically different, and eminently more positive, motivational trajectories for learners (Ushioda, 2017). This remains a theoretical question

and lies outside the scope of the present study. However, I return to it briefly in the conclusion chapter, as it is suggestive of new avenues of research.

Motivation for language learning in the UK context

Motivation is widely held to be the major determinant of language learning success (Ellis, 2008, Dörnyei, 2014) and yet motivation amongst school age L2 learners in England is critically low (Erler & Macaro, 2011). Most studies indicate that motivation for language learning at secondary school declines from Y7 onwards, at best fading, at worst turning to antipathy (Williams et al., 2002; Mitchell, 2003; Coleman et al., 2007; Deckner, 2017). There is a particular problem with boys' motivation (Davies, 2004, Taylor & Marsden, 2014). Secondary school-age learners in the UK say they find languages difficult, not enjoyable and of limited relevance to their future lives. The decline in uptake at KS4 and beyond has been clearly documented (Malpass, 2014) as have its implications for future teacher supply (Hawkins, 2002). As Mitchell states, 'any MFL curriculum in the special UK setting faces real challenges in convincing learners of the value of sustained MFL study' (Mitchell, 2003, p. 21).
The reasons for low uptake of languages in the UK and the specific context of Anglophone foreign language learners have been widely theorised and in part empirically investigated. Researchers and educationalists point to factors operating at macro, meso and micro levels (Coleman et al., 2007, Gayton, 2016, Lanvers, 2017). At the macro level, the reality of English as global lingua franca (Graddol, 1997) is a threat to the motivation for English speakers to learn other languages (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda, 2016; Lanvers, 2016; Lo Bianco, 2014; Taylor & Marsden, 2014; Kangasvieri, 2017). Dewaele and Thirtle (2009) report a 'link between how widely spoken a country's official language is, and both the ability of young people to speak another language and their desire to learn another'' (European report on the quality of school education 2001, p.27 in Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009, p.643). The instrumental case for learning English is clear, and the vast majority of school age learners in Europe, 97.3% lower secondary and 96% upper secondary students (ec.europa.eu/eurostat), learn it. A large-scale study of Hungarian students' motivation to learn foreign languages found that the need to learn English was seen as a foregone conclusion 'because it (was) seen as part of general education, similarly to reading, writing and arithmetic' (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005, 649). It is difficult to foresee any one foreign language holding the same position for Anglophone foreign language learners (Wilson, 2008).

In addition to the utilitarian imperative, the learning of one foreign language (almost exclusively English) is obligatory until the end of upper secondary level in all European countries except Malta, Portugal and the United Kingdom (Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe, 2017). In England and Wales, the removal of foreign languages as a statutory subject at KS4 with effect from September 2004 saw GCSE entries plummet from 76% in 2002 to 40% in 2011.

Furthermore, the British have a long-standing reputation as poor language learners, which has only been strengthened in recent years by comparative studies into European foreign language competences (Burge et al, 2013) and national media reports of further decline. These compound what Coleman et al. (2009) describe as "arguably a hostile climate for language learning... in which a frequently jingoistic press dignifies ethnocentrism or xenophobia as Britishness or Euroscepticism" (Coleman et al., 2009, p.251). It is worth noting that young Europeans' attitudes to studying English might be largely very positive, but that these often differ from their attitudes to learning second or third foreign languages at school (Busse, 2017). Many have therefore called for studies of foreign language learning which exclude English, believing that without it international attitudes and competences would be much more comparable.

At the meso level where we see the influence of home and wider school management, we have seen historically poor outcomes at GCSE combined with the pressure of league tables leading many head

teachers to vote with their feet and find ways not to offer any but the highest attaining students the opportunity to continue with languages at KS4. Some parents are easily convinced by school leadership teams who recommend subjects other than languages for their sons and daughters. There is even a certain tacit support for this position amongst some languages teachers, whose core belief is that languages are most suited to the more able.

For individuals, at the micro level, classroom experiences are all important and none too positive. There are high levels of anxiety (Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009), a lack of personal relevance (Taylor & Marsden, 2014), difficulty and boredom (Ofsted, 2015). Despite the potential significance of broader social and environmental factors, the evidence suggests that younger learners' overall motivation for language learning relates most strongly to their classroom learning experiences (Evans & Fisher, 2009). With this in mind, the following section explores the empirical evidence for ways to improve motivation for language learning.

Motivational interventions and pedagogical innovations

Research studies exploring the motivational impact of specific pedagogical innovations have been recently reviewed by Lamb (2017). From his meta-analysis of over 200 studies, he drew the following key conclusions:
i) Teachers can motivate
ii) Personal/interpersonal relationships are paramount
iii) Methods matter, but so does context
iv) Learner control / autonomy must be a priority

Among the pedagogical interventions and innovations Lamb reviews are: motivation strategies; language learning strategies; CALL (Computer-assisted language learning); CLIL (Content and language integrated learning); choice and meaningful tasks; Intercultural understanding initiatives; and advocacy to increase the relevance of L2, amongst others. I confine my consideration here to those aspects which have a potential resonance with the present study.

Motivation strategies

In response to the challenge to provide empirical evidence to support claims that teachers could positively affect L2 learner motivation, Dörneyi and Csizér (1998) conducted a study of Hungarian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers' views and from it generated a list of strategies, entitled 'Ten commandments for motivating language learners', which was later expanded and developed into a list of 35 macro strategies and 102 micro strategies (Dörnyei, 2001).

Ten commandments for motivating language learners:
1. Set a personal example with your own behaviour.
2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.
3. Present the tasks properly.
4. Develop a good relationship with the learners.
5. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence.
6. Make the language classes interesting.
7. Promote learner autonomy.
8. Personalize the learning process.
9. Increase the learners' goal-orientedness.
10. Familiarize learners with the target language culture.
Source: Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998: 215

This framework of strategies has been the basis of numerous correlational and other studies, which demonstrate that motivation strategies can work, in the sense that they are associated either with more positive attitudes towards L2 learning, or with more motivated behaviour in class, or both. This is a promising start, although to date these strategies have not been empirically tested in Anglophone contexts, and there are many questions still to be explored, such as the relative importance of the strategies, and whether effects might be maintained over a longer term. In broad terms, however, these studies support other claims that the teacher can influence L2 motivation (Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001, Borg, 2006).

Language learning strategies

Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) or a person's beliefs about his/her capability to succeed in a given area of activity is an important component of L2 motivation, regardless of theoretical model. In a six-month intervention study with two groups of low-intermediate students of French, Graham & Macaro (2008) successfully trained learners in a set of listening strategies (prediction, identifying key words, recognising word boundaries), improving both their listening proficiency and their self-efficacy.

CALL (Computer-assisted language learning)

There have been more innovations in the use of digital technologies for language learning than in any other aspect of L2 methodology in recent times, and the evidence for improving attitudes to language learning is strong (Macaro, Handley & Walter, 2012). Researchers identify the increased opportunities for autonomy that use of digital technologies represents as a principal reason for the success. In addition, they highlight the possibilities for interaction with target language speakers, identity development and the fact that the use of new technologies makes the most of learners' pre-existing knowledge and preferences.

Intercultural understanding and advocacy

It is widely thought that initiatives to bring learners closer to the culture of the target language country, (including its routines, habits, customs, traditions, beliefs, as well as its music, food, film, literature, places and architecture), may serve to build intrinsic motivation for language learning. This is the impetus behind pen-friend schemes, exchanges, film clubs and visits from native speakers. Lamb (2017) reviews two somewhat contradictory studies: in one study over two years (Acheson, Nelson & Luna, 2015) students of Spanish in two American secondary schools were given direct instruction and practice activities in intercultural competence during their Spanish language lessons. Post-tests revealed significant gains in their attitudes to Hispanic languages and people and greater motivation for L2 learning, when compared with the control group. A second study (Peiser & Jones, 2013) of more than 700 UK secondary school students found, however, that interest in intercultural understanding was dependent on a range of different factors, including ability, such that more academic students were less interested in intercultural understanding than other groups.

A different, but related initiative to make L2 learning more relevant to secondary school learners in the UK involved a study with two advocacy-focused interventions (Taylor & Marsden, 2014). 604 13/14 year-old students across three secondary schools in England were involved in either a panel discussion with external speakers or a lesson with an external tutor, both of which were designed to demonstrate the value and relevance of language learning. Whilst findings showed that learners who participated in the panel discussion reported more positive attitudes, critically the strongest predictor of uptake at KS4 was the perception of personal relevance of languages, with perceptions of language lessons and attitudes to languages also reliable predictors. There are indications

elsewhere in the literature, however, that more substantial advocacy at school level can have an impact. Coleman et al. (2007) found that motivation for L2 learning was highest in schools that had implemented and sustained a strong commitment to language learning at KS4 at senior leadership level.

Despite the positive indications that motivation for language learning can be positively influenced, it is important to be mindful of both the complexity of L2 motivation, and the importance of individual learner differences. As Lamb concludes,

"The moderate results usually obtained in L2 motivation research also reminds us of the significance of individual learner differences, since pedagogical innovations rarely gain universal approval – what works for one learner may not work for another" (Lamb, 2017, p.47).

Individual learner difference emerges as an important theme in the present study which aims to contribute to a growing body of second/foreign language research that assesses the motivational effects of particular pedagogical innovations or interventions, and which in turn is part of a broader body of research examining the motivational effects of language teaching.

LanguageFutures

Chapter 2: The pedagogical landscape in England

Pedagogical approaches do not exist in a vacuum. They are, more often than not, a response to a problem with the status quo. The impetus for the first model of Language Futures, at Linton Village College in Cambridgeshire, came from the then Deputy Principal, Vivien Corrie, who was concerned with the conundrum of foreign language learning in schools in England: 'Why is it that our students find language learning so different and are so often disengaged with languages when our continental counterparts are able to become so fluent and are often highly motivated?' (Rice, 2013). As already detailed in the previous chapter, this level of demotivation is widespread in English secondary language classrooms. This particular school's answer was a pedagogical innovation that became Language Futures. Following a substantial pilot study, the current study aims to explore the learning opportunities offered by this approach. To provide an up-to-date context, seven years after the first Language Futures model, it is relevant to evaluate briefly the current state of languages teaching and learning in secondary schools in England, as well as to review the findings from previous research studies of Language Futures.

2.1 The current language learning context in England

Numbers of students learning a foreign language beyond the age of 14 in schools in England declined markedly from 2002 onwards until 2011, when just 40% of the cohort took a GCSE in a foreign language. In response to this, and the decline in entries for other 'academic' subjects such as history and geography, the government introduced the English Baccalaureate (EBacc), a performance measure for schools in England, first applied in the 2010 school performance tables. It measures the achievement of pupils who gain Key Stage 4 (GCSE level) qualifications in the following subjects: English, mathematics, history or geography, science and a modern foreign language.

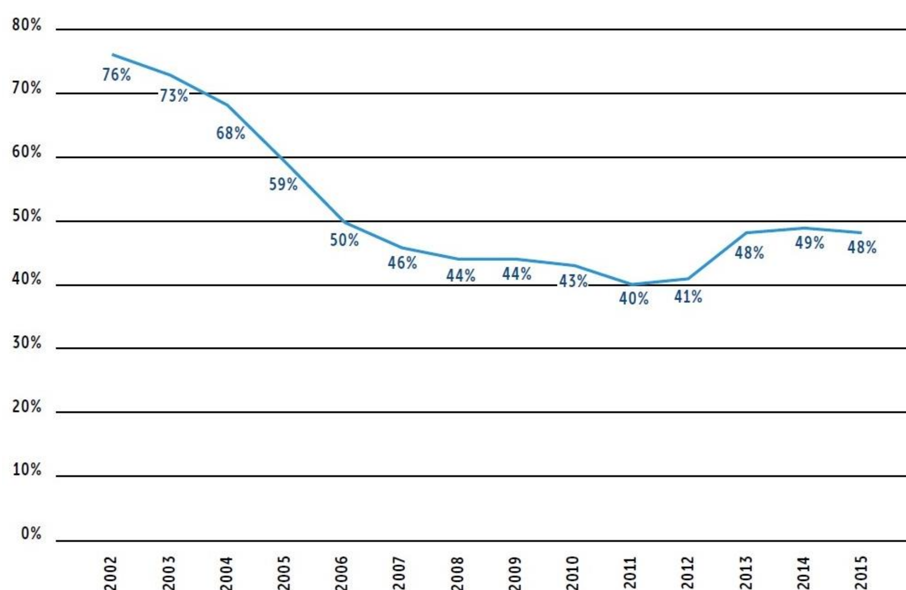


Figure 3: Proportion of end of Key Stage 4 students sitting a GCSE in a language, 2002 – 2015.

After an initial upturn in the number of languages entries to 48% in 2013 the situation stagnated, prompting the government to announce in June 2015 that 90% pupils beginning Year 7 in September 2015 would study the EBacc at GCSE level, meaning they would take their GCSEs in those subjects in 2020 (Gibb, 2015). However, according to the 2016/17 Language Trends Survey, schools are not preparing for big increases in numbers taking languages at GCSE as a result of the compulsory EBacc

proposal (Tinsley & Board, 2017). The study reports students' reluctance to study a language and the perceived unsuitability of GCSE for all students as the most significant barriers to higher uptake of languages post-14. Alarmingly, opportunities to study a language are still associated with high-performing schools and those with low levels of socio-economic deprivation.

In the Association for Language Learning's statement on GCSE results 2017, ALL's President Anna Lise Gordon (2016-2018) drew attention to another year of fewer entries for GCSE, with the number of UK entries overall down 7.3% on the previous year (French -9.9%, German -13.2% and Spanish -1.8%), urging the government to take action on the issue of severe grading, widely recognised as one of the principal causes for the decline in entries (Gordon, 2017).

Current DfE policy has now postponed to 2025 the expectation that 90% of pupils will sit a GCSE in a foreign language, in a bid to give schools the time they need to prepare. There is evidence from head teachers, however, that this government ambition will be widely ignored, just as was the previous government KS4 benchmark of between 50-90% more than a decade ago. Since 2008 the proportion of pupils getting a good GCSE in a modern language has been included in public statistics, and yet the proportion of students studying languages at KS4 has continued to decline. We had a new curriculum in 2007, and another in 2014, the latest supported by the statutory requirement to teach foreign languages at KS2, and ensure suitable progression in one language (notionally to A1 on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages). Whilst more than 85% of primary schools are teaching languages at KS2, there are issues surrounding the regularity of lessons, quality of teaching provision, curriculum planning, assessment and transition to secondary school.

It is against this sobering background of unsuccessful policy interventions and persistent lack of student engagement with language learning nationally that I review the findings from three previous small-scale research studies (Hawkes, 2011a, 2011b, 2016) which examined the Language Futures approach.

2.2 Indications from previous Language Futures research

The first study (Hawkes, 2011a) focused on 14 students who had completed the first Language Futures programme from September 2009 until July 2011, when they were in Years 8 and 9. Following the completion of that programme, all 14 participants and the Teaching Assistant who had worked with them throughout, were interviewed individually, in pairs or small groups. These interviews were recorded, transcribed and analysed to produce a report, which synthesised key emerging themes to provide both a source of information to other schools wishing to embark on Language Futures or other student-centred language learning approaches, as well as relevant feedback to the project school as it set up its next phase.
This small-scale interpretative study explored the motivational aspects of choice of language and learner agency, the roles of teacher and mentors, the progress made by students, as well as their attitudes to Language Futures and to language learning more generally. The second study (Hawkes, 2011b) reviewed changes made to the programme for the new cohort, as a result of the first study.

The Language Futures approach explored in the study led to the identification of 'nuggets of gold' (Hawkes, 2011a), elements of promise that require further investigation and development. The report makes a persuasive case that 'choice in language learning is positively aligned with motivation for language learning'. There were glimmers of the potential for achieving the deeper levels of learner engagement needed to blur the boundaries between classroom learning and learning beyond the classroom. There were also tensions that emerged between the aims of the approach and the individual needs of the learners, and differences in learner responses to the opportunities

that increased autonomy presented. The indications in the study were, in general, that linguistic progress, as measured by former national curriculum levels, was slower than in a traditional teacher-led classroom. This too was an aspect requiring further research, as it raised questions as to whether the definition of 'progress' needed broadening to include aspects of language learning competence, such as language awareness (Hawkins, 1984), autonomy (Little, 1997) or language learning strategies (Macaro, 2001, 2007) which, the report suggest, may be developed within the Language Futures approach.

The third study was the pilot case study for the present study. The model of Language Futures in the pilot school was an in-curriculum model for a group of 14 Year 8 (age 12-13) students. At the time of data collection for this pilot study there were 14 students in the class. The group had an extremely diverse academic profile in terms of previous and current achievement in English and maths, attitudes to school and learning, and classroom behaviour. Seven students had SEN (Special Educational Needs) including low literacy and dyslexia, including three students with major SEMB (Social, Emotional, Mental and Behavioural) difficulties. Of these, one was additionally EAL (English as an Additional Language). In total, six students were EAL. Contrary to initial expectations when the group was created, five of the 14 students had elected to continue with a language (French or Spanish) to GCSE and were set to begin the three-year GCSE course the following year in Year 9.

In terms of student response to the programme and comparison with traditional classroom-based teaching, there were mixed preferences, with a few students liking both, some liking neither, and two preferring classroom-based language lessons. However, as in previous studies, choice emerged as an aspect of the Language Futures approach that is strongly associated with learner engagement. Different aspects of learner choice all appear to play a role, even when the extent of the choice is quite modest. These include choice with respect to: language learnt, task, micro-topic, moment-by-moment choices within project-based learning, curriculum and pedagogy (teacher). Certain key aspects of the LF programme were not as positively embraced, and it emerged that students did not necessarily possess the skills they needed in order to benefit from the opportunities for autonomy and project-based learning. The features of School as basecamp and Building a learning community also remained rather under-developed. This, in turn, had an impact on the role of Teacher as designer and facilitator. The teacher was very clear in her view that without mentor input, progress was significantly restricted, both in terms of spoken confidence and also in terms of conceptual knowledge of the language. Without mentors in the programme, the teacher felt less able to facilitate and tended to adopt a more directly instructional role, and without parental involvement the teacher had limited expectations for learner engagement beyond the classroom. A tentative conclusion drawn was that the core features of the LF programme are inter-dependent and need to be present and where possible, as fully developed as they can be, to allow the teacher role to be fully facilitative, and for optimum learning to take place.

In terms of linguistic progress, despite evidence that learners made progress in speaking and writing within the Language Futures approach, the students in this pilot study struggled with particular aspects of spoken linguistic development, most notably pronunciation, retrieval of vocabulary when speaking, and speaking in full sentences. This seemed to be principally as a result of a lack of oral input and practice, the reasons for which are explored more thoroughly in the full pilot study report. In written work, students produced longer, more complete sentences than in speaking. However, their writing was influenced by the use of online tools, and the word choice was often unusual, unidiomatic or incorrect. The study also highlighted however that for individual students the LF

approach probably led to better linguistic progress, simply because students were better motivated and better behaved in those lessons.

2.3 Research purpose

The overarching purpose of the current study was to add to the findings of the initial small-scale studies by carrying out further case studies of Language Futures approaches in a number of schools, with a view to increasing the knowledge base about language learning within the LF approach, as well as to provide teachers and other stakeholders with a number of richly detailed accounts of the LF approach in action. The following chapter details the main study methodology.

LanguageFutures

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Methodological paradigm

The assumptions about knowing and learning that underpin the Language Futures approach are explored in detail in Chapter 1. As previously mentioned, it is appropriate to align the research approach with the theory underlying the object of the inquiry, and it is equally important that there is coherence between the epistemological stance invoked and the methodological approach adopted by the researcher (Crotty, 2003). This chapter sets out the link between the methods of data collection and analysis and the overall methodological paradigm and epistemology that support them. The main part of this chapter describes in detail the design and use of the research methods, procedures, setting and tools used in the main study. The final sections consider the validity and reliability of the research, and discuss its ethical considerations.
Qualitative or interpretative research assumes that reality is mentally and socially constructed. What can be known within this view of the world is situation-specific and partial, but the pursuit of such knowledge aims to yield greater understanding about a given phenomenon through the cumulative addition to previous knowledge of the same. Key characteristics of qualitative research are: the goal of in-depth understanding, an emic (insider) perspective, the researcher as principal means of data collection and analysis, the collection of data within a natural setting, and an inductive approach to data analysis and rich description (Merriam, 1998). The detailed study of a particular situation or 'case' is an approach often used in interpretive research. The purpose of this study was to understand language learning within the Language Futures approach. This overarching aim was the basis upon which the following research questions were formulated and the point of departure for the detail of the research design which follows.

3.2 Research questions

1. What progress do pupils make following the Language Futures approach?

The aim of this research question was to describe what learners are able to do in the language they are learning in Language Futures. It was important to describe progress from the participants' (learners, teacher and mentors) perspective, and explore the relationship between perceptions of progress and engagement in the approach.

2. How does their progress compare to conventional classroom-based progress in language learning?

This question hinges on the nature of language learning progress within the Language Futures approach, and the extent to which it is different from other more conventional classroom-based progress. As we know from the description of the approach in Chapter 1 LF differs substantially from conventional classroom-based language teaching and learning. Where the design and organisation of teaching and learning are so different, we may expect the learning, and therefore the progress, to be qualitatively different as well, as previous studies have suggested. The goal of this question was to describe all aspects of progress within the LF approach and set these within the context of teacher, learner and researcher perceptions of progress in more traditional classroom-based language learning. The study did not include a comparative, experimental element. Most learners and all teachers involved in the study were also engaged in language-learning within conventional contexts at the same time as their involvement with Language Futures, so the aim was to draw together learner, teacher and researcher perceptions of comparative progress in the two approaches.

LanguageFutures

3. What are some of the key factors that impact on this approach?

Previous studies indicated that elements of the Language Futures approach were aligned with a deepening engagement in language learning. However, there were individual differences in the extent to which the learning affordances of the LF approach were taken up. This question seeks to identify the key factors of Language Futures that influence learners' engagement in language learning, exploring their impact on different learners. The study builds on previously identified features but in keeping with the open-ended nature of qualitative research is attentive to the emergence of other factors.

3.3 Research strategy

This pilot study followed a qualitative case study approach. In keeping with the main methods for qualitative research, the study included interviews, observation and document analysis. However, as with many recent studies within educational research, the study included elements of a mixed-methods approach, questionnaires and descriptive analysis, whilst continuing to meet the conditions of a qualitative paradigm. The small-scale quantitative work within the study served as a starting point for further qualitative inquiry, or was part of the triangulation process. One further point about qualitative research is that its design should aim to be as flexible and reflexive to change as possible, notwithstanding any logistical constraints. As will emerge in the account that follows, a degree of flexibility was required at key stages in the research process.

Case Study

The qualitative case study approach seeks in-depth knowledge within natural settings (Bassey, 1999), which applies to the classroom context of this pilot study. In qualitative case studies conducted in educational settings, as Merriam (1998) notes: 'The interest is in process rather than outcomes, in context rather than a specific variable, in discovery rather than confirmation.'

The specific type of case study design is influenced by its overall purpose. Stake (1995), Bassey (1999), and Yin (2003) use different terms to define a variety of case study types. Stake (1995) uses the description 'instrumental' for studies whose core purpose is 'to understand something else' (Stake, 1995, p.3). The case may be a teacher or class but the aim is to illuminate something other than the peculiarities of the case itself. The 'instrumental' in this case study was to understand process of language learning within the Language Futures approach through the study of a particular case, or cases. In the pilot study, the case, the class of teacher, learners and mentors, plays a supportive role in facilitating our understanding of Language Futures learning. The rich detail of the singular case is of primary importance precisely because it supports a better understanding of the LF approach.
Further definition of the pilot case study design is provided by Yin's (1993) identification of three types of case study: exploratory, explanatory and descriptive:

> An exploratory case study… is aimed at defining the questions and hypotheses of a subsequent (not necessarily case) study… A descriptive case study presents a complete description of a phenomenon within its context. An explanatory case study presents data bearing on case-effect relationships – explaining which causes produced which effects. (1993, p.5)

Within this definition this study is located as both exploratory and descriptive, as it explores a learning context in which the learning approach has, as yet, no clearly-defined outcomes, and that it describes the LF approach within the real-life context in which it occurs. The study also conforms to

Bassey's (1999) model of evaluative case study, which seeks to describe, interpret or explain what is happening.

Yin (2003) also argues that, all things being equal, it is always preferable to have a multiple-case rather than single case approach. In the present study it has been imperative to do so. At the outset there were already two distinct models, an in-curriculum and extra-curriculum model, with four schools offering each model. It emerged during the main data collection phase, that, despite features in common, the different school contexts and cohorts had generated at least four distinct models of LF. In order to provide rich, detailed accounts of each, this study therefore became four linked case studies. The methodology and research methods are the same for all studies and therefore outlined here. In the following four chapters there is a detailed description of each LF model, analysis and findings, after which a discussion chapter to draw together and summarise the overall findings and a concluding chapter to explore their implications.

Research design summary

The research design comprised an exploratory, descriptive, evaluative case study situated within a constructivist framework that informed the study's theoretical and pedagogical purposes. The following table provides a summary of the research design, including the principal methods:

Table 2. Research design summary

Research question	Research aims	Research paradigms	Research methods
1) What progress do students make following the Language Futures approach?	To detail the linguistic progress that learners make and to probe the relationship between perceptions of progress and engagement in the approach	Descriptive Case Study	Observation Student self-report data Student interviews Teacher interview Thematic and open coding Micro-textual analysis
2) How does their progress compare to conventional classroom-based progress in language learning?	To compare progress within Language Futures with conventional classroom-based progress, and explore in detail the nature of progress, including linguistic, meta-linguistic and other skills	Descriptive Case Study	Observation Student self-report data Student interviews Teacher interview Thematic and open coding Micro-textual analysis
3) What are some of the key factors that impact on this approach?	To explore the perceptions of all participants in the Language Futures approach in order to identify, describe and analyse the key factors that impact on its effectiveness for language learning	Descriptive Case Study	Classroom observation notes Teacher interviews Learner interviews Mentor interviews Thematic and open coding Micro-textual analysis

3.4 Research methods: data collection

The context for this study was England. The schools in which the study was conducted and data were collected were co-educational state maintained secondary schools with pupils attending in the 11–16 or 11-18 age range. There were eight schools involved in the project: four offering an in-curriculum model of Language Futures and four an after-school enrichment model. As mentioned, four distinct LF models emerged, leading to four case studies. The models and allocation of schools

to each model is shown in Table 3 below. Each school context is described in detail within the individual case studies that follow.

Table 3. LF models and schools

Language Futures model	School
In-curriculum 2nd foreign language	A
In-curriculum community language	B
KS3 in-curriculum alternative language provision	C + D
Extra-curricular language learning	E+F+G+H

As is typical within qualitative case study research, there were multiple data sources. In order to gather the views of students, teachers and mentors, recorded interviews were the main method of data collection, with supplementary tools for triangulation including student and teacher questionnaires, classroom observation notes, samples of work, schemes of work and images.

For this study, two visits were made to each school, one in February-March 2017 and the second in June-July 2017. Visits were made by one of two researchers. All interviews with students, mentors and teachers were recorded and later transcribed by the principal researcher. Most visits included a classroom observation. The field notes taken during these observations were included in the documents available for thematic analysis.

The self-report data outlined above were collected on two, single day visits to the project schools. At least one visit to each school coincided with a Language Futures lesson, which was also observed. There was an element of teacher and self-selection in the students who were interviewed. The teacher made a preliminary selection based on those students she felt would feel least inhibited about talking to a visitor and be best able to articulate their thoughts and ideas, but students themselves were able to select or de-select themselves on the day from the sample, without any pressure.

Self-report data

The five main sources of self-report data in the study were: student questionnaires (Appendix A), teacher questionnaire (Appendix B), student interviews (Appendix C), teacher interviews (Appendix D) and mentor interviews (Appendix E). Three of these were collected on the research day visits in the spring and summer terms, whilst the teacher and student questionnaires were collected towards the end of the autumn term and start of the spring term, respectively.
The student questionnaire was substantially changed from the one used in the pilot study, which itself was adapted from one used in a recent research investigation into the progress of primary French learners (Graham et al., 2014). The first main change was the nature of the collection tool itself. Taking into account the increase in number of study participants, from 14 in the pilot study to more than 103 in the present study, it seemed useful to use an online survey, both for ease of collection and storage of data but also for the possibilities for analysis offered by most online survey sites, so www.surveymonkey.com was chosen, due to the researcher's familiarity with it. The second change was to the questions themselves, which were altered to elicit more clearly students' perceptions about the main features of LF. Construction of the questionnaire items started with a set of key statements about the LF features, which individual questions would address. Table 4 below shows the mapping of features to questions:

Table 4: Language Futures Questionnaire construction

LF core feature	Key statement	Question items
Choice	1 Students choose their language of study	1, 2, 3
Autonomy	2 Autonomous learning is facilitated	4
Task-based learning	3. Learning is task-based	17, 18, 19, 20, 21
Building a learning community	4. There is parental involvement	25
	5. There are community mentors	26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34
School as basecamp	6. Students learn outside of lessons	22, 23, 24

Questions 5-16 targeted students' self-evaluations of their linguistic development. The items were a mixture of multiple-choice (single and multiple answer variations) and sentence-completion tasks.

The purpose of the student questionnaires was primarily to suggest fruitful themes to follow up in the student interviews. At data reduction and analysis stages, it also proved useful to generate some descriptive analyses comparing responses between the four LF models.

The teacher questionnaire was designed with two purposes: first, to elicit contextual information about the specific Languages Future model, as well as about the learners, and second, to inform the interview questions. As such, it was important to complete this well in advance of the main data collection visit. Feedback from the Language Futures teachers who completed it indicated that it took between one to one and a half hours to complete, but that it was a very valuable activity in helping them to process and reflect on the Language Futures approach ahead of the interview.

Semi-structured interviews are the most common type of interview for qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007), and are appropriate when the researcher has substantial knowledge of the object of the research to develop some questions in advance. The in-depth student, mentor and teacher interviews took between 15 and 45 minutes each and were recorded. Students were interviewed either individually, in pairs or in trios, as organised by each LF school. Additional hand-written notes taken during the interviews were included in the supplementary documentary data and included for coding during data analysis.

Linguistic data

It is important to note at this point that, in contrast to the pilot study, tasks to elicit linguistic data from students were not used in the main study. The main reason for this was that the range of languages represented in the project as a whole (English (EAL), French, German, Greek, Italian, Japanese, Mandarin, Polish, Portuguese and Spanish), the differences in difficulty experienced in learning for predominantly native speakers of English, and the overall number of students involved in the project, made attempts to measure and compare progress through elicitation tasks rather implausible. However, where available and possible, the study made use of teacher assessment data to support student and teacher perception data to analyse linguistic progress within LF.

3.5 Research methods: data analysis

The overall approach to analysis in this study was inductive, but it was guided by the overall theoretical and conceptual framework of Learning Futures. A large proportion of the data collected for this study was collected as raw oral data. These were student, mentor and teacher interviews. The key processes involved in data analysis of the oral data were transcription, coding, and interpretive pattern-finding and micro-textual analysis. As a first step there was some limited descriptive analysis, involving numerical counts and frequencies of the student questionnaire data. These served to trigger questions for further exploration through the fine-grained textual analysis of other data.

I include first a table summarising the data analysis schedule and then describe each of the key analytic processes in turn in the following sub-sections:

Table 5: Data collection and analysis schedule

Phase 1: Data collection	**Time**	**Data reduction and analysis**
Teacher questionnaires	September-October 2016	Comparison of LF models
Student questionnaires	January 2017	Numerical counts Written collation of verbal questionnaire responses into one electronic document
Visit 1 to all schools: student, mentor & teacher interviews	February-March 2017	Transcribed and saved as Word documents
Visit 2 to all schools: student, mentor & teacher interviews	June-July 2017	Transcribed and saved as Word documents
Phase 2: Coding	**Time**	**Data Analysis Activity**
Data coding	March – October 2017	Thematic and open coding of all textual data using NVivo
Phase 3: Analysis	**Time**	**Data Analysis Activity**
Descriptive analysis	June-July 2017	Pattern-finding within numerical questionnaire data
Interpretive analysis	November 2017 – January 2018	Data explored & patterns identified within and between all documented data

Descriptive analysis

The purpose of the numerical counts and frequencies were a first step; part display and part analysis. (Foster & Ohta, 2005). The questionnaire's purpose was not to generate generalizable findings but to contribute to the overall description of the cases in order to know more about

students' experience of language learning within the Language Futures approach. The expectation was, in addition, that the data would highlight patterns that triggered further exploration.

Transcription and coding

The principal researcher transcribed all of the recorded oral data verbatim. Although the option to outsource the transcription was initially considered for logistical reasons, it was felt that transcription is a key part of the analysis process, where initial points of interest are registered within the data, and that the 'hands-on' working that transcription involves increases the reflexivity and emic perspective of the researcher. To facilitate the process, the researcher used the 'change tempo' function in the free open source digital audio editing software Audacity, as this made it possible to slow the audio speed. At the end of each interview transcription the researcher re-listened to the interview at normal speed, checking the transcript and amending any inaccuracies. A sample of the interviews was checked by a second researcher.
All textual data, in the form of word documents, were then imported into NVivo qualitative data analysis software (QSR International Pty Ltd. Version 11, 2015). The researcher then proceeded to code the data, using a system of open coding consistent with an inductive approach to analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Following Charmaz (2006) initial coding was completed 'line by line' extending and elaborating the taxonomy of codes to fit all of the interview, field notes and student task data. This ensured a close adherence to all of the raw data during analysis. The full list of codes that became the coding framework is in Appendix F.

In informing this study's research questions, the theoretical and conceptual framework of Language Futures was instrumental in determining where to look and what to look for. This was not the neutral 'unmotivated looking' of conversation analysis (Mori, 2004, p.539). However, by not determining codes a priori the commitment to coding in response to the data, and not in advance of them, was maintained.

Thematic analysis

Following the initial elaboration of themes through coding, the themes were explored further using an iterative process of reading and re-reading, using NVivo tools (e.g. Query Wizard) to display parts of the data in different configurations, examining possible connections and relationships between content coded thematically. This is an absorbing, time-intensive process, and care is needed to stay as close to the raw data as possible, and avoid easy assumptions and convenient patterns.

3.6 Ethics

Decisions taken at the design stage were informed by both the Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (BERA, 2004) and the Recommendations on Good Practice in Applied Linguistics (BAAL, 2000) but ethical considerations emerged as the study evolved and each was resolved in a spirit of respect for all those involved in the study, as well as for the integrity of the research. The main aspects to consider involved issues of consent; anonymity and confidentiality; and the relationship of the researcher to the teachers involved. Each is described in the sub-sections that follow.

Consent

Informed consent for the study from the school was obtained at the senior leadership level via exchange of letter with the pilot school's principal at the planning stage. The Language Futures teachers and Heads of Languages Departments had already given their consent to participate at the

LanguageFutures

outset of the project. Where students were interviewed, informed consent from parents was obtained. Students themselves participated by consent in the interviews on the day. The questionnaires were completed by all as part of their Language Futures lesson time.

Anonymity and confidentiality

The commitment to guarantee confidentiality and maintain full anonymity was made to all participants and has been upheld. In addition, all audio-recorded data and documentation were stored securely and measures taken to ensure that they do not enter the public domain.

Teacher-Researcher relationship

It is worth noting that the nature of this study, with its primary focus on understanding the impact of a theoretically and pedagogically-defined approach, is less likely to invoke high levels of sensitivity than other qualitative research studies that set out probe more deeply into teachers' individual beliefs or competences. However, teachers are deeply concerned with their students' learning and engagement in language learning and invest a great deal in trying to develop it. Disclosure and transparency are, therefore, critical elements in the teacher-researcher relationship. In this study the methods of data collection and the instruments used were discussed in advance with the LF teachers involved. The draft study report of was sent to the LF teacher for comments, and time for review, before it was made public. The next four chapters report the four LF case studies linked in this study.

LanguageFutures

Chapter 4: Case Study 1
Language Futures as in-curriculum 2nd foreign language

As previously mentioned, within the eight schools involved in the study, four distinct models of Language Futures emerged. To provide as meaningful as possible an account of the learning within each, data were analysed and findings presented separately, together with a full description of the context, school, LF model, teacher, mentors and student participants for each of the four models. In addition to increasing research validity, this transparency will support any schools that aim to introduce LF.

4.1 The school

The school (School A) is a mixed gender secondary academy, part of a small, multi-academy trust in the East of England. Rated 'outstanding' in its last Ofsted inspection, the school has a lower than average proportion of pupil premium students (pupil premium being additional funding for students known to be eligible for free school meals, those in local authority care and those with a parent in the armed services). The proportion of students who represent minority ethnic groups is much lower than the national average and so is the proportion who speak English as an additional language. The proportion of students who need additional support with their learning; those at school action plus and those with a statement of special educational needs, is approximately the same as the national average.

4.2 The Language Futures model

In School A, the model of Language Futures is an in-curriculum model for two classes of Year 9 (age 13-14 year-old) students. All students at the school learn either French or Spanish from Year 7 (students aged 11-12) and throughout Key Stage 3 (two or three year phase of secondary education, in which language learning is compulsory in England). The groups of students who began LF at the start of Year 9 applied to do so. They were all students in the highest attaining sets in Year 8, who were offered the choice between studying a second foreign language (French or Spanish) in the usual way or a second foreign language of their choice as part of the LF programme. In the year of this study, approximately two-thirds of students given this choice had opted to take part in LF, leaving two smaller groups of students to learn French and Spanish as taught, ab initio options. Within the model's design, all LF students continued to learn their first foreign language (either French or Spanish), with two hourly lessons of mainstream classroom teaching each week, whilst they picked up their choice of second foreign language, also for two hours per week. This LF model has the full support of the senior leadership team, and as all students involved are higher attaining students, the expectation is that all or almost all students opt to continue with a language to GCSE during Key Stage 4 (two or three year phase of secondary education, in which language learning is a statutory entitlement, but not compulsory). That being said, there is no compulsion for students at the school to take a language during Key Stage 4, and students are given the freedom to choose all of their GCSE options.

In terms of its design, this model of Language Futures sought to include all five core features of the approach, as described below:

Student choice and agency

As explained, students in this school choose either to take part in Language Futures or to learn their second foreign language in the classroom. In addition, students who are interested in the Language Futures programme select the language that they want to study. The school commits to allowing

students to learn the language of their choice, as long as there are at least two students who want to study it, and as long as a mentor for that language can be found. At the time of this study, the languages that had been chosen and were being studied were Mandarin Chinese, Italian, German, Greek, Russian, Swedish and Japanese. Table 6 shows the number of students learning each language:

Table 6: LF languages and numbers of learners

Language	Number of learners
German	14
Italian	11
Mandarin	8
Greek	3
Russian	3
Japanese	2
Swedish	2
Total no. of learners	43

In terms of choices of what and how to learn, students followed a Scheme of Work (SOW), detailed in Table 7, but in lessons and out of school they determined for themselves which resources to use, how to record, practise and retain the new language.

Table 7: Languages Futures Scheme of Work overview (School A)

Theme	Grammar	Knowledge about language	Language learning strategies	Project outcomes
All about me	Present Question words Nouns – singular/plural, gender, articles	• Pronunciation rules • Sound-writing relationship (if applicable) • Writing conventions • Syntax – basic sentence structure	• How to retain vocabulary • How to research new language • How to pronounce accurately • How to make sense of what you read/hear • Peer and teamwork	Spoken presentation
Food and dining	Verbs of opinion Asking questions			Come dine with me dialogue
Celebrations and events				Video presentations
Sports and hobbies	Past			Cooking
Music – types, instruments	Past tense revision			Role plays
School – subjects, opinions, comparison	Future Comparative			

Teacher as designer and facilitator

During the LF lessons in School A, the teachers' role was to support learning and guide students with their use of resources. In addition, the teacher often provided the initial framework for the learning, often by using English or French/Spanish as a point of grammatical reference, setting up a series of questions for students to research and answer about their own target languages. Not a speaker of several of the languages, but as knowledgeable linguists, LF teachers in School A sought to help

students to navigate and interpret what they found online, in textbooks or other reference materials.

School as basecamp

When students choose to take their learning beyond the classroom, this indicates a significant level of engagement in learning, and is suggestive of greater learning progress over time. It is not unique to the Language Futures approach, but School as basecamp is one of its core features. The study therefore explored the extent to which LF students in School A were engaging in extra-curricular learning.

Project-based learning

In their LF lessons, learners in School A completed linguistic and cultural projects in their LF language. Through teacher and student interview and teacher and student questionnaires this study probed the impact of project-based learning on student motivation, knowledge and skill development and overall progress, the analysis revealing both positive outcomes and some limiting factors.

Building a learning community

Affective support and linguistic scaffolding are key components of the LF classroom. Previous models of the project provide evidence that peer support fulfils several important functions. Language expert adult mentors from the community have also proven essential to the success of previous schools' versions of the programme. The main study aimed to extend our understanding of the impact of both sources of support (peer and mentor). In School A, LF mentors were adult members of the local community, native and non-native speakers of the different languages. They were recruited, trained and supported in their role by the LF co-ordinator. The impact of peers, adult mentors, the LF teachers and co-ordinator and that of parents and siblings on students' learning is evaluated in the analysis that follows.

4.3 The participants

The learners

At the time of data collection for this study there were 43 students in two classes. Whilst background data and student and teacher questionnaire data were collected for both groups, lesson observation, teacher and student interviews focused on one of the two classes. In terms of academic profile, both groups were relatively homogenous, higher-attaining students. At the start of the LF programme, one class had an average attainment level National Curriculum 5A in French, whilst the other had an overall average level 6B in Spanish. In the former, three of the learners had some heritage background knowledge of their LF language, including some literacy, whilst the remainder were beginners. The second class was made up entirely of beginners, and this was the focus class for in-depth interviews and observation.

The Language Futures Coordinator

In their LF learning, School A students are supported by their LF teacher, their peers, a community mentor and their parents. In addition, the role of the Language Futures Co-ordinator is key to this particular model. The co-ordinator communicates and liaises with the teacher, the mentors, the

pupils, the parents, and senior management. One of the key roles of the co-ordinator is to recruit and supervise the mentors. There is some initial induction and training for new mentors each year, but it is the LF co-ordinator who maintains communication between all stakeholders during the year as well. The LF co-ordinator at the time of the project had worked initially as a mentor, later taking up the role of LF co-ordinator as part of a 20-hour per week role of foreign language assistant within the languages department, spending on average 2 hours per week on LF co-ordination.

The teacher

The Language Futures teacher was a full-time teacher of French and Spanish at the school, and Head of Department. She was, at the time of the study, in her second year at the school, and had been interested to become involved in the LF programme, so as to understand a key element of the department's curriculum provision. She had the opportunity to know the students well, as she taught them also for Spanish in a mainstream classroom.

The mentors

It is a pre-requisite of this LF model that there are mentors for each language being learnt. Whilst mentor attendance varies according to individual mentor commitment and availability, on average mentors attended lessons at least once per week to work with students. Within the focus class there were therefore mentors for German, Greek, Italian and Mandarin. Interviews were conducted with mentors for three out of the four languages.

The parents

At the time of recruiting students to the programme, there is a meeting with parents to explain the LF programme's aims and expectations of the students' behaviour and learning. Language Futures aims to harness parents' knowledge of their child and their skills to support their child's language learning at home. To this end parents are given a parental guide which gives them strategies to help them encourage their child's language studies.

4.4 Analysis and findings

The analysis and findings in this chapter are organised around the three overarching research questions and draw on thematic analysis of all of the data sources, focusing first on linguistic progress, then detailing a comparison of progress in Language Futures and conventional classroom teaching, and finally offering an exploration of the range of factors that impact on the LF approach.

4.4.1 Linguistic progress

At the start of the LF programme in School A, all students in the focus class were beginners. At periodic intervals during, and at the end of the one year LF course, students were assessed in all four skills in their LF language, as well as their first foreign language (FL). In this school, national curriculum levels are still in use to measure attainment at KS3. The average attainment level (and range) for each class in their first and LF languages appear in the table below:

Table 8: End of Y9 comparative performance data (first FL and LF)

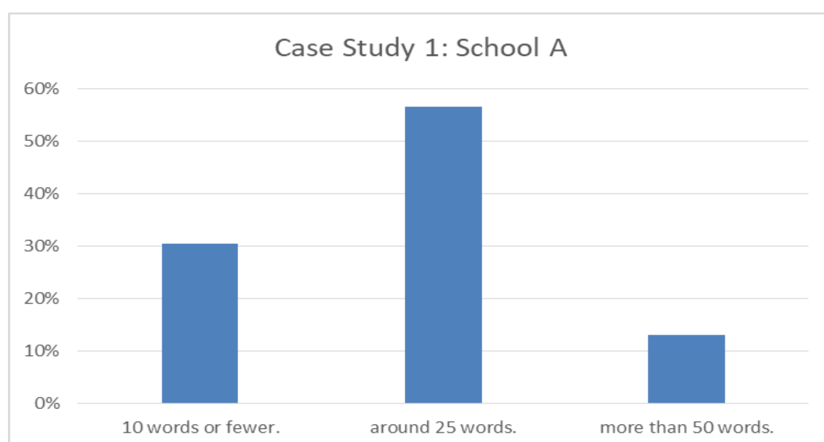
LF class	End of Y9 average attainment 1st foreign language (after three years' study)	End of Y9 average attainment in LF language (after one year of study)
1	6B (range 5A -7C)	4C (range 3C – 4A)
2	6C (range 5B – 6A)	4C (range 3C- 7A)*

* The wider range of outcomes in the second LF class is accounted for by the three learners with heritage language knowledge, who started and ended the year with a much higher level than the ab initio learners.

Although national curriculum levels were abandoned as national attainment measures in 2014, most language teachers still know what they mean (see Appendix G). Broad expectations for NC attainment in languages at Key Stage 3 were: Year 7 (NC 3 – 5), Year 8 (NC 4-6) and Year 9 (NC 5-7). The data above therefore show reasonable, though not exceptional, progress in LF after one year of study, using these measures. More significant than numerical data, however, are data that illuminate the type of linguistic progress students make in LF, compared with a traditional classroom.

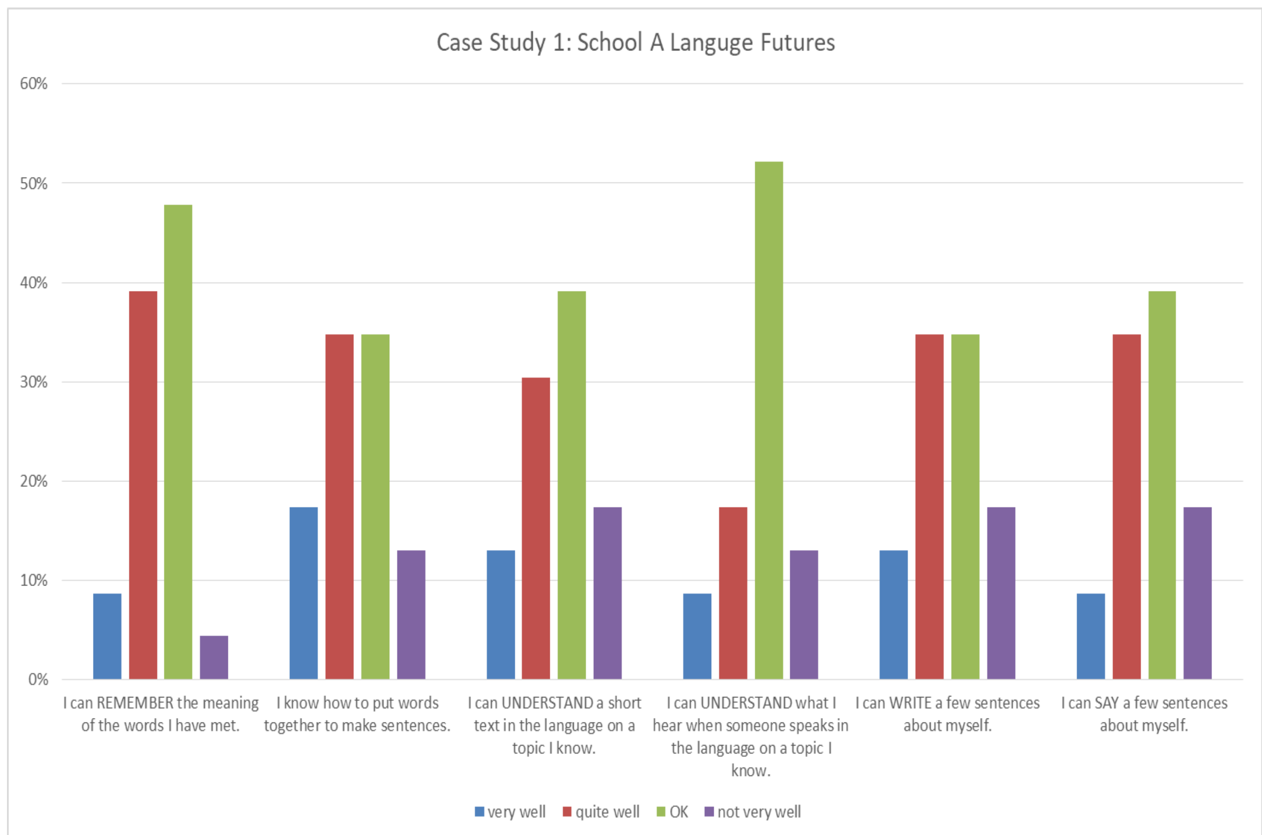
The student questionnaire responses, which included both School A LF classes, were completed approximately four months into the course. At this stage, the majority of students considered that they had mastered a productive repertoire of around 25 words, with 13% estimating a vocabulary of more than 50, and 30% fewer than 10 words.

Figure 4: Student perceptions of vocabulary mastery



It is interesting to compare students' perceptions of confidence across the four skills. Although there is the expected spread of responses, overall there are discernibly higher confidence levels in writing and grammar, when compared to the other three skills, listening, reading and speaking, as Figure 5 shows:

Figure 5: Students' perceptions of their competence in the four skills



Relative competence across the four skills was identified here as a theme for further investigation in the self-report data.

4.4.2 Comparison of perceptions of progress in LF and mainstream classroom teaching

We have identified that, overall, students make reasonable linguistic progress in LF over three terms of study. The LF teacher summarises their progress:
LF teacher*: "The vast majority can carry out a simple conversation and respond to questions. Er.. kind of along the same lines as they might be able to at this point if they were at the end of Year 7, so they've made rapid progress in that respect".*

When seeking to evaluate the benefits of LF as an alternative to classroom teaching, however, it is important to compare students' and others' perceptions of both. Mentor perceptions of student progress were extremely positive, but it is important to remember that mentors are generally not teachers and have no consistent framework of reference for judging student progress in this programme. Students, on the other hand, make direct comparisons between their classroom and LF learning. This researcher found, in common with others in previous studies (Cullingford, 1991; Jelly et al., 2000; Fisher, 2001) that students generate high-quality, thoughtful and reliable data.

When asked to explain the difference between learning Spanish in a classroom and Italian within LF, one student responded:

"Italian's mainly independent work and you sort of do it in our groups or by ourselves with the help of our books, whereas Spanish gets taught to us by the teacher and we do it as a class."

It is interesting how neatly this answer conveys this student's perception of personal agency in LF; the way she learns with the help of books and her peers. In contrast Spanish 'gets taught' to her. In this scenario the teacher does the teaching and those on the receiving end are the whole class.

Students are equally clear about what and how well they learn within the two approaches, too. All LF learners in School A enjoy the ability to choose their language, the freedom to make choices about how to learn and the speed at which they learn, the use of technology (predominantly iPads) and project-based learning. Where differences emerge, these are mainly as a result of their differences in perception in relation to classroom language learning. Some students believe they make better progress in LF because classroom learning is too rigid, and sometimes goes too slowly for them. There is also an acknowledgement that they rely unnecessarily on the teacher for convenience, whereas in LF they are forced to be more proactive. Other students prefer the structure of classroom teaching. They feel they make better progress when there is a teacher in charge, setting and monitoring their tasks more actively than in LF.

Repeated queries to generate positive and negative tabulations of all data related to elements of progress were carried out, and the researcher alternated between bottom-up and top-down views of the data. Data were then compiled in the table below. The wording for each perception is not a direct quote, as often several students expressed the same idea, so for clarity, several instances were combined, synthesised and simplified to summarise to one count of each of the views expressed. However, the language remains as close as possible to the style and vocabulary of students' utterances.

Table 9: Student perceptions of progress in LF and classroom-based language learning

	Language Futures	Classroom learning
Positive	**Choice of language** I think it (choice) makes you more excited about learning the language I wanted to learn a really different language	I'm more interested in Spanish
	Freedom about how to learn I really like the freedom to choose what and how we learn, and the speed of learning Time goes quicker as I'm with people I like I like using iPads You learn quickly in a small group I am interested enough to do some out-of-class learning	A teacher teaching it is easier to learn I have to concentrate more in Spanish We do more to learn the language
	Project-based learning Project-based learning means you're actually using the language Projects are more fun than just learning stuff Projects make things stick Projects give a purpose, an end goal	Spanish lessons have more structure and I learn a bit more I can pronounce better in Spanish
	Meta-cognition I've become more independent in the learning I'm more interested in finding out about things in more depth It's taught me not to rely on the teacher to get information I feel like I know what to do now like if I've got a problem I can work it out	
	Language learning strategies I think LF has made me understand how important pronouncing stuff is Writing (Mandarin) is very difficult, but the more I do it the more I can do You can look at words and sort of think of them in different languages and guess what they are I now know the skills that I need to learn another language if I choose to	
Negative	I don't remember the language The pronunciation is a struggle for me You can learn it wrong when your mentor is not there I prioritise other subjects where we are set homework and our books get marked	It's a set course of lessons which you need to get done I work more autonomously in LF because you can always ask the teacher in Spanish if you need to know anything You might already know something they're trying to teach you We don't use iPads and it's all like the same in Spanish

It is clear from these data that students believe they become more autonomous in their learning when they take part in LF. There are indications that they become more aware of the processes involved in successful language learning. In terms of barriers to the development of linguistic competence, it is also clear that two issues highlighted in previous research, retention and pronunciation, still persist.

4.4.3 Key factors that impact on the LF approach

Choice

For the vast majority of learners, the ability to choose the language of study was either one or the main reason for applying to take part in the programme. For some students, the opportunity to learn in a different way was at least part of the motivation, and distinct from the choice of language itself. Students' reasons given for choosing their particular language were not particularly startling or personal. Those choosing Mandarin did so primarily because it was something completely different from other languages they knew. Those choosing Italian mentioned it as a frequent family holiday destination. Interestingly peer group was a factor in choosing Greek; one student choosing the language because of her Greek grandfather, and the other two students choosing it because they wanted to work together as a peer group.

Agency and autonomy

Students in this LF programme reported high levels of freedom with respect to resources, learning methods and choice of exact vocabulary, and rather less with regard to the tasks and topics. This corresponds to this LF model's design, which has a guiding Scheme of Work setting out the overarching topic areas and projects.
Students' references to the freedom they experienced within LF, both to decide what and how they learnt, including the speed at which they learnt, were overwhelmingly, though not exclusively, positive. In their comments, they traced a connection between the opportunities to direct their own learning and increased interest in learning. For some students, the feeling of autonomy (personal agency) was the overriding positive difference between LF learning and mainstream classroom experiences. For others, the unstructured nature of LF learning led to some feelings of frustration. Teachers and mentors were impressed by the independence shown by learners, although the teacher noticed differences in the extent to which students took up the opportunities for self-direction afforded by the LF approach.

There was also evidence that students transferred greater levels of agency to other subjects, including their first foreign language, but also other curriculum subjects. Students referred to not relying on the teacher, taking responsibility for what they learn, asking more questions, and wanting to find out more.

Whilst the student questionnaire data indicate that only a fifth of students in School A saw themselves as more likely to volunteer answers in other subject lessons, the rest saw themselves as just as likely to do so, which could indicate that they were already students with relatively high confidence and participation. As one student explained:

Interviewer: Do you think Language Futures has changed you in general as a learner in any way?
Student 1: I think it's made me more independent and wanting to find out things on my own, and being more interested in finding out about things in more depth.
Interviewer: And how does it change your behaviour in other classes?
Student 1: I think it makes me ask more questions like yeah, want to find out more, I suppose.
Interviewer: You're more likely to think of questions now?
Student 1: Yeah, I think I'm more likely to think of questions. I think I would have asked questions before this, just maybe not so keenly.

In addition, more than half saw themselves as less likely to experience anxiety in lessons, nearly half felt they were more likely to try to work things out independently, and more than a third more likely to show resilience when faced with challenge. One of the Mandarin learners described his

LanguageFutures

experience of learning how to write characters:

Interviewer: Oh, so do you find it easy or difficult to remember the stroke order and what to do line by line?
Student 4: Very difficult but the more I do it the more I find it easier and the more I can actually do off by heart.

Interestingly, when asked about transfer of skills or knowledge to other subjects, several students pinpointed improvements in language-specific awareness, which they felt were of benefit to them in their Spanish (first FL) lessons:

Interviewer: Do you take any skills that you have acquired about learning and see them in yourself when you go to other lessons?
Student 2: Definitely in Spanish, you can look at words and sort of think of them in different languages and guess what they are, more flexible in lessons.
Student 3: I think Language Futures has made me understand how important pronouncing stuff is, and words and phrases is, to a language, so I think it has benefitted by Spanish with accent and pronunciation.

In terms of specific strategies that students were conscious of having used and developed by themselves during their participation in the LF programme, to help them learn, the following were mentioned:
i. reading it over and over again
ii. using known words to write new sentences or a paragraph
iii. write it on paper, cover, check and move on to the next card
iv. create (funny) imagery to make new language stick
v. put the new language into a role play and practise it

Despite the overwhelming positivity towards the freedom of Language Futures, confirmed in all data sources, some students enjoyed both foreign languages equally (LF and mainstream classroom), and others explicitly preferred their first foreign language, precisely because the lessons offered more structure, which was perceived to be linked to a faster rate of progress:

Student 5: I've really liked how much freedom we have, and choosing what we learn and what speed we learn at, but I do think that the Spanish lessons have more structure so I do think I learn a bit more.

The subject of individual learner differences was evident in all previous LF studies and emerged here as a prominent theme, to which we return later in the report.

Teacher as designer and facilitator

Students, mentor and teacher were consistent in their perception that the teacher was there in an overarching, supervisory capacity. The teacher herself reports needing to intervene and create different groupings to re-establish a positive learning environment:

Teacher: there are some very bright boys who are clearly very keen and want to get on with it, but they're just slightly held back by the attitude of the others, so in that instance, I've intervened and sort of split them into two separate groups, so given the keen beans to the mentor so she can work with them, and then I've taken the slightly less keen to work with them at a slightly different level to bring them back up again.

She also recognises the different nature of the teacher role within LF, and the impact that it has begun to have on her whole class teaching:

Teacher: I think I have let go of the reins far more, not just in year 9 but in all my other classes, and actually there is a way of doing this independently which is just as powerful as me standing there and drilling, whereas if they're going on these lovely little voyages of discovery on their own, I feel as if they've got more ownership of it and then you have to obviously there are times when you do have to go back to you know the good old standard techniques, but yeah, I think it's changed my attitude to teaching, which is refreshing actually.
Those students who really enjoyed the freedom that LF affords, were also those who enjoyed the teacher's more facilitative role:

Student 6: I'd say the difference is it's more independent doing German because there's not a teacher watching you telling you have to do this and that, it's more independent so you can go about it at your own pace and your own method I suppose of working with the language. Spanish is a bit more controlled because it's got a teacher and it's a set lesson pretty much and it's a bit more free in the LF lessons I would say.

On the other hand, there were persistent views that upheld the effectiveness of direct, whole class teaching, claiming that it makes it easier to learn, the language is less forgettable, lessons are more interesting, and the experience is more varied in terms of activities to learn the language. There was also the view that independent learning methods sometimes wasted time because they led to mistakes, which then had to be un-learnt in a subsequent lesson:

Student 2: What we've found with LF this year, is sometimes you could learn it in a lesson where we haven't had a mentor or a teacher and then when they turn up and read it it turns out that we've used google translate or whatever wrong, and so then we've had to learn it again, so perhaps if you learnt how to structure it etc with the teacher it might be better before that.

School as Basecamp

According to self-report student survey data, two-thirds of students spent on average 10-15 minutes per week learning their LF language outside the classroom, and around one fifth spent between 30-60 minutes. Very few claimed to spend more than an hour each week, and at the other end of the spectrum, more than a tenth of School A students claimed to spend very little or no time consolidating their learning outside of the classroom.
In terms of the activities undertaken, the most popular were: using apps to learn vocabulary, listening to songs and watching YouTube.

Interview data revealed that some students prioritised out-of-school learning in subjects where homework was set, mainly because non-completion would be noticed when books were taken in and marked and might incur a sanction. Thus the optional nature of LF made it less of a priority, although students still mentioned that they liked to do it. For example:

Student 5: The more important subjects that get checked on probably come first, coz you'd get a detention if you hadn't done it, but with the Italian we don't hand in our books, but I still like to do it.

In exceptional cases, individual students were, however, spending up to an hour and a half each week, researching new words, putting together things they'd done in lessons into longer sentences, and using some apps for specific vocabulary.

Interviewer: How long would you do you think on average you spend on doing Mandarin outside of in the class time?
Student 7: Er, probably every week probably about half an hour to an hour and a half, maybe.
Interviewer: And do you use any apps to build up your vocabulary? Do you do anything online?
Student 7: Yes, we use some Chinese learning apps, just for, not for the whole sentence, just for specific vocab, like the sports.
Interviewer: And this time that you spend, is that because you've been set homework or is that coz you choose to do it.
Student 7: Mainly coz I choose to do it.

In the case of Mandarin, learners were particularly well-served by extra-curricular opportunities to engage in a Chinese New Year party, to meet Chinese students on an exchange, all of which were taken up positively and enjoyed by all. However, as with the whole LF class, when it came to choosing to do additional learning at home, there was always variable uptake. One Mandarin mentor remembers:

Mentor: for instance, we actually cut up some sort of paper slips and then ask them to ask Chinese words onto it let's say 'sofa' or 'table' and asked them to stick in their house and take photos. Some of them did really send us some photos back and then they said, I shared them with my mum and brother but some of them just forgot to do it.

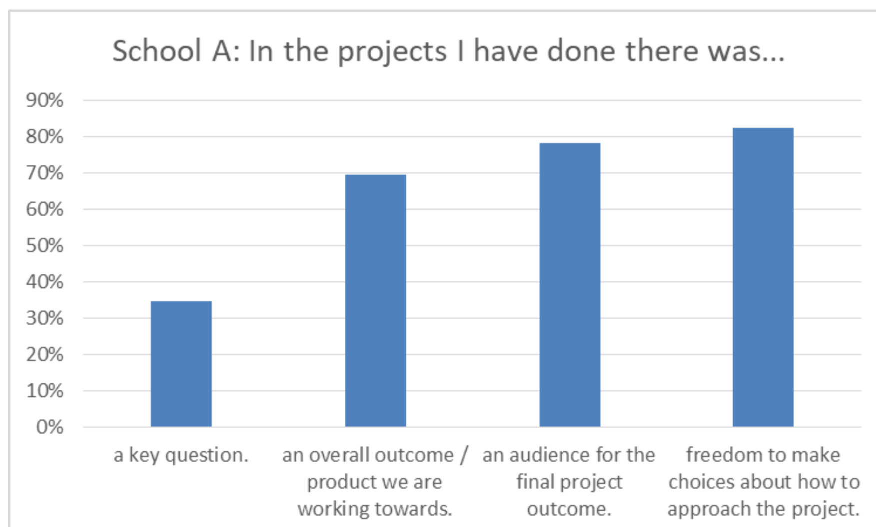
When there is no compulsion to complete work outside of the lesson, the choice to do so is a strong indicator of intrinsic motivation. Whilst we can draw the conclusion from these data that, overall, students were not sufficiently motivated to spend the sort of time outside of lessons that would have a significant impact on the development of their linguistic competence, we must not overlook the stories of individuals, whose out-of-class learning influenced more than just their LF language development. One student, for example, has independently transferred an out-of-class learning strategy from LF to Spanish:

Student 8: So I research new words, and I put things together that we've done in the lessons, so build longer sentences.
Interviewer: And do you do that in Spanish as well?
Student 8: Yeah
Interviewer: And were you always doing that in Spanish before you started LF?
Student 8: Not as much, I did do it when I had tests, but now I kind of do it during the week as well.

Project-based learning

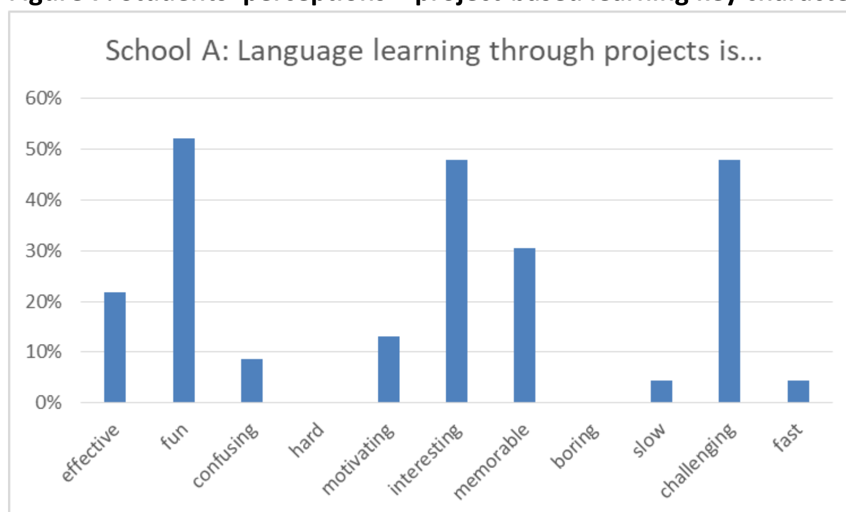
All students involved in this model of LF recognised that their learning involved the opportunity to engage with project-based learning. From the student questionnaire data there was a high level of agreement that their LF PBL involved freedom about how to approach the project, an overall end project, and an audience. Students were less convinced that there was a key project question. This fits with School A's projects, which focused on defining the project outcome (emergency language toolkit, come dine with me sketch, sports video presentation) and criteria, rather than framing a key question. (Figure 6).

Figure 6: Students' perceptions – project-based learning key components



Students were overwhelmingly positive about projects. Even those students who said they preferred teacher-led language learning to LF found projects both enjoyable and effective for language learning. Students mentioned the importance of PBL for applying their learning, using the language, giving a focus and purpose for using the language, and providing an authentic context for their learning. They also highlighted the value of projects for making the language stick in their heads. Working in groups made the learning fun, and sharing the project outcomes (e.g. watching the project videos) enhanced the interest because they were able to hear all of the different languages. Students recognised that they were sometimes given the opportunities to work on projects in their Spanish lessons, too, but all felt that they would benefit from more PBL.

Figure 7: Students' perceptions – project-based learning key characteristics*



* Students were instructed to select the two responses that most closely matched their opinion of project-working.

One interesting finding was that for one student in particular, the usefulness of projects was related to the perceived likelihood of using the language it targeted:

Student 1: I think the projects are very useful. Some of them a bit more than others…I think the food was a bit and the basic phrases were a bit more useful than the sport that we're doing now… it would probably be a bit more useful if we went to China, so to be able to order in a restaurant, than to talk about our hobbies

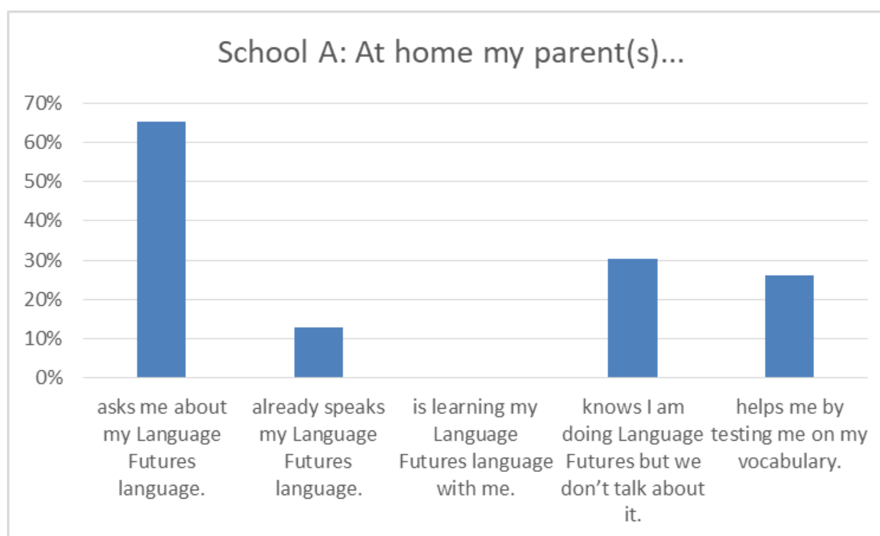
Building a learning community

School A students are supported by their LF teacher, their peers, a community mentor and their parents. The student questionnaire and interviews sought perceptions about the level and impact of support from others on their language learning. Teacher and mentor interviews, classroom observation notes and teacher questionnaires were triangulatory sources of data.

Parents

In terms of parental involvement, two-thirds of parents show interest by asking about LF, and around a quarter of parents support by actively helping to test vocabulary.

Figure 8: Student perceptions of parental involvement in LF



At the time of the questionnaire, no student reported that a parent was learning the language with him or her. However, interview data revealed that there were instances of parents doing this, as previous studies had also indicated:

Student 5: Quite often I show my mum what I've learnt, coz she's interested in learning it too.
Interviewer: Does she say the words back to you when you tell her what they are? Does she want to rehearse them with you?
Student 5: Yeah, I think so and she like tests me on them.

Although students later confirmed during interviews that their parents were not learning the language with them, there was an indication that parental interest in LF may have motivated students to maintain their out-of-class learning:

Student 2: I think I probably do like five or ten minutes, coz like occasionally my dad will ask what I've done.
Interviewer: And he**'s** just interested because he's always interested in whatever you're doing for your homework, or is it the fact that you're learning Italian?
Student 2: I think it's coz we're doing like the language futures like he wanted to just see what it's like coz it's different to our other subjects.

The family interest in LF also extends to siblings; one student was confident that his younger brother would also want to do LF, whilst another student's sister had completed LF three years earlier:

Student 9: My sister who's three years older than me did do language futures but I think she did Italian or something boring, but she's currently learning Japanese at the same time so it's like we're learning a similar language at the same time.
Interviewer: So she's gone on to learn another language after her language futures?
Student 9: Yeah.
Interviewer: What year is she in?
Student 9: Year 12.
Interviewer: Is she doing a language?
Student 9: No, but she's doing like an extra lesson
Interviewer: Like enrichment
Student 9: Yeah

The implication here is that the seed sown in LF is associated with a long-term motivation for language learning, not necessarily a desire to master one particular language, but an interest in learning multiple languages.

School A's model of LF involves measures designed to distinguish LF from other subjects, and specifically to harness parental support. These include a face-to-face meeting and an information booklet. Data from this study indicate that these measures correlate with a relatively high level of parental awareness about and interest in LF, which sometimes translates into active learning support.

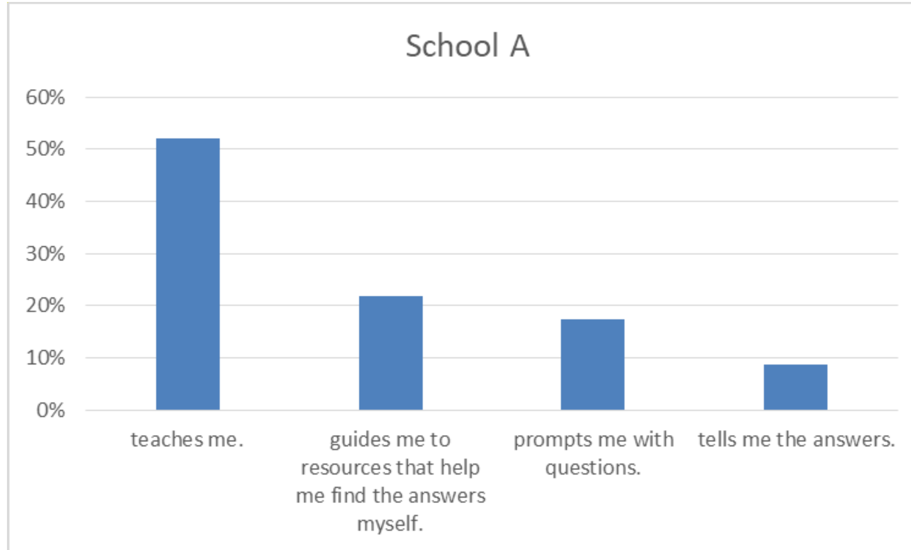
Mentors

Mentors are an integral part of the Language Futures programme. In School A's LF programme, mentors are volunteers from the local community who are expert linguists in the target languages; they may be native speakers or people who are fluent due to an extended period of study or time spent abroad. Key to the co-construction model of LF learning, the mentors are not intended to teach, but to guide learners, and once recruited they receive an induction and training session from the Language Futures Co-ordinator, who maintains communication with them during the year, via email and phone, as appropriate. At the time of the present study, School A had recruited community mentors for all of its LF languages: German, Greek, Italian, Japanese, Mandarin, Russian and Swedish, in itself an awe-inspiring achievement.

Despite the stated expectation that mentors guide rather than teach, student questionnaire data report that more than half of School A students felt that their mentors taught them, as opposed to a

fifth who felt guided, and less than a fifth who felt they were prompted by mentor questioning.

Figure 9: Student perceptions of what their LF mentor does to support them



More than half of School A students believe they learn more when their mentor is with them, around a third think they learn the same amount, and a tenth of students state that they learn less when their mentor is there. Around three-quarters of students believe that their mentor supports their pronunciation and speaking development. Students were directed to choose only one response in this question, so whilst mentors may also support with other aspects of language learning, students are clear that they gain most from the mentor input on pronunciation and speaking.

Figure 10: Student perceptions of learning when LF mentor is present

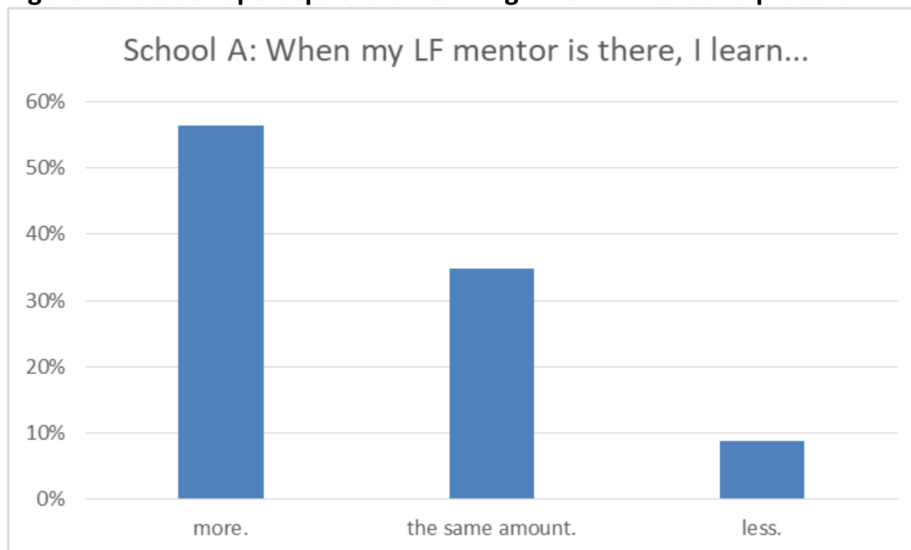
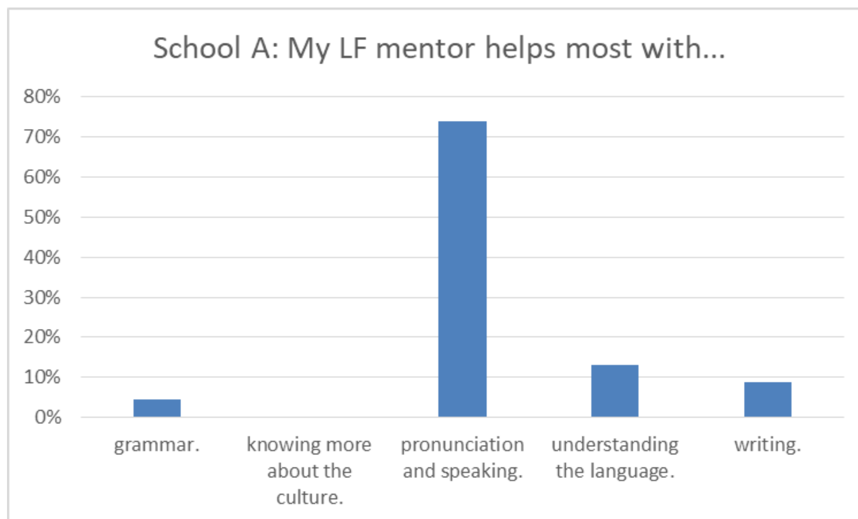
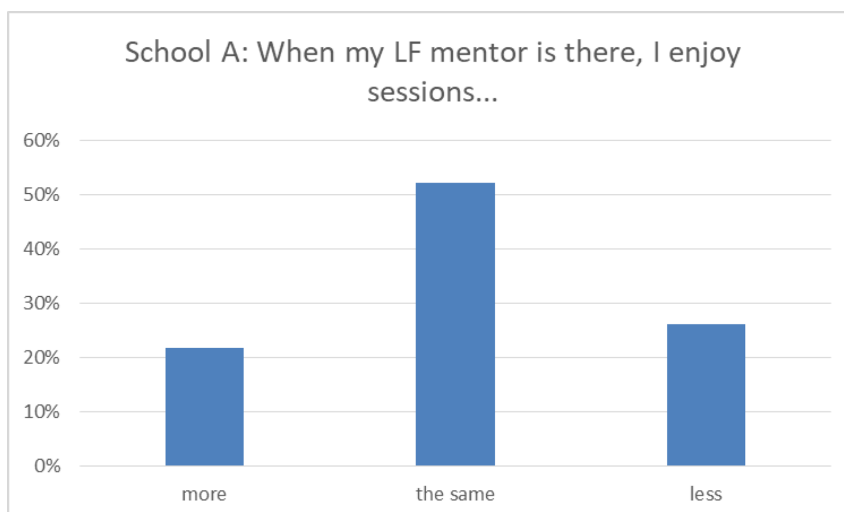


Figure 11: Student perceptions of LF mentor support



In contrast, only a fifth of students enjoys the sessions with mentors more than other LF sessions, and a quarter enjoys them less, with over half claiming their enjoyment level is the same, whether their mentor is there or not. This is in a context in which three-quarters of students are supported by a community mentor every week.

Figure 12: Student enjoyment of lessons when LF mentor is present



From the sociocultural perspective of co-construction, optimum learning is associated with expert support that is contingent upon learner need. A discrepancy between the levels of need and support may suggest limited progress, but also feelings of learner (and mentor) frustration. In this study, the mentor-student relationship and its impact on L2 (second or foreign language) learning emerges as one of the more complex themes, open to the widest variance of perspective. In order to follow up on the somewhat puzzling indications from the student questionnaire data, several queries and searches were run in NVivo, in particular a cross-tabulation of all negative and positive references to mentors and mentoring. What emerges is a constellation of interrelated factors; the difficulty of the LF language itself (for learners who have previously learnt Spanish only); the regularity / irregularity

of mentor attendance; the students' own perceptions about their needs; and the mentor's approach to the mentor role.

Certain difficulties had already been identified by the LF teacher in the teacher questionnaire:

LF Teacher: The difficulties this year have arisen out of managing mentor expectation and involvement. Some mentors are trained teachers and therefore have a tendency to "teach" not lead". They also expect to have lots more involvement with the students on a teacher level – setting homework, doing vocab tests, tracking their progress and questioning the inclusion of students who aren't motivated or who have learning, behavioural issues. We have had to tread carefully and make sure mentors feel involved but also understand the independent "collaboration" process of LF.

However, the interview data suggest that successful mentoring is not reducible to whether or not the mentor teaches. Tracing the pattern of perceptions, sifting the comments from all of the stakeholders it was possible to identify clusters of factors that were associated with positive mentor experiences and those which suggested less beneficial learning experiences. As the suggested pattern is correlative rather than causal, the representations are in the form of cluster diagrams.

There were two groups of learners with mentors who actively directed learning, in a manner akin to teaching. Both groups shared other features, including regular mentor attendance and learners with high levels of autonomy. Key differences were the dissimilarity between the LF language and Spanish (the students' first FL), one a European and the other an Asian language, and a difference in the perceived need for support, which may or may not be directly related to the LF language dissimilarity. In the group where learners were conscious of needing direct support with pronunciation and writing, in spite of their high levels of autonomy, direct mentoring was positively perceived and led to progress. In the other group, students' very clear preference for working autonomously was at odds with the direct teaching style of the mentor, and the perception that they could learn most aspects of the language without support led them to want only occasional help with pronunciation.

Figure 13: Factors impacting on success of mentors actively directing learning

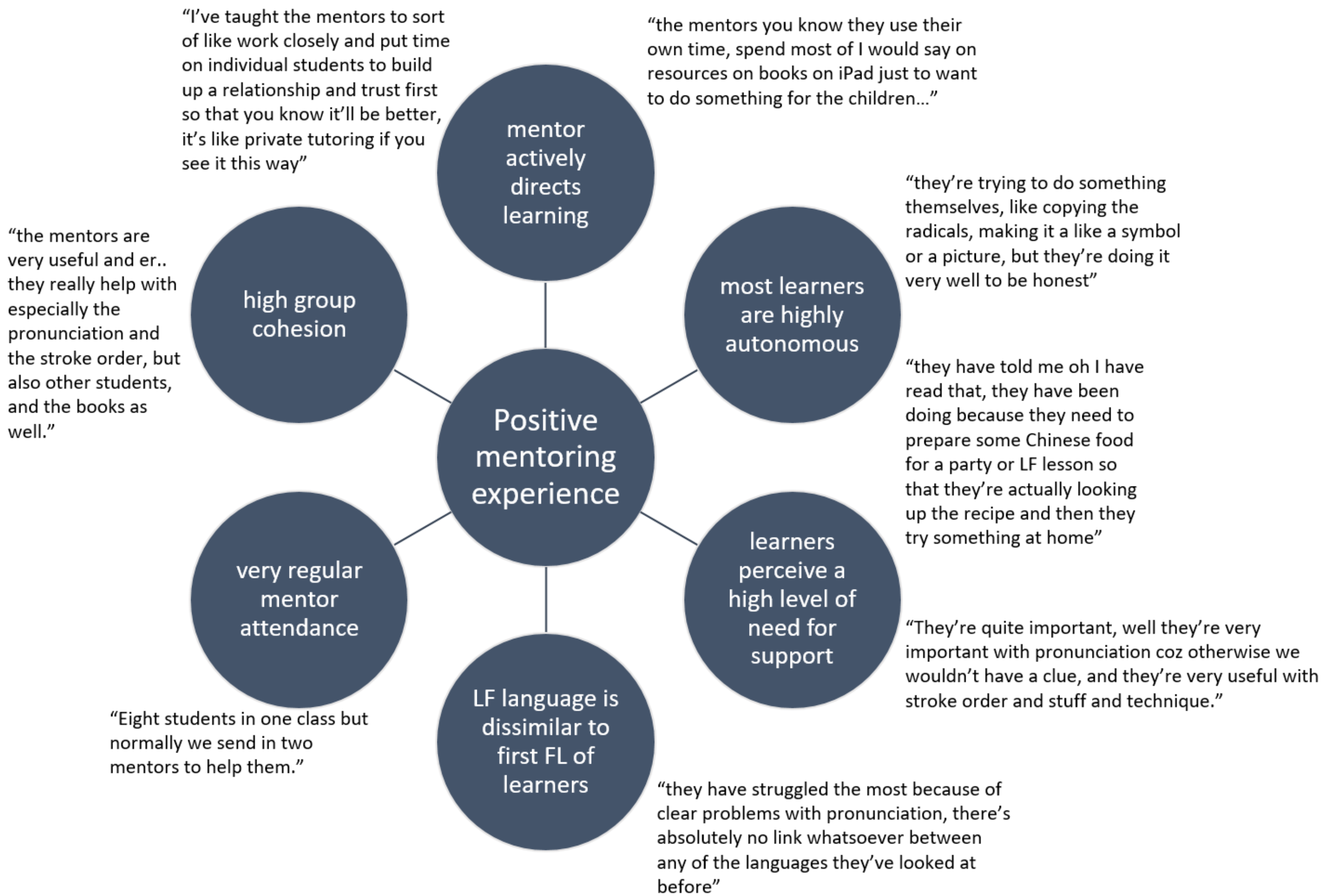


Figure 14: Factors associated with a negative mentoring experience

At the other end of the spectrum there was a mentor whose modus operandi was to wait for students to initiate a request for help, which often didn't extend beyond the provision of a word meaning or the correct pronunciation of a new word. Whilst this level of non-intervention might have matched the needs of some learners, the perceptions of learners in this group were, at best, ambivalent. It was clear that they worked as a cohesive group; that they made the most of the links between their LF language and Spanish, that they had plenty of online and other resources to draw on, and that they kept themselves on task. However, the group's preference for Spanish lessons, and their comments about lack of retention of the LF language over time, suggest that this group may have been better served by a greater level of mentor guidance. In an observation with the class, audio from iPads was often heard modelling key language, but students seldom repeated the language aloud themselves. More autonomous learners might have taken the initiative for themselves, but this group didn't, and their preference for teacher-led Spanish lessons become more firmly entrenched:

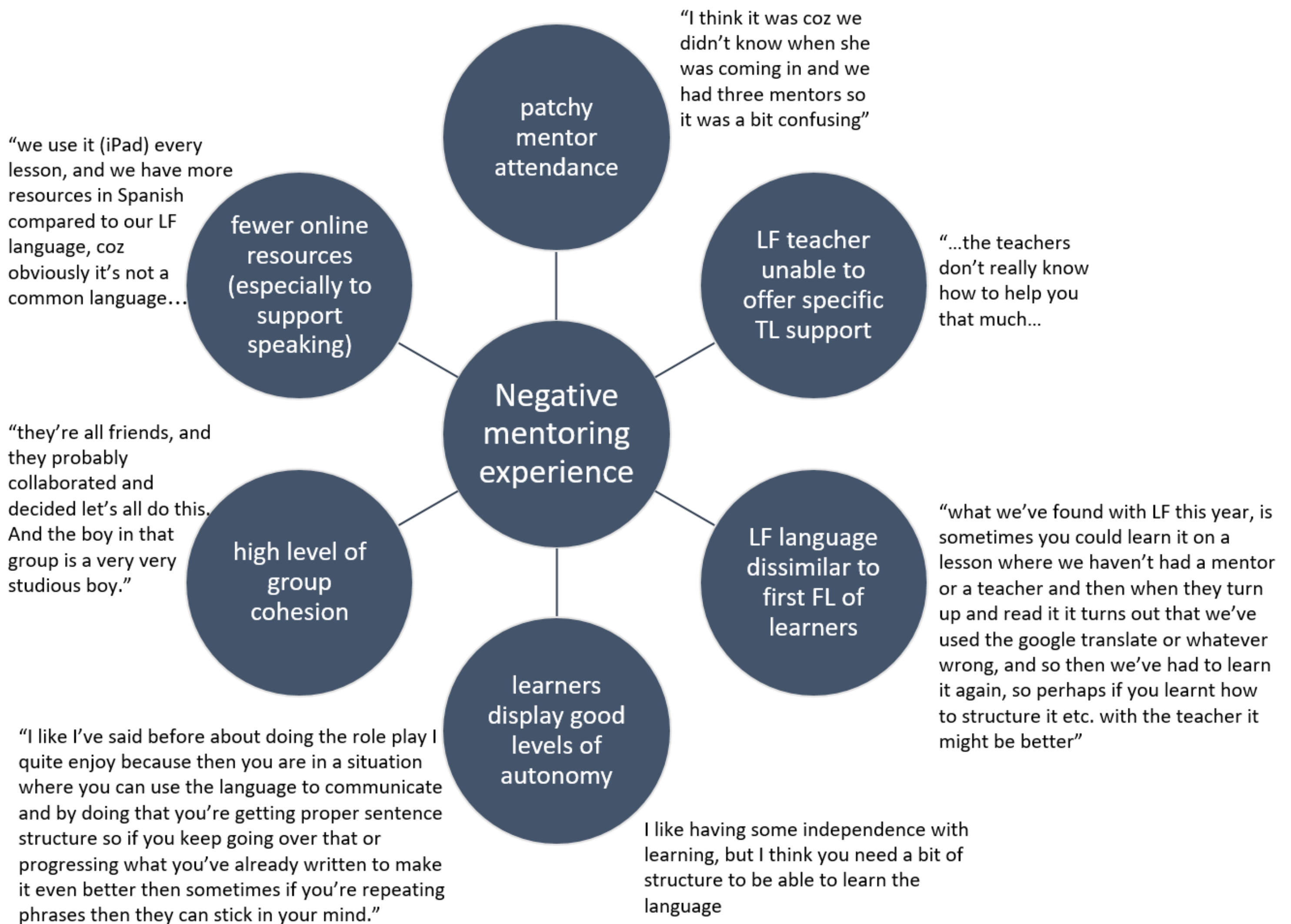
Student 3: sometimes we play like a game and then we separate off into our pairs that we're sitting in and we do more activities to learn the… just the language but then in Italian we just write it down and it just stays there in our books.

Figure 15: Factors associated with an ambivalent mentoring experience

There are other factors associated with a negative experience of mentoring. With one group inconsistent mentor attendance was associated with poor progress. In this situation there were other factors that may also have contributed. The language was not similar to Spanish, the LF teacher was not able to provide language-specific support, and there were fewer online resources to support independent learning. This collection of factors was believed by all stakeholders to impact negatively on progress, despite the high levels of group cohesion and student autonomy. All students in this group said that they felt they would learn more during the year than they did:

Student 8: I think at the beginning of the year I thought we were going to learn a bit more, and have a bit more of a structure to the lesson, but er.. yeah it's we've still learnt a lot though, but, yeah.

Figure 16: Further factors associated with a negative mentoring experience



In summary, there are many factors implicated in the success of mentoring, and there is no simple recipe that will work with all learners. Instead, what seems to be important for positive mentoring is that the level of support, direct or indirect, is in proportion to students' learning needs. Given that there were more negative than positive experiences of mentoring in this small-scale study, we can conclude that it is challenging to get mentoring right, if by right we mean such that it supports optimum language learning. What this analysis has shown, however, is that it is possible to identity clusters of factors that might suggest the positive benefit of more or less direct mentor support. Informed by this knowledge, LF teachers and co-ordinators may more easily be able to identify a lack of contingency in the mentor-student relationship and be able to intervene to help to adjust it. The findings do, at the very least, provide an empirical basis on which to start the conversation.

4.5 Conclusion

This model of LF is offered to two top set classes in Year 9. Learners choose either to learn either French or Spanish (whichever they have not yet studied) or to learn a new language of their choice in LF, with the support of at least one other student, a community mentor, their LF teachers and their parents. The students in the top two sets represent approximately a third of the Year 9 cohort. Of those 66 students, 43 chose LF. The remaining 23 students learnt French (13 students) and Spanish (10 students).
In School A students choose their GCSE options in Year 9 to start in Year 10. Languages are not compulsory and students choose whether or not to continue with a language to GCSE. These are the options of those students in the present study:

Table 10: KS4 Uptake Year 9 top set students in School A

	No. students opting to continue with a language to GCSE	Total number of students	% cohort
LF	30	43	70%
Classroom 2nd FL (French)	9	13	70%
Classroom 2nd FL (Spanish)	7	10	70%

There are several observations to be made, here. First, the data from this study indicate that participation in LF does not make students any more or less likely to continue with a language at KS4 than if they study a second language in a traditional classroom setting. Second, set against the government expectation that by 2025 90% all students will study a language at KS4, this level of uptake represents a significant shortfall, given that the 70% is, in fact, 70% of the top third of the cohort. However, we need also to remember that the LF students who chose to continue with a language now believe themselves to be more independent and resourceful language learners, as a result of taking part in the programme. This bodes well for their progress at KS4.

There is no doubt that LF holds a lot of value for these students. It is equally clear that some students feel they benefit much more than others. Individual differences play a key role in determining which students can make the most of the LF learning affordances, and whilst the programme already has well-established procedures for selecting students, it may be useful to use the findings from these data to identify a cluster of factors correlated with high levels of success and enjoyment of LF. One such list might include:

1. As a motive for joining LF, students explicitly demonstrate an interest in exploring independent ways of learning.
2. There is some indication that teacher-led language lessons might be perceived to be proceeding too slowly (a 'coasting' effect).
3. There is an interest in learning for its own sake, and less importance placed on measuring their own progress in terms of level or grade.
4. Students demonstrate an interest in using language for communicating with others.
5. Students show an awareness that retention involves repeated language use over time, much of which requires a commitment to regular, self-directed out-of-class learning.
6. Students demonstrate that they are typically resilient in the face of challenge.
7. Students are risk-takers, who enjoy any opportunity to work things out for themselves, and are unfazed by making mistakes.
8. The application to participate is not dependent on friends.

Chapter 5: Case Study 2
Language Futures as in-curriculum community language accreditation

Community languages can be considered as all languages in use other than the 'official' or dominant language of a state or nation. Community language learning has for many years been supported by supplementary or complementary schools. These are voluntary schools, organised by minority ethnic and linguistic groups to serve specific linguistic and/or religious and cultural groups, particularly through community language classes. More recently teachers and schools have been encouraged to use and teach community languages within mainstream schools. This case study focuses on a model of Language Futures designed to support community language education in its school.

5.1 The school

The school in this study is a mixed gender secondary academy, part of a multi-academy trust in the East of England. Rated 'good' in its last Ofsted inspection, the school has a higher than average proportion of pupil premium students (pupil premium being additional funding for students known to be now (or in the previous six years) eligible for free school meals, those in local authority care and those with a parent in the armed services). The proportion of students who represent minority ethnic groups is above average and so is the proportion who speak English as an additional language (EAL). The proportion of students who need additional support with their learning, those at school action plus and those with a statement of special educational needs, is just above average.

5.2 The Language Futures model

In this study school, to be referred to as School B, the model of Language Futures is an in-curriculum model for a group of 11 Year 10 (age 14-15) EAL students. Most students at the school learn French from Year 7 (age 11-12) and throughout Key Stage 3 (two or three-year phase of secondary education, in which language learning is compulsory in England). At the time of the study, the group of students was invited to follow an alternative language course in their home or community language. One of the aims of the model was to provide a more supported route by which students would be able to achieve a GCSE qualification in their home or community language. Two students were recent arrivals to the UK and were in the class to support their acquisition of English to facilitate their access to all other GCSE subjects. Within the model's design, students stopped (or did not start) learning French, instead having three hours of LF sessions each week. This model had the full support of the senior leadership team, and carried the expectation that all students would achieve their target GCSE grade by the end of Year 11.
In terms of its design, this model of Language Futures sought to include all five core features of the approach, as described below:

Student choice and agency

In this LF model, students' participation was optional, but guided by their teacher, based on an individual evaluation of each student's best chance for success in a foreign language GCSE, or in the case of those recently-arrived students, an assessment that the LF class would best support their overall GCSE outcomes. Students did not therefore choose their language of study, although they could have chosen instead to continue with, or start, French. Table 11 shows the number of students learning each language:

Table 11: LF languages and numbers of learners

Language	Number of learners
Spanish and Portuguese	3
Polish	6
English as an additional language	2
Total no. of learners	11

The learning was designed as an over-arching project to create a travel magazine about a chosen city destination, with a number of different articles focusing on different cultural and historical aspects of the city, and aimed at potential visitors. In terms of choices of what and how to learn, students chose the city, and in lessons and out of school they determined for themselves which resources to use, and how to present their articles. As they were also to take GCSE examinations in Polish, Portuguese, Spanish and English Language, the teacher planned certain lessons around particular grammatical structures, needed for higher level GCSE, which were presented in the context of travel articles. Students worked in those lessons to master the target structure, and were then encouraged to include examples of it in their ongoing project work. Table 12 presents an overview of the curriculum at the time of the study:

Table 12: School B LF curriculum summary

Grammar / Language structures	Vocabulary / Topic areas	Language learning skills	Project
nouns, pronouns verbs, verb endings modal verbs adjectives present, past, future tenses	geography of places, tourist attractions, modes of transport, weather, food, local tradition, culture	Writing for an audience and purpose Reading – research skills Listening and speaking	Produce a travel magazine about one city, with a variety of different articles focusing on key aspects of interest.

Teacher as designer and facilitator

The LF class had three teachers. The teacher involved in the study emerged as the lead LF teacher for two reasons. Firstly, she was a native speaker of Polish and six of the eleven students were studying for Polish GCSE. Secondly, she had engaged actively with the local Language Futures development network (a group of teachers from LF schools, supported by the Association for Language Learning) and had become interested in the possibilities for learning that LF presented for the community language learners in her class. There was already a community language class for KS4 students, in which students of different community languages learnt independently with the aim of taking a GCSE by the end of KS4. This teacher believed that the key elements of LF; choice, autonomy, project-based learning, school as basecamp and building a community of learners could improve the community language learning at the school. She therefore adapted the structure and practices of the class to incorporate LF methodology.

School as basecamp

It was hypothesised that out-of-class learning for home and community language learners might have a different profile from that for ab initio learners, but that, as for other LF models, when students choose to take their learning beyond the classroom, it indicates a significant level of engagement in learning, and is suggestive of greater learning progress over time. This study

therefore explored the extent to which LF students in School B were engaging in extra-curricular learning.

Project-based learning

In their LF lessons, learners in School B completed one over-arching project during the academic year, creating a target language travel magazine about a chosen city destination, and aimed at travellers. They worked in pairs or trios. Through teacher and student interview, teacher and student questionnaires this study explored the impact of project-based learning on student motivation, knowledge and skill development and overall progress.

Building a learning community

Affective support and linguistic scaffolding are key components of the LF classroom. Previous models of the project provide evidence that peer support fulfils several important functions. Language expert adult mentors from the community have also proven essential to the success of previous schools' versions of the programme. The main study aimed to extend our understanding of the impact of both sources of support (peer and mentor). In School B, there were three LF mentors. The Polish and English mentors were sixth-formers at the school. Both were Polish native/community speakers themselves, who had acquired English on moving to England and attending school here. The Spanish mentor was a Spanish native speaker, employed at the school in a multi-faceted role as teacher and foreign language assistant. The impact of peers, adult mentors, the LF teacher and that of parents on students' learning is evaluated in the analysis that follows.

5.3 The participants

The learners

At the time of data collection for this study there were 11 students in one class. Student background data from the teacher questionnaire indicate that students' language competence varied, despite all being community language speakers. Table 13 summarises the student data:

Table 13: School B LF learner profiles

Student	Age	Gender	LF language	LF language competence	Additional details
1	14	F	Polish	HS	
2*	14	M	Polish	HS+	Moved to England four years ago.
3	14	M	Polish	HS	Lived whole life in England. Mother re-married to English man. English spoken at home.
4	14	M	Polish	HS	Lived all/most of life in the UK.
5	14	M	Polish	HS+	
6	14	M	Polish	HS+	
7*	14	M	Spanish/ Portuguese	HS+	Officially Portuguese nationality. Educated for several years in Spain. Spanish spoken and written fluently. Portuguese spoken but limited literacy. Lives with African aunt and speaks with her a Portuguese-Spanish creole. English acquired living in England as third language.

8*	14	M	Spanish/ Portuguese	I	Portuguese native speaker. Speaks Portuguese at home. Learning Spanish in LF, but will also take GCSE Portuguese.
9	14	M	Spanish / English	AB	Very recent arrival to England. Portuguese native speaker, although literacy level unclear. Learning Spanish and English in LF.
10	14	M	English	I	Lithuanian native speaker. Fewer than two years in England.
11	14	F	English	I	Lithuanian native speaker. Fewer than two years in England. NB: Left the school before Visit 1.

Language competence codes	
Absolute beginner	AB
Foundation – 1-2 years classroom-based prior learning	F
Intermediate – 3-4 years classroom-based prior learning	I
Advanced – 5+ years classroom-based prior learning	A
Community speaker with no or limited literacy	HS
Community speaking with some literacy	HS+

Interviews were conducted on two separate occasions (February and June) with three students; student 2 (Polish), student 7 (Spanish) and student 8 (Portuguese).

The teacher

The Language Futures teacher was a full-time teacher of French at the school. A Polish native speaker, she had been in charge of the school's community language class since the start of the academic year, and as previously mentioned, was keen to align it with LF principles. Two interviews were conducted with the LF teacher, one in February and the other in June.

The mentors

Whilst mentor attendance varies according to individual mentor commitment and availability, on average the two sixth-form mentors attended lessons once per week to work with students, although during exam times for Year 12 attendance became more sporadic. The Spanish mentor attended once every week. Interviews were conducted with one of the sixth-form mentors and the Spanish mentor.

The parents

Parents of students in the programme were informed about their child's language provision in school, and were kept informed via the school report, in the same way as they received information about progress in all other subjects. The researcher sought to elicit further information during interviews about the role played by parents in supporting language learning.

5.4 Analysis and findings

I organise the analysis and findings in this chapter around the overarching research questions, drawing on thematic analysis of all of the data sources, focusing first on linguistic progress. Students in this LF model were not involved in learning other languages in a more conventional classroom, so it was not appropriate to explore comparisons. However, data emerged about other aspects of progress that were particular to this LF model and its cohort and those data are presented here. Finally, there is an account of the range of factors that impact on the LF approach within this model.

5.4.1 Linguistic progress

All students studying Polish and Spanish were expected to enter GCSE at the end of KS4. At the time of the present study, students were in Year 10. Their progress was assessed periodically using past GCSE papers in all four skills. At the time of visit 1, the LF teacher made the following comment about student progress in Polish:

LF teacher: so measuring the progress I think personally that each student from Polish groups has made good progress er… they were tested separately obviously so they still did their tests and every person from Polish group will be doing a Polish GCSE and they I think that the minimum grade at the moment the students will achieve will be C grade.
By the end of Year 10, end of year reports for all students in the class predicted outcomes as follows:

Table 14: LF class end of Y10 report data: LF predicted grade vs average predicted grade in all subjects

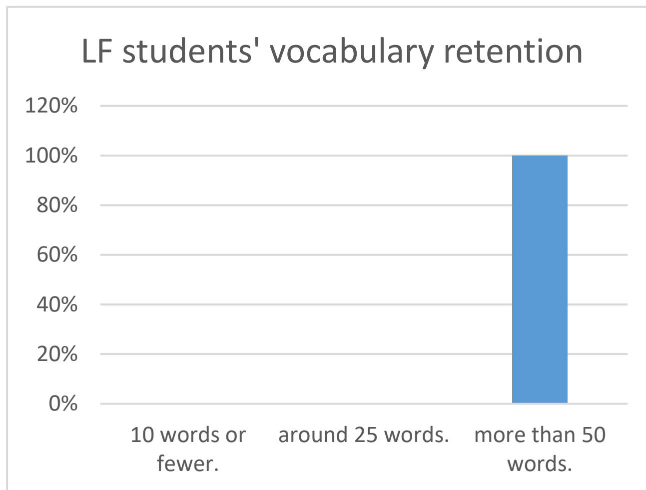
Student	LF language	Predicted LF grade	Average grade predicted across all other subjects
1	Polish	6	4.5
2	Polish	7	4.6
3	Polish	4	5
4	Polish	4	4.4
5	Polish	7	2.6
6	Polish	7	4.6
7	Spanish/ Portuguese	4 [achieved B grade in Portuguese summer of Y10]	3.8
8	Spanish/ Portuguese	7 [achieved A*grade in Portuguese summer of Y10]	NB: By summer Y10 this student had left the LF class and joined a Spanish GCSE class.
9	Spanish / EAL	4	2
10	EAL	3	3

For most of the LF students, the predicted LF grade is above, or significantly above their average predicted grade for their remaining GCSE subjects. Although these are interim data, and many students will improve on their outcomes during Year 11, the impact of receiving positive attainment data in one subject, in this case the LF language, may be associated with higher levels of motivation,

both for L2 (second or foreign language) learning in particular, and school learning more generally. This hypothesis was explored in the data and findings reported later in this report.

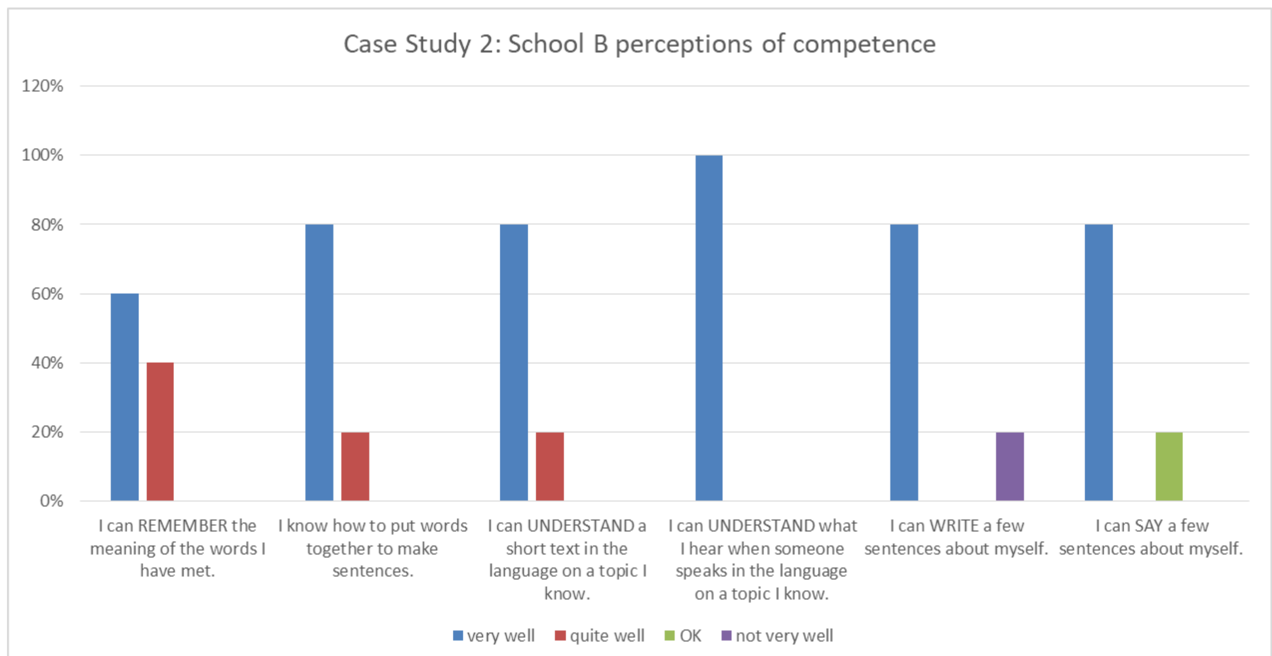
The student questionnaire responses were completed approximately four months into the course. Predictably all students reported a mastery of more than 50 words.

Figure 17: Student perceptions of vocabulary mastery



The profile of student perceptions of competence across the four skills (Figure 17, below) represents uniformly high levels of aural competence, with marginally lower levels of confidence predominantly in aspects of literacy; in writing and grammar, and remembering new vocabulary.

Figure 18: Students' perceptions of their competence in the four skills



In summary, data for all students studying for either Polish or Spanish GCSE indicated that they were on track to achieve a standard pass or higher, that for most students this represented their highest predicted grade. Student 10, learning English in the class, was predicted a Grade 3 in English

Language at the end of Y10. According to student questionnaire data, students themselves were generally confident across all four skills, and all believed their understanding of spoken language to be strong.

Interview data reveal three particular areas of linguistic progress that students, mentors and teacher all believed showed development in LF: grammar, vocabulary and written accuracy.

Grammar

The LF teacher was passionate about the importance of grammar for her students:

LF teacher: I believe that we need to have the grammar, this element of, this is essential to me, it always used to be essential to me when I was learning language, and I believe that it needs to be there, to be fair I don't believe we do grammar enough, I think it needs to be there, and if you do it the right way, they can do it, they can apply it, they can understand it, I think, in the target language.

The Polish mentor highlights the grammatical improvement he has noticed in one of the students:

"I would say definitely grammar, there was this one student called Gregor (pseudonym) and erm his grammar was not really the best at the beginning, it wasn't really the best, but in time, after like a month or so if not more, we er… he start to improve I could tell by the way he writes and the way he speaks now, so definitely improved a lot."

Students themselves also recognise their progress with respect to grammar:

Gregor: anything that I actually do er… to do with the language I actually learn so this project has been a good opportunity for me to learn more grammar and improve in my grammar skills

When asked to reflect on the learning from the observed lesson earlier in the day during Visit 1, he added: "Even though I knew the words, I didn't know that you would call them modal verbs, so that's what I learnt today."

The opportunities for formal language learning in this LF model allow community speakers to connect the different strands of their community or home language competence more securely, by a more overt study of the language system. Many young people who start their formal education in one country but finish it in another interrupt to a greater or lesser extent their L1 (native or mother tongue) linguistic development. One influential, and widely supported theory of bilingualism, Cummins' (1980) Common Underlying Proficiency Model (CUP) proposes that languages are interrelated in the brain, such that, despite the surface differences of vocabulary, pronunciation and grammatical structures, cognitive functioning emanates from one central processing system, irrespective of language. As a consequence, concepts developed in one language are available, and can be expressed, in another, without needing to be learnt again. Furthermore, the Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979) suggests that:

"the development of competence in a second language (L2) is partially a function of the type of competence already developed in LI at the time when intensive exposure to L2 begins." (Cummins, 1979, p.222)

Cummins (1979, 1980) has gone further to suggest experience with either language may support the development of the proficiency underlying both languages 'given adequate motivation and exposure

to both, either in school or wider environment (Cummins, 1980, p.95). This adds theoretical support for this LF model, which seeks to engage learners academically with a community or home language. In addition there are empirical studies demonstrating that L1 proficiency directly supports subsequent L2 achievement (Bild & Swain, 1989).

In later work, Cummins (2007) urges teachers to provide opportunities for their bilingual students to engage with academic work in both languages:

"identities of competence among language learners from socially marginalized groups, thereby enabling them to engage more confidently with literacy and other academic work in both languages" (Cummins, 2007, p.238)

In the case of Lukas (pseudonym), one of the two EAL students, the LF teacher suggests that the opportunities to improve his structural knowledge of English are important and not part of the GCSE English language curriculum:

LF teacher: I think actually that makes it interesting doesn't it I mean to me like Lukas he's from Lithuania I think he enjoys it a lot too, he's quiet, he's quite bright, he's got all this information, he can use it but he doesn't really know why and how does it work and it's nice to see him discovering these things because he's not really going to discover these things in English lessons.

Vocabulary

Those working in the field of bilingualism and community language education highlight the problem of L1 attrition, when speakers spend a large proportion of their time operating in their L2. One of the students in this class, despite a high self-reported level of competence in Polish, makes two explicit references to learning new vocabulary during LF lessons:

Gregor: My writing is at a high level, I'm expecting to get like an A or A*, but by doing more tasks, I still forget some of the words, but if I do like tasks and projects it definitely helps me remember and learn some new words.
Gregor: Yes, as we've been doing articles and we were actually supposed to do quite a lot of articles by ourselves you know words that we learnt, words that the teacher has been giving us has really improved my vocabulary.

Written accuracy

Many students with community language knowledge acquired in the home environment have predictably lower levels of accuracy in written language. If students are to achieve accreditation in their language, they often need to focus particularly on written accuracy. Student 7, Estevao (pseudonym), described his difficulties during Visit 1:

"how do you write in Portuguese, I don't know how to write in Portuguese, I know how to write some but I don't know how to write it all."

At the end of Year 10, he described the progress he was making: "I've been practising, before and after the exam, so my Portuguese writing's getting a bit better, I think to be honest."

5.4.2 Perceptions of other aspects of progress in LF

When seeking to evaluate the benefits of this LF model, however, it is important to include additional aspects of development that emerged from the data, in particular: identity, cultural knowledge and self-esteem.

Language and identity

In her report of a study exploring the connection between language and identity (Souza, 2011) states: "Children naturally make the connection between the languages people are able to speak and who they are. Promoting the teaching of community languages fosters a positive sense of hybrid identity among these children."

Students in the LF programme displayed similarly strong associations between language and identity. Student 8, Ricardo (pseudonym), explains:

"All my family's Portuguese, we came here when I was very young, and so coz many people lose their main language when they get to different countries, so my parents didn't want that so they gave me reading, speaking, er… in Portuguese so that I could keep it for the future and but at home I speak Portuguese, outside I speak English, it's just pretty much with my family that I speak Portuguese. I think it's really good because I know several situations where parents kept speaking the language the country speaks, like this situation with one of my friends that er… his mother came here, married to a English man, only speak English at home, and the my friend he barely knows how to speak any Portuguese and I find it really sad that that happens. "

Maintaining and developing the language of his family, is also an important motive for Gregor:

Interviewer: And are you happy that you're doing it (Polish)?
Gregor: Definitely.
Interviewer: Yeah? Do you read in Polish at home?
Gregor: Yes, but yeah, I speak, read and talk to my parents.
Interviewer: And have they always wanted you to keep your Polish even though you're living in Britain? Did they always encourage you to do that?
Gregor: Yes, they always encouraged me to learn, to stay with Polish and don't forget it.
Interviewer: Yeah, and you kind of agree with that it's important? You did you rebel and say 'no, I don't want to'?
Gregor: No, I totally agree with them coz I like Polish as well.
The strong support from parents to maintain the home language is evident in both students' accounts, here, as is their positive alignment with the wishes of their parents. Not all students demonstrated the same high levels of engagement. In fact, Ricardo, who was meant to be studying both Portuguese and Spanish to GCSE level within the LF programme, had difficulties with his motivation in Spanish:

"I have a really strange relationship with Spanish. I understand most of it, but I can't speak it, I can't communicate with other people in Spanish, I find it hard, just like to get words out. And I'm ok at writing, it's just getting the words out, I find it difficult."

He was despondent about his progress, too: "I don't feel I'm doing the progress that I could be doing."

In Polish, the variation in progress between different students was attributed, at least partly, by both LF teacher and mentor, to attitudinal differences associated with identity:

"but there are some students I think and I believe this is for example Filip (pseudonym) who's very weak but I think it's more his attitude it's more he doesn't want to be seen as Polish person, he doesn't want to er he doesn't want people to know his identify I think so it's more that, his mentality, so for him obviously I have spoken to his mum on a number of occasions she's lovely and she would speak to him in Polish but he doesn't really engage, but he rejects it I think"

When asked to account for any perceived differences in progress between the Polish students, the mentor commented:

Mentor: Yeah that's because some of the children that are Polish are like don't really wanna speak Polish they're just like they're really used to English voice and English everything
Interviewer: And can you understand that?

Mentor: I can relate to that because once I was speaking English all the time and I didn't really want to speak Polish coz there was no need for me to do that, so I don't know if you like…

These data suggest that linguistic progress was not determined solely by previous 'heritage' L1 knowledge but influenced by a complex interplay of language and identity, which led to attitudinal differences towards learning their community language.

Cultural knowledge

When young people move to live in a new country during childhood or are born in a different country to that of their parents, they are likely to grow up with cultural gaps. The opportunity that LF provided for students to find out more about the country of their (or their parents') birth was an unexpected benefit of the course for the teacher:

"I think that's another thing that's quite interesting, that they would know things such as you know Krakow, well-known around the world and they actually don't, they …even … he had to do his research, so erm that's another skill"

Students themselves recognised that they were learning significant cultural knowledge about Poland:

"I mean yeah because I've been in Warsaw only once and that's the city that I've chosen for my project, and you get to, because you research the actual task, you get to know new places in Warsaw and then you get a little bit more interested in the city itself"

"I mean there's always something new to learn, and I've learnt more about the culture coz I've only been there maybe it will seem like a long time but ten years but I'm still learning about the culture, about things you can visit in the cities in Poland."

The teacher perceived a definite sense of connection in some of her students, as they researched and wrote articles about places in Poland:

"But in some of them you can actually see the real joy when they talk about the different aspects of Poland sometimes you know you can actually see they enjoy it, they feel happiness when they some memories they talk about from Poland, you know I am sure that most of them they find that they like it, I know they do, I know they appreciate most of them."

This seemed to be equally important for the EAL student, who researched a city in England for his project:

"the elements of culture he was learning he was researching he you know he normally wouldn't touch these topics and he didn't know about these things we discussed."

Self-esteem

There were indications in the data that students recognised the progress they were making, and that this boosted their self-esteem or their perception of themselves as successful learners.

"I think that Lukas first of all enjoys it a lot, and when he enjoys it I can see that he makes a very good progress. He's very proud of his work, so very often he would speak to us, he would, you can see that, you know, he's just proud of his work, what he's done, what he's learnt, and it's a good progress, it's a good progress he's making."

In particular, where students recognised that their level of achievement in LF exceeded their achievement in other subjects, the result was particularly affirming:

Gregor: the grade that I got was I'm really happy with it coz I got like an A or an A*, if I'm correct, and I'm predicted an A* so I'm pretty confident and happy that that's what I'm predicted and able of getting.
Interviewer: And how does that compare with the rest of your subjects?
Gregor: Er… other subjects I've been graded a little low of my expectations because I'm from a different country and I don't speak English at home and that's why my predicted grades are low, but I've already been able to beat those predicted scores for example in business I was predicted a D but I've been getting Cs and Bs and As.

There is a sense here that this student's progress in Polish in LF is serving to bolster his confidence and even encourage him to persevere in the face of lower-than-expected predicted grades, which have clearly disappointed him. Gregor, at the time of the present study, had been in England for four years. Researchers believe that it takes newly arrived students between five to seven years to acquire the level of language proficiency that enables them to function academically on a par with their native peers (Cummins, 1984).

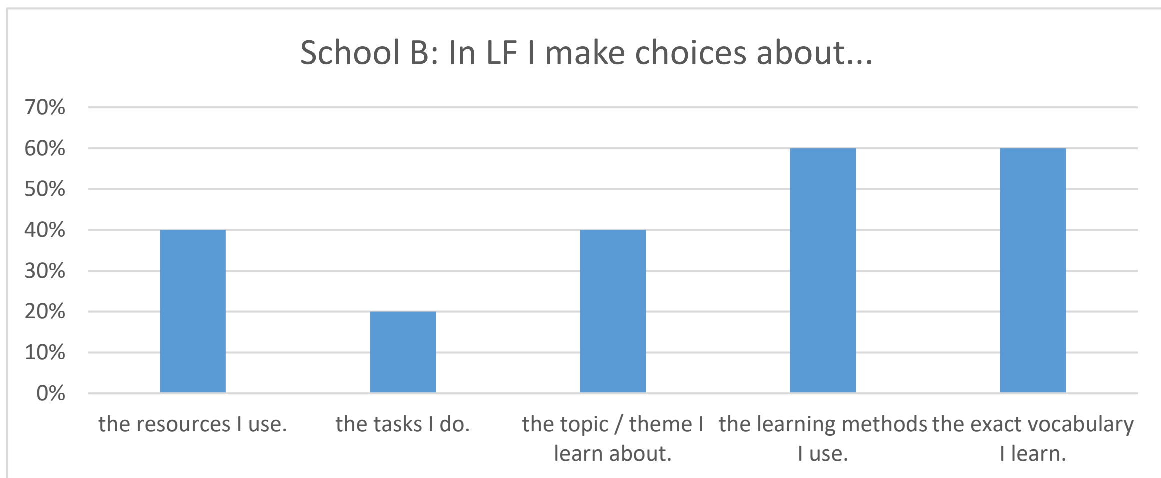
5.4.3 Key factors that impact on the LF approach

To explore the relative impact of different LF features on this LF model, data were triangulated from student questionnaires as well as student, teacher and mentor interviews.

Choice and autonomy

Students did not choose their language of study in this model, although they chose whether or not to take up the invitation to follow the programme. Their perceptions about aspects of freedom within their language lessons reveal that some but not all students believe they have choices in their learning:

Figure 19: School B Students' perceptions of choice in LF language learning



Project-based learning

Students' learning in School B's LF model is organised around an over-arching travel magazine project. At the time of the student questionnaire, students had only just been introduced to the idea of the project, and had not yet got fully underway with it. This might explain why only most students were aware that they were engaging in PBL, and also why there was some apparent uncertainty about what it would involve, as we see in figures 20 and 21, respectively.

Figure 20: School B Students' perceptions of engagement with PBL

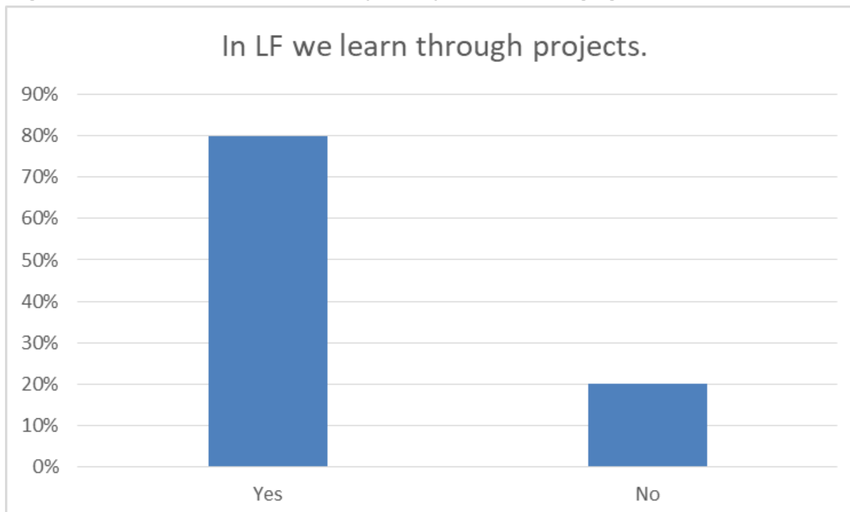
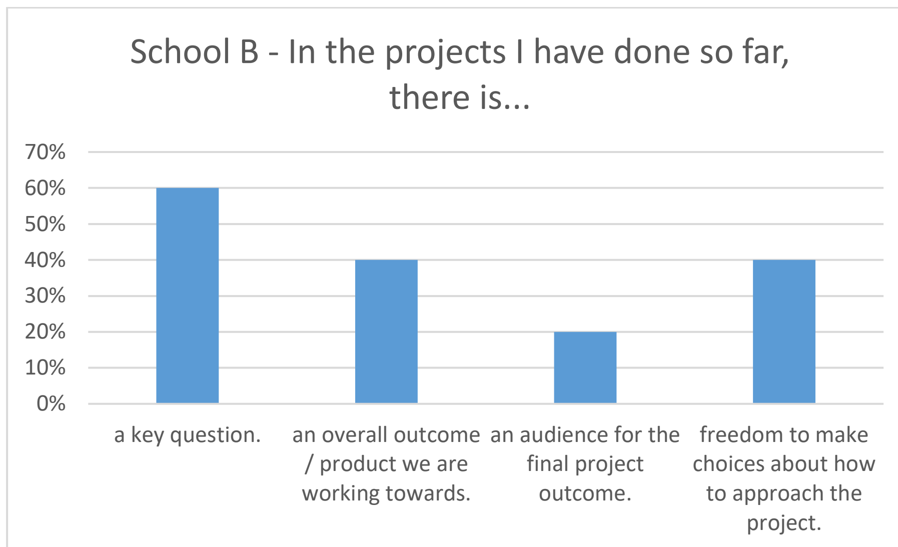


Figure 21: School B Students' perceptions of key project elements



Teacher interview data subsequently offers a more convincing account of students' engagement with PBL. First, the teacher describes the useful integration of grammar with the project purpose:

"That's one of the things I would say I've noticed actually, especially when I look at the producing part of the lesson, they can actually apply all the things we're doing together in the target language, when they do the writing, especially because they have the purpose now, they know they're doing this for the travel magazine and they have to produce these articles."

She is particularly clear that the project design matches the specific linguistic requirements of the class, too:

"And it's especially because the skills they struggle with is writing, writing and grammar, erm and I'm sure that most of them won't have any problems with speaking for Polish GCSE or reading that's absolutely fine or listening, that's fine, but it's grammar and writing, so this one specifically helps to develop the skills I actually want them to develop."

School as basecamp

In all previous studies of Language Futures, out-of-class learning has been significantly under-developed. Predictably, perhaps, all learners in this LF model attested to high levels of learning beyond the classroom.

Figure 22: School B Time spent on out-of-class learning

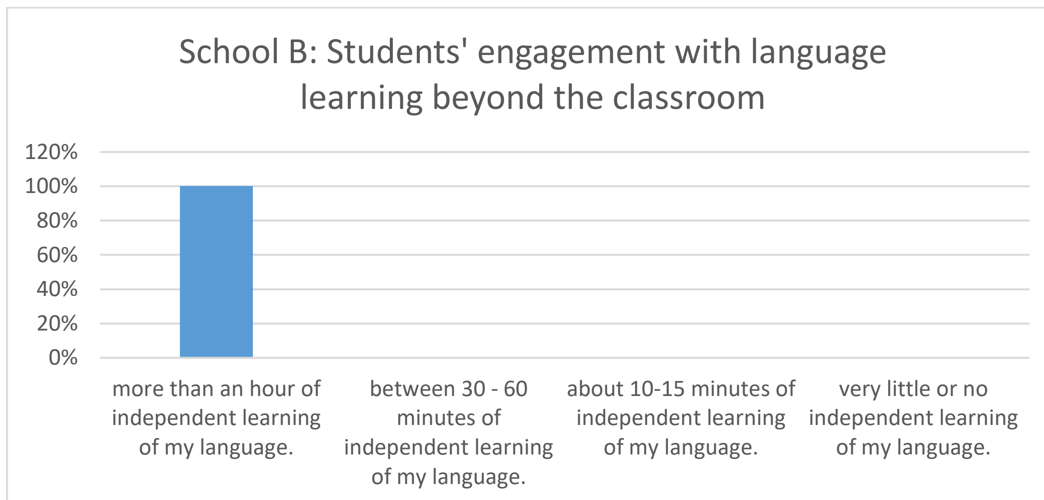
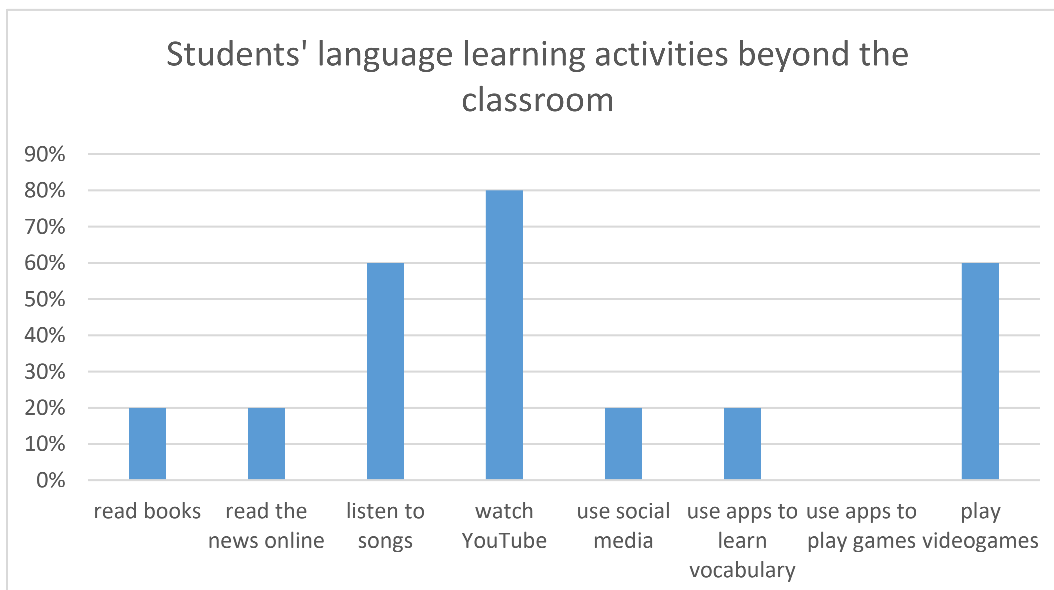


Figure 23: School B Students' out-of-class learning activities



Typically, students engaged in activities most teenagers enjoy engaging in, such as listening to songs, watching YouTube and playing videogames. We can assume that their level of linguistic competence made it just as easy or easier for them to do these activities through Polish, Spanish or Portuguese as through English. Considering the aim of LF to improve students' literacy and written accuracy, we might have hoped to see a higher level of engagement with reading books or the news online, and that might be one area to target for development in this respect.

When interviewed students confirmed that they preferred to listen or watch online. All students also mentioned either talking to friends or family every day in their community language:

Interviewer: Do you do anything language-wise, outside of school?
Estevao: Just speaking to my aunty
Interviewer: Speak to your aunty
Estevao: Yeah. I have a couple of friends that are Portuguese as well so I speak to them, coz I like sports, when we're playing football we communicate in Portuguese sometimes

Gregor mentioned connecting via social media, too:

"Sometimes I listen to Polish music, I definitely do more than just speaking and reading, because my social media page is like in Polish."

There were evidently significant personal differences in the scope of student language activity beyond the classroom. The LF teacher described another student:

"Some of them do, it's very interesting, one of them wasn't in today, he's quite naughty he's quite challenging but er he uses such beautiful structures when he writes in Polish such sophisticated sentences and vocabulary er so creative that's why it's such a shame he wasn't in today, and I keep repeating him that probably his written Polish is probably better than mine, and I had this conversation with him a few times, and he does read he reads a lot of books in Polish."

Community of learning

As we have already noted, some students clearly benefitted in their learning from regular opportunities for language interaction at home and with friends. In all cases where information was available, parents were known to be strongly in support of this community language learning programme. There were instances where, despite this, one or two students were less positive about the opportunity to study and accredit their community language, but generally student perceptions were very positive, for the variety of reasons explored above.
From classroom observation notes, it seemed that students enjoyed good relationships in the classroom, and particularly enjoyed working with their peers. Gregor saw the benefit of this for the development of communication skills and team work:

"Definitely, communication skills definitely has helped me a lot, because we had to work in a team so it really improved my communication and team work skills, and you basically need team work in nearly every lesson that we have in school, so it has."

Perceptions about mentoring were overwhelmingly positive. It seems to have been helpful for Polish students to have a mentor who had, like most of them, moved to England at some point during his late primary or early secondary education, had to acquire English through immersion and had decided to maintain and develop his Polish, having overcome a period of disaffection for his L1. The English mentor was likewise an EAL student, able to empathise with Lukas' learning journey. The Spanish mentor herself enjoyed the LF pace of learning, which she experienced as much more relaxed than her whole class teaching, where she spoke of often feeling under pressure to keep pace with the scheme of work. She was happy with LF where 'los tiempos los marcan los alumnos y no yo' (students set the speed of learning and not me).

Individual differences

Notwithstanding the overwhelmingly positive perceptions from all stakeholders about the success of this model of LF, we must expect that there will always be individuals whose needs are, for whatever reason, not met.

In this case, Ricardo, the Portuguese student also studying Spanish in LF, continued to struggle to make progress in the group. There seem to be several factors associated with the problems he experienced. First, there were his own feelings of insecurity about his competence in Spanish. These were exacerbated, in his view, by the fact that his teachers thought he was already so good in the language:

“In all honesty, my teachers think I’m excellent at Spanish, coz I know what they’re saying, but I don’t think they understand very well that I can’t really talk very well, so that’s making it difficult for me to learn, erm making my difficult parts better”

Secondly, by his own admission Ricardo found it difficult to maintain his focus in LF because there was more freedom:

“I can tell you for sure that in the community language class I did mess around a bit more because yeah because I was doing Portuguese as well and erm as there’s not many people we kind of have a little bit more freedom in there. So erm yeah in a class like that we have to pay more attention but I find it more difficult for myself, yeah.”

After taking his Portuguese GCSE, Ricardo decided to request to join a GCSE Spanish class:

“So I decided that erm I wasn’t really I didn’t feel I was doing the best I could and I wasn’t reaching the potential I could achieve so I decided to ask for a transfer from community language to an actual Spanish GCSE where I would learn at the same rate as the other students and see how it would go.”

Despite acknowledging that he found the pace of learning much less challenging and well within his capabilities, he also declared that he much preferred it:

“And I prefer in GCSE Spanish because I can compare myself to other people and see how I’m doing.”

In LF Ricardo was working predominantly with Estevao, who was himself fluent in Spanish, and tasked with supporting him. Despite (or maybe because of) the fact that the two of them were firm friends, it may be that the gap in their language competences undermined Ricardo’s self-esteem.

5.5 Conclusion

In a report entitled ‘Multilingual Britain’ one of the key findings states, ‘The UK’s multilingualism is an asset and a resource, but is not fully valued’ (Taylor, 2013). In England, one in five young people has a first language other than English (Ward, 2014) but only around a third take a qualification in their mother tongue. In part, this is because their skills go unrecognised by the exam system, which now accredits only a handful of community languages. Official recognition of language expertise through national examination is felt by many to be a crucial next step if England is serious about developing its multilinguistic capital.

Where qualifications do already exist in community languages, quite a number of schools give their students the opportunity to take them, but they do not provide tuition in them (Tinsley & Board, 2017). This innovative LF model should therefore be seen as a valuable contribution to the community language agenda.
There is certainly the demand for community language expertise. A brief online search for ‘Polish-speaking jobs) resulted in numerous advertisements for a range of positions from police to legal assistants to teachers. Raising the profile of community languages within schools and facilitating their accreditation, wherever qualifications exist, would seem to be positive for both school and students. Community language speaking students may not naturally see the value of their skills, unless schools actively promote them. However, a structured course leading to accreditation at KS4

might trigger vocational aspirations, as for Gregor:

Interviewer: What do you intend to study at sixth form?
Gregor: Maybe Polish, if it's still available to study, maybe I wanna follow that path, maybe in later life I might wanna become something to do with translating and stuff.

There seem to be several further reasons why encouraging students to maintain and develop their community language proficiency should be supported in schools: firstly, a recognition of the intrinsic value of language learning and language maintenance and secondly a greater acceptance that first language development is supportive of second language development (Cummins, 1980). As previously noted, there is both theoretical and empirical support for the notion that L1 or community language development can support L2 (in this case, English) language development, which may strengthen the overall outcomes for students at secondary level. Cummins (2005) explicitly advocates that schools should:

"implement instructional practices that will strengthen students' heritage language proficiency and their desire to maintain and develop it. In addition to promoting the heritage language itself, these initiatives could be designed to develop students' academic abilities in English by means of bilingual instructional strategies that teach explicitly for two-way cross-language transfer (LI to English, English to L1)." (Cummins, 2005, p.587).

At the very least such initiatives will communicate a highly beneficial message to students about the value of their home language and culture, contributing positively to their identity development, as well as potentially to their future career prospects.

Chapter 6: Case Study 3
Language Futures as KS3 in-curriculum alternative language provision

There are two schools involved in this case study. Whilst the LF model is not identical in each school, both schools aim to meet the learning needs of a cohort of students, who have previously struggled to make good progress in languages in the mainstream classroom. Therefore, the schools share both purpose and nature of student cohort.

6.1 The schools

Both schools in this case study are mixed gender secondary academies, part of a multi-academy trust in the East of England. School C is a larger than average secondary school with approximately 1000 students. The proportion of pupils who speak English as an additional language is well below the national average and most students are White British. The proportion of students who need additional support with their learning; those at school action plus and those with a statement of special educational needs is broadly average. The school has a lower than average proportion of pupil premium students (pupil premium being additional funding for students known to be eligible for free school meals, those in local authority care and those with a parent in the armed services). In its last Ofsted inspection, the school was rated 'requires improvement', having previously been in special measures.
School D is also a larger than average secondary school with more than 1200 students. Rated 'outstanding' in its last Ofsted inspection, the school is now an established academy. The proportion of students with special educational needs and/or disabilities is broadly average. The proportion of pupil premium students is below average. A large majority of students are of White British heritage and very few students are at an early stage of learning English.

6.2 The Language Futures model

In School C there were two Year 8 (12-year old) LF classes, each with a different teacher. This study focused on one of these two classes. The study class had one hour of LF each week, and continued to have one hour of French. The LF teacher of the class was also their French teacher. The students were in their second year of learning French, having had two hours weekly during Year 7. School D had one class of LF, also a Year 8 class. In this model, students no longer had any conventional classroom language provision.
In terms of its design, this model of Language Futures set out to include all five core features of the approach. However, the specific nature of the cohort and, in one case, the school context, led to necessary compromises and adaptations, as follows:

Student choice and agency

In both schools, participation in the LF model itself was not optional. Students were selected by teachers, based on an evaluation of KS3 progress during Year 7. Selection for LF was implicitly also an early de-selection from KS4 languages, as it was not foreseen that students in these classes would go on to study for a GCSE in a foreign language.

Students in both schools were able to choose their language, however. Table 15 shows the number of students in each class and the languages chosen:

Table 15: Schools C and D: LF languages and numbers of learners

School C		School D	
Language	**Number of learners**	**Language**	**Number of learners**
Italian	3	French	3
Japanese	3	German	2
Spanish	4	Japanese	3
		Spanish	9
Total no. of learners	10		17

In School D, the language learning was organised thematically following the same Scheme of Work as School A (Case Study 1), and included essential personal information, numbers, colours, food and drink, cultural festivals, free time and sport. However, as the LF teacher makes clear, the expectations for linguistic progression were modest, commensurate with the cohort:

"The curriculum is designed for students who have been judged as unable to access the languages curriculum within mainstream lessons. We are therefore promoting a curriculum that requires students to learn the languages at word level and possibly sentence level with the aim of promoting a love of language learning for less-able learners."

Table 16 presents an overview of the curriculum at the time of the study:

Table 16: School D LF curriculum summary

Grammar / Language structures	Vocabulary / Topic areas	Language learning skills	Projects
Vocabulary at word and sentence level	Introducing yourself, numbers, colours, food and drink, festivals (Christmas, Easter, Chinese New Year), free time, sport	Language learning strategies, Independent learning using web-based resources	Spoken presentation about self, Children's book, Film review, Recipe and cooking

School C took a different approach in terms of curriculum design. The main focus of the LF course is to facilitate the development of students' autonomy through project-based learning. Some of the learning is language-related, but substantial aspects of the course relate instead to the culture of the chosen target language country. Apart from choosing their language, students also choose who to work with, and how to fulfil each project brief. As the LF teacher explains, "The idea of student responsibility for their learning is consistently highlighted to students."

Table 17: School C LF curriculum summary

Grammar / Language structures	Vocabulary / Topic areas	Knowledge about language	Language learning skills	Wider skills
Basic structures such as 'there is/there are' Answering simple questions	Key words for a phrase book Foods Transport Colours Rooms in the house Numbers	Thinking about English: Why learn another language? Where does English come from? How does a language 'die out' Links between languages. Words in English that come from other languages Links between French and others	Methods for vocabulary memorisation	Presentation skills Listening respectfully and asking meaningful questions to peers Peer assessment Self-assessment Computer skills Independent research and investigation Problem solving Geography History

Teacher as designer and facilitator

In school C the LF case study class had one teacher, who also taught the same students French each week. This teacher saw her role as fundamental to the development of learner autonomy. She designed the projects carefully, presenting them clearly to the students, but then very systematically adopted the practice of responding to students' questions with a question, continually confounding their attempts to rely too heavily on her. In her own words, her typical responses would be 'that's up to you!' 'It's your choice, how do you think you should do it?' This teacher had some previous LF experience, having been involved with it at her previous school, and having initiated the LF model at her new school the previous year.

School D's class had two teachers. This was for logistical, timetabling reasons although the LF teacher interviewed certainly felt it was beneficial to share the class, given the challenging nature of some of the students within it. The school had been running the LF programme for several years and the LF teacher had previous experience of teaching it. Despite broadly following school A's scheme of work, the teacher acknowledged that she needed to put considerable time into planning the tasks for students.

School as basecamp

As discussed in the introductory chapter of the report, an aspiration of Language Futures is that it generates intrinsic interest in and motivation for learning, such that students choose to pursue their learning beyond the classroom, as opposed to being set specific homework. This study explored the extent to which LF students in schools C and D engaged in out-of-class learning, as one measure of intrinsic motivation.

Project-based learning

In their LF lessons, learners in school C completed one project each half-term. Students kept the same language and country that they initially chose, and explored aspects of the language and culture within the framework of each project brief. Students chose who to work with and much of the learning involved the use of technology, enabling students to explore and investigate independently. In school D students completed language tasks of different lengths, relating to the key topic areas. They were encouraged to work independently, and with the support of their peers. Students had some access to computers, and they also had community mentors. Through teacher and student interview and teacher and student questionnaires this study explored the impact of project-based learning on student motivation, knowledge and skill development and overall progress.

Building a learning community

Affective support and linguistic scaffolding are key components of the LF classroom. Previous models of the project provide evidence that peer, mentor and parental support fulfil an important function. In school C, this element of the programme was problematic. The LF teacher went to great lengths to recruit community mentors to the programme. Adverts were posted in the community, and on the school's social media sites (Twitter and Facebook), but there was no response. Despite having a sixth form, there was little interest from sixth form students. Initially there was a Teaching Assistant who worked with the group in a quasi-mentor role, although he subsequently left the school, too early in the course to have been able to have much of an impact on learning. The teacher also noted that students themselves were not yet resourceful or resilient enough to collaborate with and learn from each other in small groups. Parents were contacted and informed about the course objectives, and invited to take an active role in supporting their child's learning. There were no parental responses to that communication, although there was a certain level of tacit support from parents. Within this context, the teacher focused her efforts on developing learner autonomy and peer learning in the classroom, encouraging them to use websites to support out-of-class learning.

School D was able to recruit community mentors in French, German and Spanish, although not unfortunately for Japanese. However, the second LF teacher did have a basic level of competence in Japanese and was able to support learners to a certain extent. Parental involvement was deemed by the LF teacher to be minimal.

The extent to which learners made use of peer, mentor, parental and other support was a particular focus for the study and findings are reported in full, below.

6.3 The participants

The learners

At the time of data collection for this study there were 10 students in the school C study class, and school D had 17 LF students. Student background data from the teacher questionnaire indicate that almost all the students were ab initio learners of their LF language, although the three students learning French in school D had completed one year of prior learning. It is worth remembering that all students in this cohort were students who had been identified as struggling to make progress at KS3 in French. It is also noteworthy that of a total of 27 students, there were 22 boys and 5 girls. Table 18 summarises the student data:

Table 18: Schools C and D LF learner profiles

School	Student	Age	Gender	LF language	LF language competence	Additional details
C	1	12	M	Japanese	AB	
C	2	12	M	Italian	AB	
C	3	12	M	Spanish	AB	
C	4	12	M	Japanese	AB	
C	5	12	F	Spanish	AB	
C	6	12	M	Spanish	AB	
C	7	12	M	Italian	AB	
C	8	12	F	Italian	AB	Bilingual Polish
C	9	12	M	Spanish	AB	
C	10	12	M	Japanese	AB	
D	1	12	M	Spanish	AB	
D	2	12	M	Japanese	AB	
D	3	12	M	Japanese	AB	
D	4	12	M	Japanese	AB	
D	5	12	M	French	F	
D	6	12	M	French	F	
D	7	12	M	Spanish	AB	
D	8	12	F	Spanish	AB	
D	9	12	F	Spanish	AB	
D	10	12	M	Spanish	AB	
D	11	12	M	Spanish	AB	
D	12	12	M	Spanish	AB	
D	13	12	M	Spanish	AB	
D	14	12	M	French	F	
D	15	12	M	German	AB	
D	16	12	F	German	AB	
D	17	12	M	Spanish	AB	

Language competence codes	
Absolute beginner	AB
Foundation – 1-2 years classroom-based prior learning	F
Intermediate – 3-4 years classroom-based prior learning	I
Advanced – 5+ years classroom-based prior learning	A
Community speaker with no or limited literacy	HS
Community speaking with some literacy	HS+

Interviews were conducted in each school on two separate occasions (February and June). One LF lesson in each school was observed in February, and a further lesson in June in school D.

The teacher

The Language Futures teacher in school C was a full-time teacher of languages at the school. She had initiated and been in charge of the school's LF programme since its launch the previous year, and, as previously mentioned, was passionate about developing her students' autonomy. School D's LF teacher was a long-established languages teacher at her school, with previous experience of running the LF course. Two interviews were conducted with the LF teacher in school C, one in February and the other in June. For logistical reasons, it was only possible to interview the LF teacher in school D once, in June.

The mentors

School C did not have mentors. School D's German mentor was interviewed in February. Unfortunately, through pressures of work, she dropped out of the programme and was therefore not available for interview later in the study. Table 19 shows the interview sample from both schools in the study:

Table 19: Schools C and D Interviews

	School C	**School D**
LF teacher	February / June	June
LF students	February (2 students – one girl, one boy) June (4 students – three girls, one boy)	February (2 students – two girls) June (2 students – one girl, one boy)
LF mentor	--	February (German mentor)

The parents

Parents of students in the programme were informed about their child's language provision in school, and were kept informed via the school report, in the same way as they received information about progress in all other subjects, although they did not receive an attainment level or target for their LF course. Despite generally low levels of parental engagement reported in both schools, there were individual stories that confounded this norm, and are explored in further detail, below.

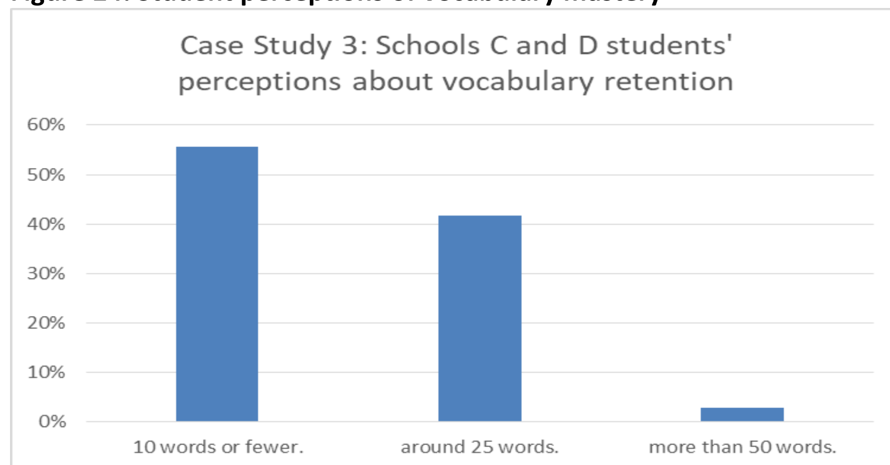
6.4 Analysis and findings

The analysis and findings in this chapter are organised around the overarching research questions, drawing on thematic analysis of all of the data sources, focusing first on linguistic progress, mindful of the modest aspirations for progress explicit in this LF model. As students were selected for this mode of learning precisely as a result of the difficulties they encountered in language learning in the mainstream classroom, it was very relevant to explore students' comparative perceptions. Finally, there is an account of the range of factors that impact on the LF approach within this particular model.

6.4.1 Linguistic progress

The student questionnaire responses below, which included responses from both school C and D, were completed approximately four months into the course. At this stage, more than half of the students considered that they had mastered a productive repertoire of 10 words or fewer, with most of the rest estimating a vocabulary of around 25 words, with just one or two believing they could remember more than 50 words.

Figure 24: Student perceptions of vocabulary mastery



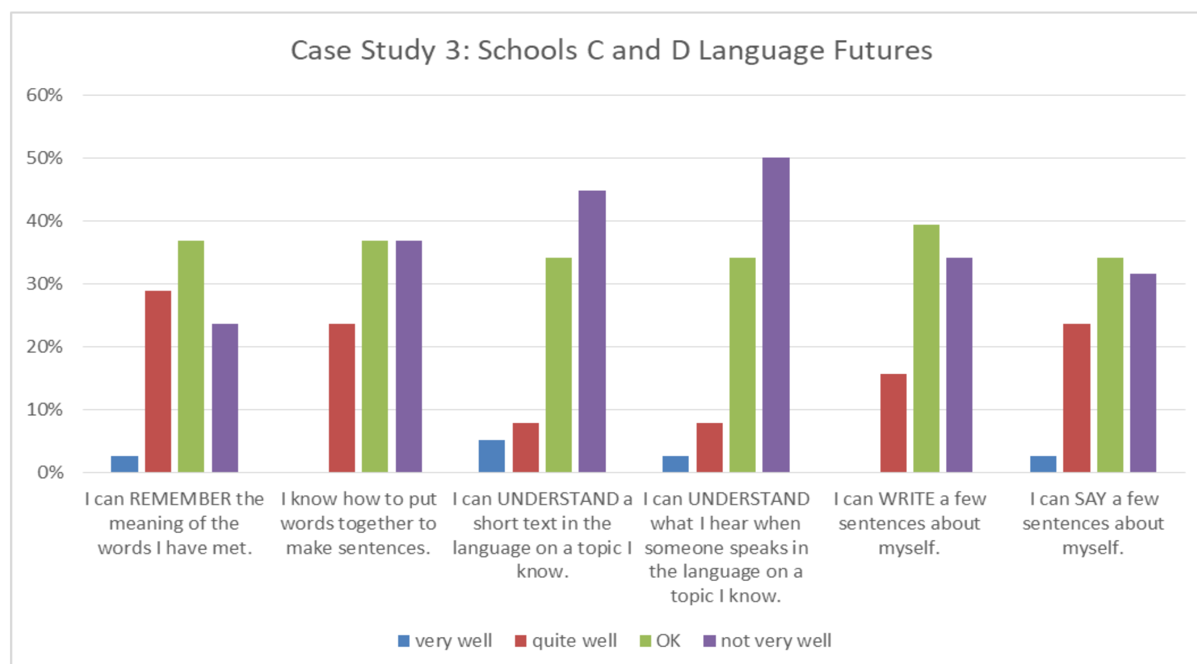
These perceptions are supported by interview data from students, mentor and teachers, all of which confirm difficulties with retention of language, particularly over time.

Table 20: Perceptions about vocabulary retention

Retention	Student	Teacher	Mentor
School C	"I can kind of speak the basics if I have it in front of me and I can say my name and my age and all the emergency things if they're in front of me, coz I've researched it all up and it's all on paper"	"In terms of language it is very basic so er… I think more in terms of recognising similarities between say French and the language they're learning, if there are any, or recognising how different a language can be, in terms of Japanese."	
School D	"I usually when I first know the words I can remember it very well but when we get further like four days I can't really remember it that well" "Well we wrote a little paragraph about ourself and we showed it to the class, and er… it was I can't really me llamo Annie, erm I can't really remember how to say to do it but I can remember the sport, it's the same" "Well when I walk into the lesson I usually get like my Spanish mind on and I usually think what we did last lesson and coz if we do, do it again that lesson I will remember it very well so you know I'll have to learn it again"	"Well in terms of this group obviously they are the low ability students, so in terms of actually using the language, they might be able to say one or two words"	"I mean they don't always retain everything by any stretch of the imagination but you know there are things that they remember, like funny little things that they remember from one day to the next"

The profile of student perceptions of competence across the four skills (Figure 25, below) represents relatively low levels of perceived competence across all skills, particularly when compared with other LF cohorts (cf. Figure 5, Case Study 1; Figure 18, Case Study 2). The data reflect the lower attainment, and learning needs, of students within this LF cohort.

Figure 25: Students' perceptions of their competence in the four skills



That said, these data veil a much richer picture of experience, which is better captured and revealed by the individual stories in the interview data. One student from school D, when asked what he had been learning recently, mentioned telling the time:

Interviewer: How to tell the time, ok. So can you tell me any of those, can you tell me any Spanish words that come into your head?
Student: So hello is hola in Spanish. Erm que hora es [aspirated 'h'] is how you say what is the time, what else
Interviewer: Do you know how to answer that?
Student: So que hora es you could say like son las cuatro y media is half past four

Another student from school D, who started the year learning German but switched to Spanish when her German mentor was unable to continue, was asked to recall what she could from five months earlier in the year:

Interviewer: OK, so can you still remember anything in German?
Student: I can still remember one to ten, and I can still remember a tiny bit of like what the like animals are, just a couple of them, and some colours
Interviewer: OK, can you remember to say, can you remember anything to say like My name is, or I am thirteen or something like that
Student: I can remember like 'Hi I am 'and stuff like that
Interviewer: Say anything that you can remember at all and I know you haven't been doing it for six months
Student: Ich [pronounced ick] heisse Ella I can say like one to ten quite easily like
Interviewer: Do you want to just do that
Student: Un, no, eins zwei drei vier fünf sechs sieben acht neun zehn

One further powerful pen portrait of another student's progress is provided by school D's LF teacher: "she did a presentation where she stood up and spoke about herself for a good two to three minutes in Spanish, this is a girl who was dis-applied from languages after Y7, that really we thought she's

never going to manage, and I really then almost I didn't teach her last year but I just thought why is she in my group this year because she shows such a flair for it, and really she has all year and a lot of it has stuck with her and I think she said I could never, in Y7 she hated language lessons and she couldn't be in the classroom with all those people but once she got herself and working with her mentor and working on her own and at her own pace she said she's just loved this year"

This student herself referred to how she prepared for her spoken presentation:
Student: Er…, my easiest way of learning is to write it down and to be able to see it, and er… try and read it as much as I can with it there, and get it into my head, and then try and push myself to do it without the book, when I was doing my presentation to the class, I read for a couple of weeks my book and then me and my teacher were going through it and doing it without my booklet and she was asking me the questions and I would answer it
Interviewer: All in Spanish?
Student: Yeah.

In terms of student retention of language, these data show that these students were managing to retain some language over time, and that a few students were able to produce sentence-level utterances from memory. Exceptionally, there were also students who showed more ability, and made considerably more progress in LF, particularly when compared to their Y7 learning experiences. Equally important are the indications that students invested significant effort into their learning, that students developed meta-cognitively as well as linguistically, and that they were motivated by and proud of their learning. It is also worth noting that opportunities for multiple cycles of repetition, followed by mentor and teacher feedback appear to be associated with more successful learning.

Another aspect of linguistic progress concerns pronunciation. Other models of LF have indicated that pronunciation and speaking are often under-developed, even where there is regular mentor support. This study's findings resonate with those of previous studies:

Interviewer: Can they express themselves at all in sentences?
Mentor: Not really. A few sort of formulas that we've learned, but they, that's not really the kind of language learning that they do when I'm not here, coz they have three lessons a week and I'm only here for one of them, and I think putting things together certainly orally is still a bit beyond them. They have done some writing, so they wrote a postcard to somebody and they were able to put things together there, so, but it's still quite basic, really.

Progress in pronunciation is also tentative:
Mentor: they are getting more confident at pronunciation although that is still a bit of a challenge, and I do still have to remind them that a W says V and a V says F and we're still having to do that every time but they are getting a little more confident about it

Inevitably, perhaps, more time is spent writing than speaking:

Student: In the hobbies topic we spoke a bit about sport and er…the hobbies that you do, as in like tv shows and what you do after school so we did er.. we did sports afternoon daytime and we did like a time plan so I did my like morning routine so at school, and then after school I do a little bit of sport and then er… just do videogames and YouTube and all that but we wrote like a booklet in Spanish so we had to write everything in Spanish.

That said, individual differences also played a part in determining progress in speaking the language. In particular there were several boys who made the most of every opportunity to speak:

School C LF teacher: so James here just seems particularly strong, but he also loves to talk, so he will

be one, even a French lesson, he's always got his hand up, he's got no fear of getting it wrong, he'll just go for it, and he'll do exactly the same with the Spanish, even though he's not hearing anyone say it, he'll see the word on the page and just try saying, which of course in Spanish is very easy…quite surprised even at David the way he comes out with some Japanese pronunciation, which I don't even know if it's right, but you know, he's confident to go for it, but again he's a very chatty one especially in front of the class, he loves an audience.

School D LF teacher: there are two other boys who have done really well Felix who also wasn't here today he's really thrived you know coming into language futures I hadn't high expectations but I thought his ability to speak Spanish you know when I hear him at the end of a mentor session it's absolutely fantastic I'm really amazed but he does speak another language at home I'm not sure what it is.

This contrasts with the reticence of some of the girls:
"neither of the other two girls will speak up, not particularly in French, and definitely not in their new language"

Overall, findings show that progress was evident, but slow, particularly in speaking, and that long-term retention of language was a particular challenge.

6.4.2 Perceptions of other aspects of progress in LF

When seeking to evaluate the benefits of this LF model, however, it is important to include additional aspects of development that emerged from the data, in particular: cultural knowledge and self-esteem.

Cultural knowledge

The school C LF teacher explicitly targeted aspects of learning in addition to language learning itself, partly as a consequence of not having any community mentors. As she explains:
"it's been much more cultural in terms of what they're able to achieve and their cultural understanding has risen a lot, but also their cross-curricular skills so for example we were in the cooking room last week cooking dishes from around the world, which I 'm sure they'll tell you about, which was a great success, and independent research, sticking to a deadline, things like that."

Students obviously enjoyed researching cultural aspects of countries where their chosen language was spoken. They retained particular details that had piqued their interest, sometimes taking even the interviewer by surprise:

Student: Well like there's a lot of street food so there's a lot like stuff on the street that you can just eat and watch people make there's a lot of weird like things as well like I saw this like they have square watermelons
Interviewer: Square what?
Student: Square watermelons like the shape of them is like a big square it's well weird

Wider skills

Students in school C also spent the first half-term exploring English, which included work on cognates, shared and borrowed words. The teacher felt this to be both interesting and useful to her students:

"they were actually really really into it and fascinated about how many words we have from other

languages in English, and their knowledge of just English in general and how languages are inter-related just shot up so that was quite a good hook as well into language futures for them."

In addition, students developed their general world knowledge and softer communication skills, such as audience and presentation skills, which their teacher felt were learning needs not being met elsewhere in the curriculum:

"I just think with students like this the benefit of doing a course like this where you have the opportunity to focus in on actually just spending time you know speaking in front of the class, listening to each other, sending an email, is so valuable, I just think if they're not getting this anywhere else…"

Stakeholders' comparative perceptions of LF and conventional classroom language learning

Perhaps the most significant finding of this case study is that in both study schools, previously demotivated, and in many cases quite disruptive, learners displayed much more positive attitudes to learning in general, and learning languages in particular, leading one of the LF teachers to conclude: "We think it is hugely successful in terms of pupil engagement, positivity towards languages, the culture of languages, that kind of thing"

This view was corroborated by the students' responses. When asked to rank LF as one of her subjects, one student said that it would be second favourite after PE, but that French would definitely be at the very bottom. This student was from school C, and was learning French and participating in LF with the same teacher.

This study has identified several factors that are associated positively with LF and contrasted with mainstream language learning experiences by all of the main stakeholders. These are pace of learning, small group learning (with mentor support), the lack of assessment pressure, content and learning methods. These in turn are implicated in the higher levels of confidence and self-esteem described by students. These data are displayed in the table below:

Table 20: Factors positively associated with LF and in contrast to mainstream classroom

	Students	**Teacher / Mentor**	**Mentor**
Pace	"I feel like it's made my learning a lot easier because when I was doing the language before in French I was finding it hard because my teacher would go very fast and I with the mentors and the new class I'm in I feel like it's easier because you can talk to her individually about your language … and easier to er learn about what you need to learn about instead of having to rush and forget about everything that you've learnt." "if I did two French lessons a week I would just probably	"I think there's enough it was very worrying at the beginning of the year when I saw this all about me leisure food I was thinking I'll have done this by October half term but it's amazing how much you can pack in you can take all the nice bits and do it in a lot more detail and very slowly which suited them."	"I think what I'm doing is sort of sustaining a pattern of language learning, and also just making it a bit more fun and a bit more relaxed than any other lesson that they have, and I mean quite often we have conversations about things that have happened in other lessons. I think they're both people who for different reasons find being in the classroom quite difficult at times. Yeah, so it's just about kind of making it a bit

	like get all confused with the words, coz they just move on really quick, but with LF you can just like take your time with the work, coz it's like up to you and if you run out of time then you run out of time, but coz you're going at your own pace, you don't have to worry about moving on quickly coz you've got other people doing different languages so it doesn't really matter how long you take to try and find something"		more I don't know relaxed, informal"
Small group / mentor support	"In year 7 I wasn't doing too well, but in Y8 I feel like I've really done a lot better than I was, because my teacher said to me when I did my presentation half-term, she said I might have to move up in grades because I was doing really well for the class I was in, so I feel like the way we're doing it now instead of all in one class I feel like the tutors are a lot easier to learn with than in a class." "and you don't have to like raise your hand coz I'm like quite a shy person in class so I don't have to raise my hand and she'll just help you, and this year where I've been doing I feel like I've been better because I've been able to ask if I've stuck whereas in lesson I feel like it's a little bit embarrassing but I overcame that so I'm glad about that and now it's easier to talk to her" "It's kind of changed me for my languages because when I was more in like a bit class I'd normally be shy to like to say out anything just in case I got it wrong and now like in LF I can say it even if I get it wrong and it doesn't really matter coz she'll help us learn a bit more"		

	"Erm it's just an easier way of learning for me because yeah, it's made me overcome a lot of fears between putting my hand up and now I know that other people are thinking the same thing as me and other people are in the same situation so they don't so now I don't feel like I'm odd or and I know that people sit there with their like wanting to put their hand up but they're too afraid to, when you're in a big classroom you don't really expect that you just think that you're the one sitting waiting but other people are actually there as well wanting to do that but they can't coz they feel afraid, but now I know that other people want to do that I feel like I can put my hand up and like try and persuade other people to as well."		
Lack of assessment pressure		"And also the end goals are not so time-constricted well we can't spend half an hour trying to work around this problem coz we have to have achieved this level of language by the end of this lesson to move on to the module to be assessed. And so you do end up I don't think spoon-feeding's necessarily the word for what we do, but you have to say because of the structure of LF we're very independent and we can sort of decide how long we want to spend on anything if we want an extra couple of lessons we can which is just not possible in normal teaching time and with an assessment coming up at the end"	"I'm not testing them, I'm not assessing them or setting them target grades or anything, so I think we all feel we can be just a little bit more informal about that."

		"Freed up from the usual curriculum, we were able to spend valuable time looking at how English works and why so many languages exist which even created some exciting moments of discussion which was great for this class."	
Themes	"Yeah, because in Spanish lessons we've been learning like about pacific places like Barcelona and Madrid and I want to be going to those kind of places like for real"	"I said to them when I was introducing the whole parts of the body I said if we go to Spain and we go to the beach and you get sunburnt or you have earache that's something you need to know so it's very practical, it's not really a very nice topic to teach necessarily but I think they can then see the value of it"	
Learning methods	"Better than French because you're a lot freer, you can decide how you want to do things. We like working on computers."	"I think the whole practicality of it at this level helps it stick with them I think if they make their own menus and then they order with the mentor and they're playing their role plays of course that's going to stick more … and I just think that's very valuable at their level but just not always achievable in your GCSE class Y9 dual class or whatever"	

6.4.4 Key factors that impact on the LF approach

To explore the relative impact of different LF features on this LF model, data were triangulated from student questionnaires as well as student, teacher and mentor interviews.

Choice

Students in schools C and D chose their language of study in this model, although they did not choose to take part in the programme. Interview and teacher questionnaire data confirm the importance of language choice. Interestingly, even when some students give apparently shallow and unconvincing reasons for their choice of language, it does not dent their loyalty to it. It seems that the simple fact that it was their choice sets up an unwritten, yet clearly discernible, commitment to the chosen language.
As the LF teacher from school C explains: "Student choice is very important and gives them responsibility and accountability for following through with their decisions. They have risen to this challenge."

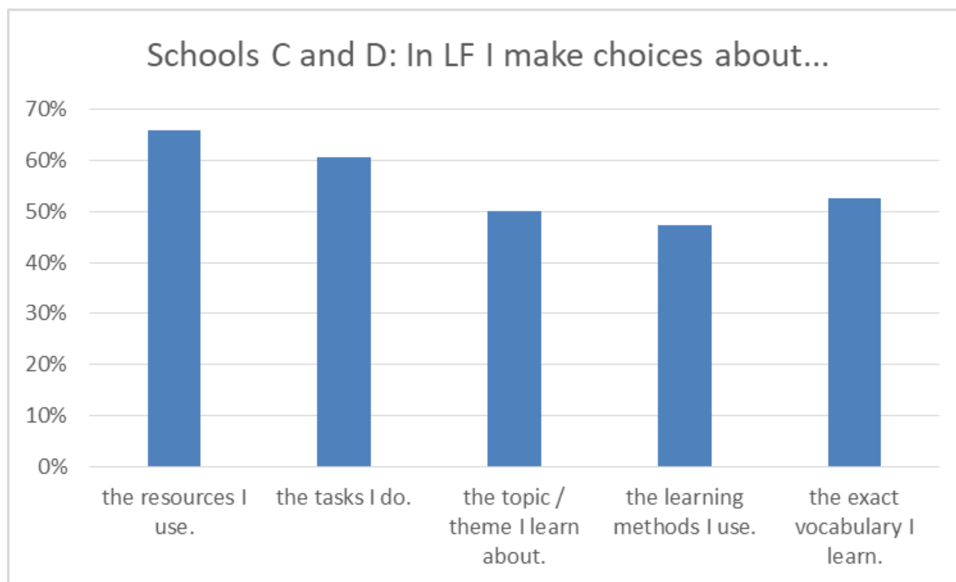
For other students, the strength of interest in the chosen LF language is even more convincing:

Student: I do it on my own, but miss helps me if I can't do something, and then when I when I was little I wanted to speak Italian so
Interviewer: Are you as interested in it now as you were when you started?
Student: No
Interviewer: Are you not?
Student: I'm more interested now

It is particularly noteworthy that this commitment is sustained in school C despite the lack of any community mentors to foster ongoing cultural and linguistic interest.

In terms of student perceptions about freedom in lessons, the student questionnaire responses reveal that some but not all students believe they have complete freedom of choice in their learning:

Figure 26: Schools C and D: students' perceptions of choice in LF language learning



However, it is not possible to discover from the questionnaire data whether students might be restricted in their choice of resources, for example, simply due to a lack of availability, rather than any degree of teacher prescription. The interview data illuminate further the picture of learning choice in both schools. As regards resources, for example, both LF teachers point to restrictions in terms of access to new technologies, either because of logistical rooming issues, outdated equipment or even whole school restrictions to the use of headphones:

"We don't have to have headphones because it's just we don't allow… that technology has been stopped in the school so we don't have phones and all that sort of thing any more so I would play and they repeat but they're not all working terribly much at their own pace for the sounds. I do have headphones which I allow out but we share them and they have a certain amount of time where they can listen to words and then I move that on, sort of trying to keep in line with school policy but at the same time I think it's important that they have the headphones for the sounds coz I can't do that."

These practical considerations may impact on students' perceptions of choice, as well as their ability to work autonomously, but it is important to recognise the difference between this and more intentional teacher direction.

LanguageFutures

In terms of freedom of task, one student in school D describes being set tasks in very positive terms:

Interviewer: Do you think that the way that you learn in LF is an effective way to learn?
Student: I think it's really effective because you get given loads of tasks and although you're put to do them, they're like they're for you to learn, they're there for you to help your understanding so if you get given a task your tutors are there, but the tasks that you're given are set to your standard so they work bit by bit and try and not go too far in one section of time so you work your way up to your score, like we get given a grade and we have to work our way up to it gradually.

Yet again, the lack of time pressure and support from mentors emerge as key factors associated with positive learning experiences.

Overall, the commitment to developing choice and, in school C, to the development of autonomy in particular, is clear: "Students are given a task e.g. create a draft for your phrasebook, but many of their questions are answered with 'that's up to you!' 'It's your choice, how do you think you should do it?' etc. They choose what vocabulary they find in their language and within the task they have as much autonomy as possible."

The positive response to choice is typified by the response of this student, who was asked if and why he would recommend LF, and responded: "you get to choose whatever you want, do whatever you want to choose, you get to do different things, you get to pick what you do, so that's pretty cool."

Autonomy

As mentioned, the LF teacher in school C was particularly concerned to develop learner autonomy, seeing it as an acute need for students in the context of her school: "even the thought of even just on your own going and finding something out about the world is just such a foreign concept to them, it's like "well why would I do such a thing' there's no curiosity, and like we struggle here with aspiration here in this school, it's linked to curiosity, isn't it"

She therefore deliberately focused on students' ability to work autonomously, and built an assessment thereof into the students' self-assessment progress record sheet. Basic problem-solving, with even the simplest of decisions, was something she was keen to improve:
"A big part of my approach I think for these students in particular is problem-solving coz they've got no resilience and they're used from year 7 to 'miss shall I start a new page' miss how do I glue it in' 'miss, my computer's not working' and it's just exhausting what they just will not attempt on their own, and so this kind of like refusing to answer a question and the problem-solving is actually… because I think it's a massive problem in the generation of kids that we're raising."

Despite working from a relatively low starting point in terms of student autonomy, there was evidence not only that students were showing signs of emergent autonomy by taking responsibility for their project work, but also that they took some pride in doing so:

Student: We've made up like booklets like about festivals I done this ice festival about ice sculpture
Interviewer: A festival of ice sculpture
Student: Yeah, what they do is like every year I'm guessing in the winter they um like build sculptures up out of ice and there's like a big festival it's actually mad but yeah but I made like a leaflet about that
Interviewer: So you did the whole leaflet about the ice festival
Student: Yeah I done like two pages of writing just about that and I made the front cover and that, so pretty cool

However, as we have noted with other aspects of progress, individual differences continued to play a role. As the school C LF teacher commented:

"I think those differences come from ability to work independently be self-motivated some love it and the difference between their French lesson and their LF lesson is that they hate French and they love LF because they love the freedom of it and driving themselves, there are others that find that very difficult to deal with and struggle to stay focused in the lesson, struggle to get moving with the project, because they haven't been told exactly what to do, so yeah it's very noticeable the ones that manage it, the ones that don't so much, yeah."

School D's LF programme was predominantly focused on task-based language learning. Whilst students did do some independent learning, autonomy was not necessarily an explicit goal. This student's description of learning gives a sense of the pattern of learning:

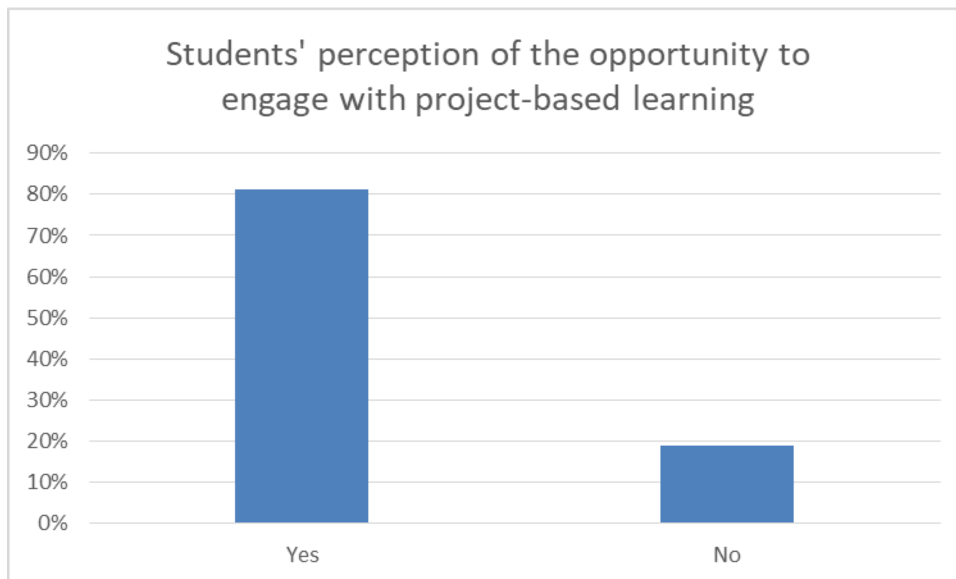
Interviewer: When someone says I want you to learn about numbers, I want you to learn about foods, I want you to learn about time, what do you do? What's the way you go about it?
Student: Well I you know I obviously do do a task, mm, …
Interviewer: So what do you do? Is it your mentor who says this is what you're gonna do?
Student: So usually our teacher sets us a task, and we're like we go on the computers to learn about it on Linguascope but sometimes the mentors call me to like say ok we're going do this activity here, so we do it on paper rather than on the computer

A key difference that emerged between the LF models in these two schools, therefore, was that school C prioritised autonomy, and students developed this through project-based learning, with a very limited amount of language, whilst school D focused more on language learning, through tasks rather than projects, and with more direction from the teacher and/or mentor. To this extent, neither school fulfilled entirely on the LF paradigm, but both schools adapted their models to fit their circumstances and achieve their learning objectives.

Project-based learning

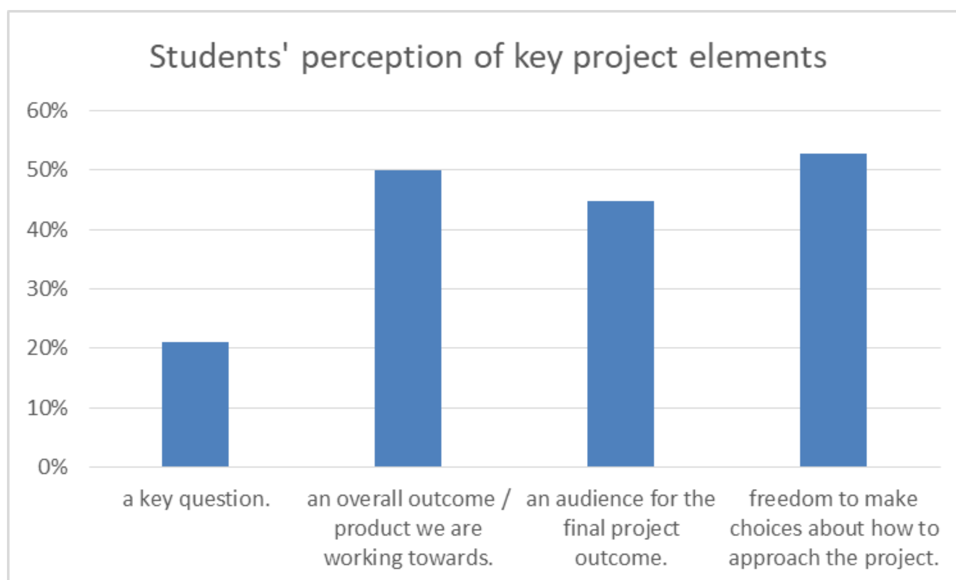
There have already been several references in this case study to the significance of project-based learning, particularly from teacher and students in school C, where it was fundamental to the teacher's focus on developing learning autonomy. Student questionnaire data from schools C and D in Figure 27 present the response to the statement, "In Language Futures we learn through projects". The vast majority of students in this cohort believes that project-based learning was a significant part of their LF learning.

Figure 27: School C and D students' perceptions of engagement with PBL



Students were then asked to indicate the presence of any of these key project elements. Nearly half of the respondents believed their project work was focused on an end product, which had an audience, and involved choices in terms of how to learn. Only one-fifth of the group felt there was a key question guiding the project. It is important to remember that these data collate responses from two LF models, which, whilst sharing many features, did take a somewhat different approach to PBL, with school C giving it rather more prominence than school D.

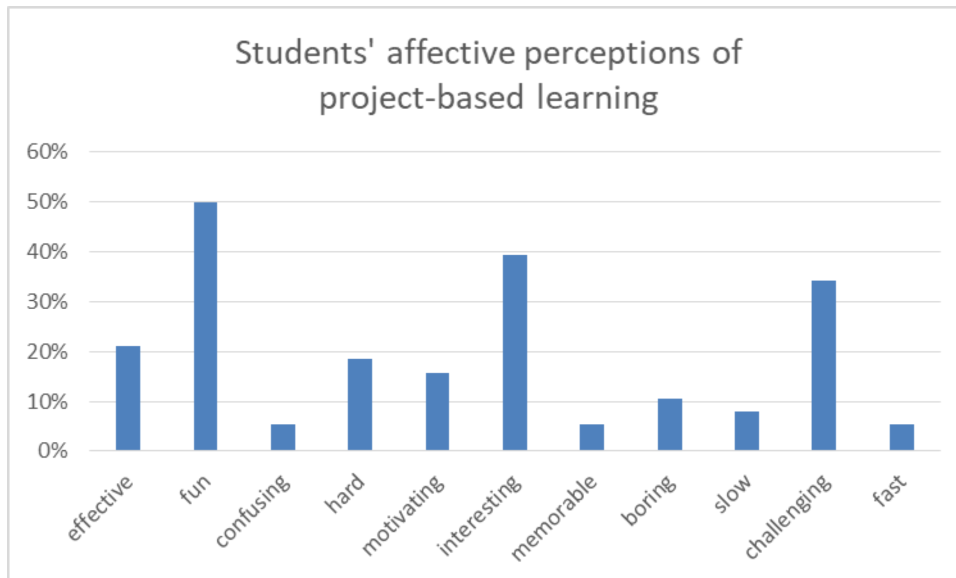
Figure 28: School B Students' perceptions of key project elements



Nevertheless, the student and teacher interview data from both schools suggest that the aspect of the project-based and task-based ways of working which was pivotal to raising students' motivation and increasing their sense of success was the freedom to work at their own pace. This is a recurring theme in the data from this case study, but is also supported by findings in case study 1.

The questionnaire data suggest that a significant number of students found the projects fun and interesting, but also challenging:

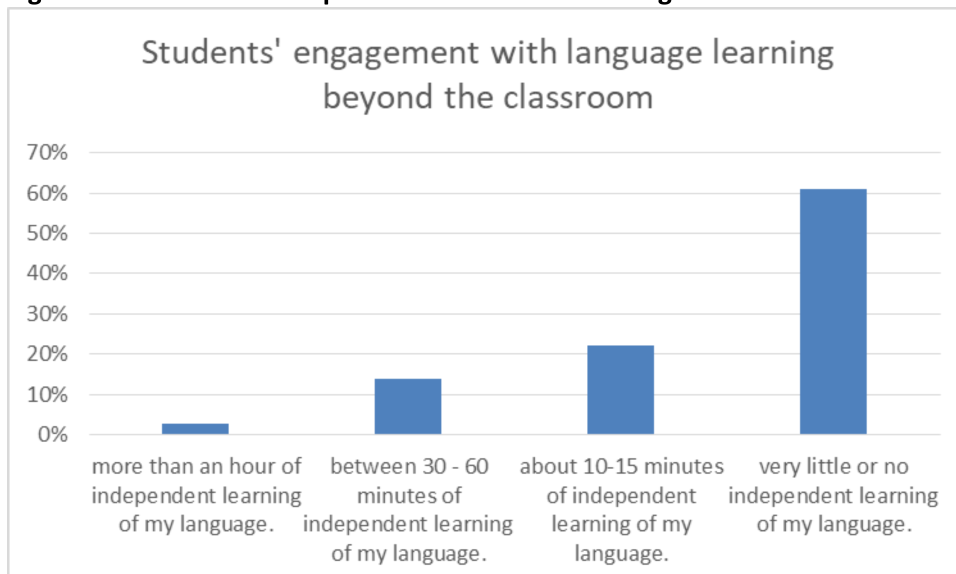
Figure 29: School B Students' affective perceptions of project-based learning



School as basecamp

In all previous studies of Language Futures, out-of-class learning has been significantly under-developed. Predictably, perhaps, a majority of learners in this LF cohort reported doing very little or no independent learning beyond the classroom:

Figure 30: School B Time spent on out-of-class learning



Both LF teachers' reflections corroborate this. Learning beyond the classroom was cited as the least developed aspect of Language Futures, notwithstanding the total absence of mentors from school C. Whilst they were one or two individual students who did choose to do more, these were exceptions.

Community of learning

Surrounding learners with multiple layers of support for, and interest in, their language learning is a core feature of LF. The support is seen to come from parents, mentor, the LF teacher and peer learning. In this case study, nothing could be taken for granted in this respect. LF teachers reported their struggle to get parents involved in LF. In school C the LF teacher attributed the generally low student expectations to a pattern of low parental expectations:

"I think in general it's considered by quite a few parents around here to be like 'oh well, you do it but who cares' and consistently the comment at parents' evening, I'm sure you've had this too, is always 'oo you can order the coffees when we're in Spain' as if that's the only reason you would ever learn a language…the concept of it being like a) a good subject for your CV and b) being a good subject for your job prospects regardless of the job pretty much, is just completely unknown not just to kids but to parents".

School D's teacher points to a more positive level of support from parents, generally, but low interest in language learning:

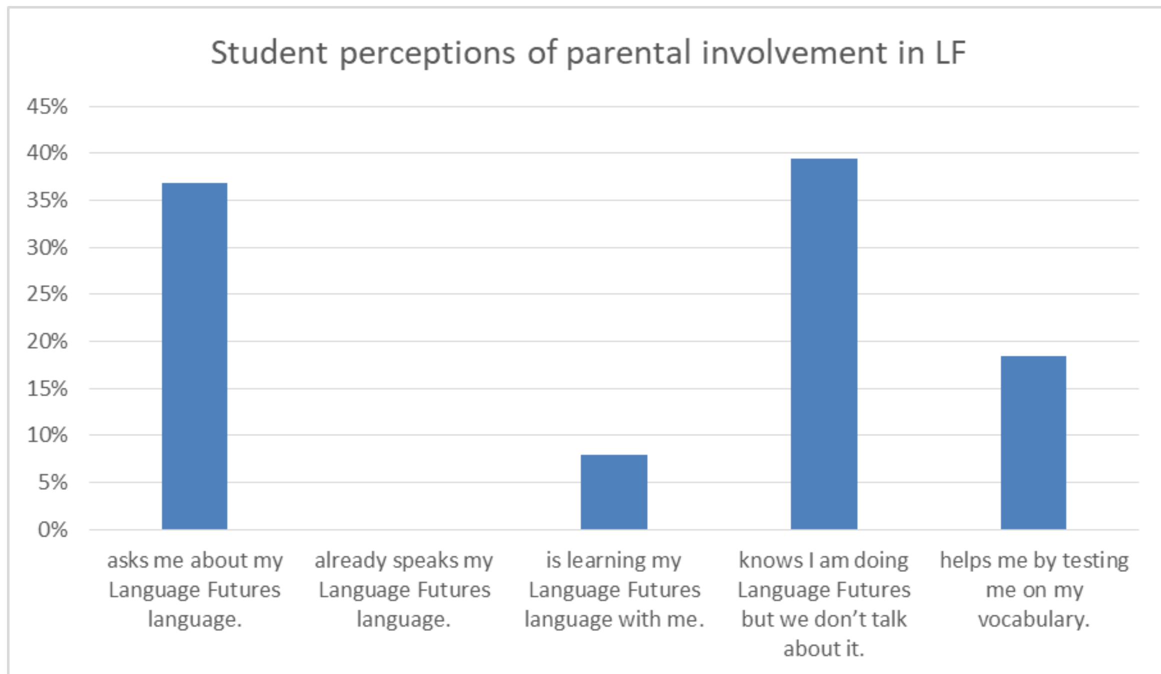
"Parental involvement er…well I'm afraid for languages it's very mixed I mean parents are generally supportive but of all other subjects before, sadly."

Despite these limitations, there were some signs that parents were positive about LF, that they showed some interest, and even in a few cases showed active support for learning. In school C, one positive turning point was a parents evening, at which the LF teacher was able to tell parents in person about the aims of the programme. She mentioned that parents were particularly on board with the cross-curricular elements:

"when I've chatted to parents on parents evening and I've said the importance of the different kinds of projects we do, the skills they're using, you know we did a planning a trip abroad, and the parents loved that one, because the kids couldn't believe like is that how much it costs, and you know just that awareness of like what's a visa do you need a visa I know what a visa is it's what you pay your credit card with no it's not just that you know that kind of thing you know their worldliness has hopefully increased, so yeah."

Student questionnaire data suggest that more than a third of parents showed interest by asking their children about LF, whilst a few did actively support with learning.

Figure 31: School C and D Parental involvement in LF



This pattern of involvement is confirmed in the student interview data. Some students talk with their parents about LF:

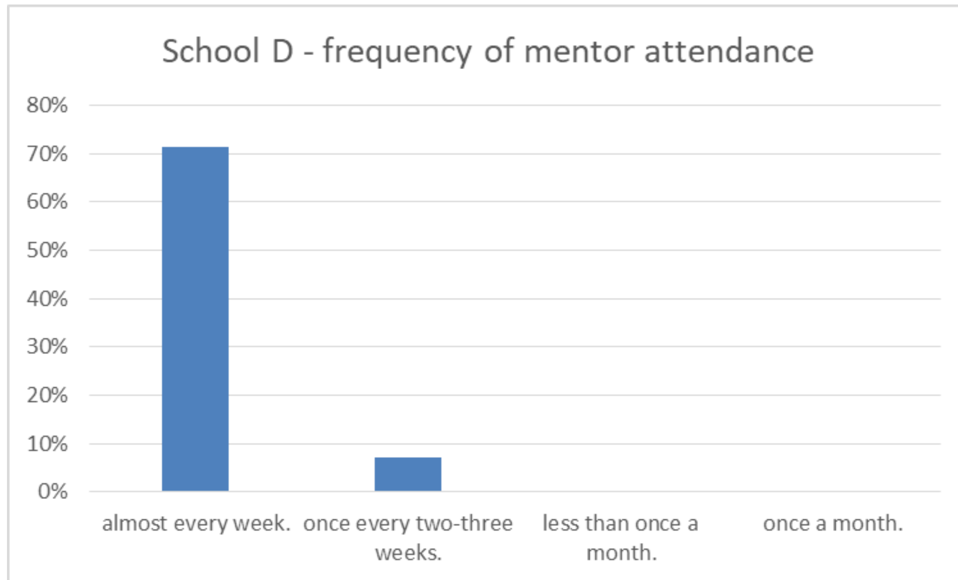
Interviewer: Do you talk to her about it?
Student: Yeah, sometimes, I ask her there's no point me asking her anything she ain't gonna know anything about Japanese but like I tell her things and she finds it quite interesting

In school C, the project to research a recipe and prepare a dish from the target language country was particularly useful for generating interest from parents. In addition, student interview data also reveal individual cases where parents were a little more actively involved:

Interviewer: Let's talk about outside lesson time, er… what do you do to learn your language outside of lesson time?
Student: Well my mum and her partner at the minute quite often go to Spain so sometimes they will sit down with me and talk about it and see if I can teach them some sorts of bits and we go through it together and we bring my book home and talk about the new things I learn in the day.

In order to explore the impact of mentoring, the data from school C and D were separated out, as only school D had community mentors. Figure 32 below shows that students felt they had a high level of mentor support, with around three quarters of students reporting weekly mentor attendance.

Figure 32: School D Student perceptions of mentor attendance



In terms of how they felt most supported by their mentor, the majority of students highlighted speaking and pronunciation as key areas. The majority of students also felt they learnt more when their mentor was with them.

Figure 33: School D Student perceptions of mentor support

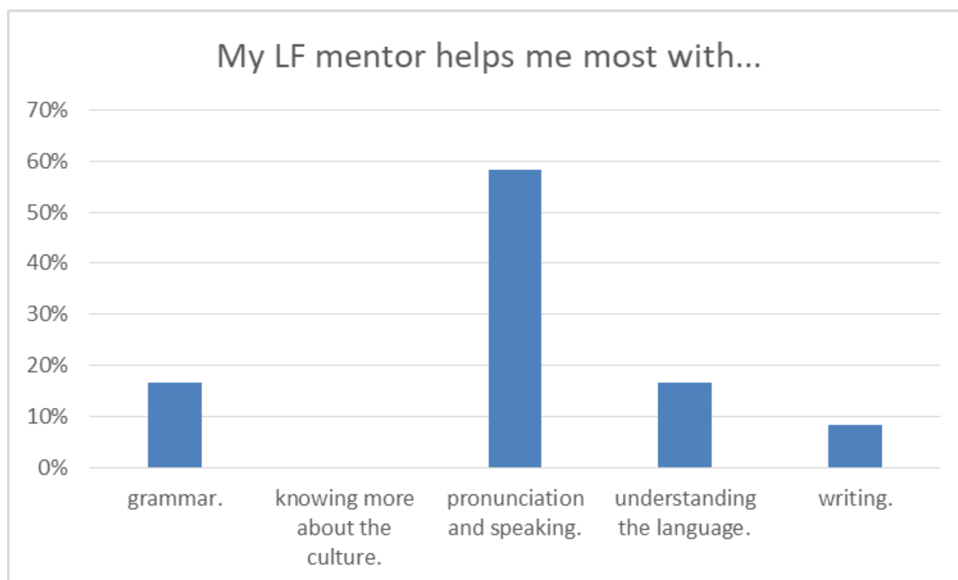
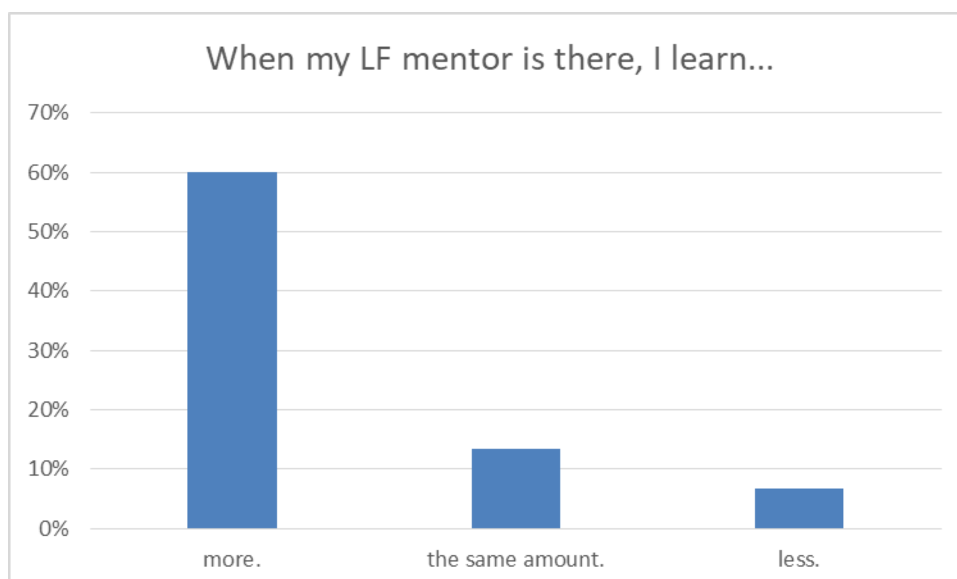


Figure 34: School D Student perceptions of own learning with mentor support



6.5 Conclusion

The overall findings of this case study present a model of LF in which several of its key features are under-developed, namely school as basecamp (both schools), project-based learning and autonomy (school D), and key components of building a learning community, including parental engagement (both schools) and mentoring (school C). Nevertheless, students display a much more positive orientation towards their learning, including their language-specific learning, as a result of their LF experiences than they have towards their language learning in a conventional classroom. The main contributing factors are: the choice of language, the freedom to learn at their own pace, the open-ended learning implicit in projects and tasks, and in school D, the support of mentors. Freed up from the pressure (and associated anxiety) of learning specific language content at a set rate of progress, students show that they are capable of modest growth in linguistic competence over time, that they are more confident in their learning, and predictably, that they enjoy it more.
With the current government expectation that 90% students nationally continue with a foreign language to GCSE, this case study raises several questions.

First, to meet the government expectations, the cohort of students continuing with languages at KS4 will need to diversify across the ability range. It would almost certainly include a proportion of the learners within this study. It is clear that these learners have had significant difficulties with their KS3 learning prior to taking part in Language Futures. It is also clear that positive learning experiences are vital for creating and maintaining the motivation needed to sustain language learning through KS3 and KS4. It would seem useful to ask, therefore, whether it would be possible to increase student engagement in language learning at KS3 by applying any of the findings from this case study to the mainstream languages classroom. This question is explored fully in the final chapter of the report.

With this question in mind, though, it is interesting to take account of the range of different students' responses within this case study, when asked whether they would like to do GCSE. Some students were still a little doubtful about their abilities. For example:
"It's a maybe coz at this time I can't really remember how to speak a language but maybe in the future I could probably remember and get the words stuck in my head."

Another student indicates the change in her view, after her participation in Language Futures:

Interviewer: Do you think at some point you'd like to study for GCSE or anything like that?
Student: Well, I was thinking about it, I do have a lot of options but I haven't really decided which ones yet. I think I'm going to choose my main ones first that I want to take as a job, but I really am looking for doing Spanish, I did at first say that I wasn't really too sure about doing it, but now I think I feel that I want to do it because I feel like I've gotten really good at the language that I want to keep doing something that I'm good at and enjoy.

This student perception is more remarkable, when we consider that these students were already aware that they would not be actively encouraged to take a language at KS4. She was not the only student who began to re-consider her option choices. One of the school D mentors refers to the experiences of another student:

"it's just a bit sad that this is someone who's got some enthusiasm for language learning which is not something that he would have thought of doing before and obviously not something he was brilliant at beforehand and the only other option available to him as his next step is to do GCSE which would be more formal and more assessed, and I just think he'll find it difficult, and then I also think what that will mean he'll lose a lot of the enthusiasm that he kind of built up this year, and I just think, that's just a bit, that's just a bit sad really."

In addition to the evidence of the affective impact of LF on the students in this case study, this comment also raises the concern of teachers and mentors that GCSE may undermine the positivity and motivation that they have seen develop as a result of LF. This raises a second important question as to why it is not possible to value other forms of language qualification in this country. There is a widespread view that GCSE does not ideally meet the learning needs of all learners. The findings in this study add further weight to the argument for re-instating the value of alternative language qualifications.

An appropriate next step would surely be to explore the ways in which the factors of positive impact identified in this study might be adapted for the mainstream languages classroom, and to continue to push for the most appropriate ways in which almost all learners could gain from studying a foreign language at KS4.

Chapter 7: Case Study 4
Language Futures as extra-curricular language learning programme

Four schools associated with this research study implemented Language Futures as an extra-curricular language learning programme. Three of the schools provided data from student and teacher questionnaires (identified for the purposes of this study as E, F, G), three of the four schools were visited (schools F, G, H) where sessions were observed, and in one school (H), the LF teacher, one mentor and one student were interviewed.

7.1 The schools

All schools in this model (E, F, G, H) are mixed gender secondary academies in the East of England. Rated either 'good' or 'outstanding' in their last Ofsted inspections, three of the schools are located rurally and have lower than average proportion of pupil premium students (pupil premium being additional funding for students known to be eligible for free school meals, those in local authority care and those with a parent in the armed services). The proportion of students who represent minority ethnic groups and also those who speak English as an additional language are lower than the national average in two of the schools (E, F), but a little above average in another (G), and the fourth school (H), which is located in a city, has a higher than average proportion of EAL students, and a significantly higher than average proportion of PP students. The proportion of students who need additional support with their learning; those at school action plus and those with a statement of special educational needs is approximately the same as the national average in all four schools.

7.2 The Language Futures model

In all four schools the model of Language Futures is an optional extra-curriculum model constituting a weekly one-hourly learning session. The model is open to students from ages 11 – 16 (Years 7 – 11) but predominantly draws participants from Years 8 – 10. All student participants were, at the time of the study, also learning languages within the curriculum, with the exception of one student from school H, who had arrived at the school from South Africa in Year 9 and it was felt to be unrealistic for her to pick up a curriculum language at this stage.
In terms of its design, this model of Language Futures sought to include all five core features of the approach, as described below:

Student choice and agency

In this model, all students choose the language they want to study. Following the long-established in-curriculum model in case study 1, the schools commit to allowing students to learn the language of their choice, as long as there are at least two students who want to study it, and as long as a mentor for that language can be found. At the time of this study, the languages that had been chosen and were being studied were Afrikaans, Mandarin Chinese, French, Italian, German, Japanese, Latin, Polish and Spanish. In total, at the time of this study, there were 43 students following this LF model across the four schools.
In terms of choices of what and how to learn, students started with a project entitled The Block (see appendix). The idea was to frame the learning of essential vocabulary and grammatical structures within an open, imaginative project which would allow for overall cohesion across and between languages, as well as facilitating the development of learner autonomy through self-direction in terms of resources to use, how to record, practise and retain the new language.

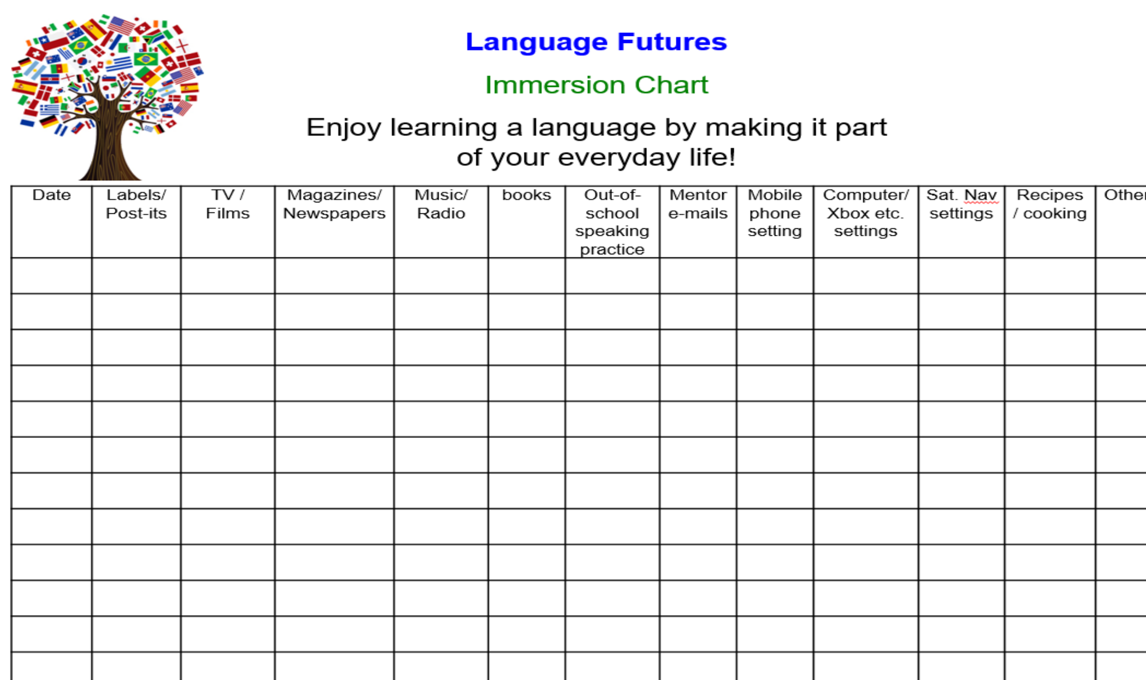
Teacher as designer and facilitator

During the LF lessons the teachers' role was to support learning and guide students with their use of resources. In addition, the teacher provided the initial framework for the learning, presenting and then reminding students of the task parameters, periodically setting up a series of questions for students to research and answer about their own target languages. Predictably, the teachers were not knowledgeable in every language, but as linguists their role was to help students to navigate and interpret what they found in books and online.

School as basecamp

On one level, as participation in this model of LF was entirely optional, all participants were already demonstrating a high level of engagement in language learning. In addition, students were given an out-of-class immersion chart, and encouraged to take their learning beyond the classroom (Figure 35, below). The study therefore explored the extent to which LF students in this model engaged further in out-of-class learning.

Figure 35: Language Futures immersion chart



Language Futures

Immersion Chart

Enjoy learning a language by making it part of your everyday life!

Date	Labels/ Post-its	TV / Films	Magazines/ Newspapers	Music/ Radio	books	Out-of-school speaking practice	Mentor e-mails	Mobile phone setting	Computer/ Xbox etc. settings	Sat. Nav settings	Recipes / cooking	Other

Project-based learning

In the LF sessions, the over-arching framework was project-based learning. Through teacher and student interview, teacher and student questionnaires this study probed the impact of project-based learning on student motivation, knowledge and skill development and overall progress, the analysis revealing both positive outcomes and some limiting factors.

Building a learning community

Affective support and linguistic scaffolding are key components of the LF classroom. Previous models of the project provide evidence that peer support fulfils several important functions. Language expert adult mentors from the community have also proven essential to the success of previous schools' versions of the programme. The main study aimed to extend our understanding of the

impact of both sources of support (peer and mentor). In all schools in the project, mentors were either adult members of the local community or teachers and teaching assistants from the school community. They were both native and non-native speakers of the different languages. They were recruited, trained and supported in their role by the LF teacher. The impact of peers, adult mentors, the LF teachers and co-ordinator and that of parents and siblings on students' learning is evaluated in the analysis that follows.

7.3 The participants

The learners

At the time of the main data collection for this study there were 43 student participants across the four schools. The majority of students were aged 12 – 14, but there were a few 11 and 15-year old students, too. As mentioned, background data, student and teacher questionnaire data were collected for schools E, F, and G, whilst lesson observation took place in schools F, G, and H, and teacher and student interviews were conducted in school H. Predictably, for a completely optional programme, students tended to be relatively able, although this was by no means universally the case. A few, lower-attaining students were sufficiently motivated to learn a new language that they committed to the after-school programme. One or two learners had some heritage background knowledge of their LF language, including some literacy, and whilst the vast majority were absolute beginners, there were also just a couple of students who had chosen to do LF in their curriculum language, in order to improve it.

The teachers

The Language Futures teachers were full-time teachers in their schools who gave up their time voluntarily to lead the programme in their schools. This represents a high level of commitment, given the demands on teachers' time, particularly at this time of unprecedented change in curricula and assessments across KS3, KS4 and KS5.

The mentors

It is a pre-requisite of this LF model that there are mentors for each language being learnt. Whilst mentor attendance varies according to individual mentor commitment and availability, on average mentors attended lessons at least once every two to three weeks to work with students. In many cases, mentors attended more frequently than this, in some cases, every week. The impact of mentors on learner progress and motivation are a focus for this study and presented in the findings below.

The parents

Language Futures aims to harness parents' knowledge of their child and their skills to support their child's language learning at home. In school H there was a meeting with parents to explain the LF programme's aims and expectations of the students' learning. In the remaining three schools, communication with parents was by email.

LanguageFutures

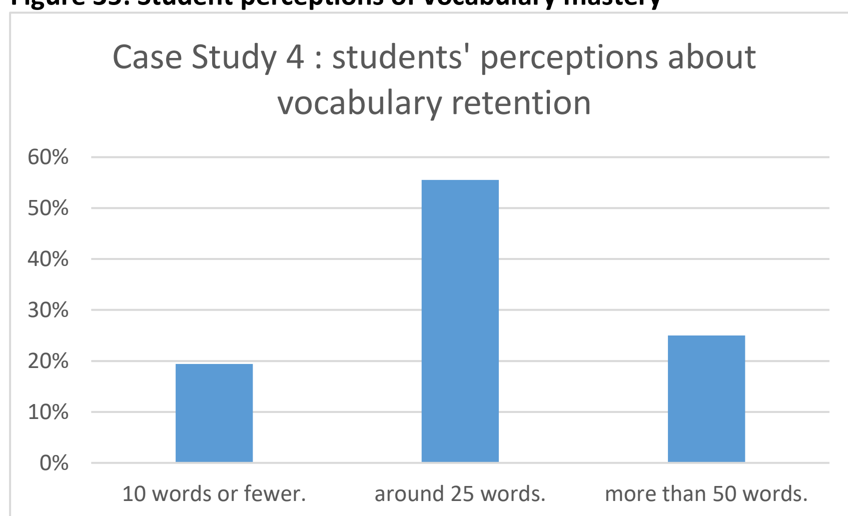
7.4 Analysis and findings

The analysis and findings in this chapter are organised around the three overarching research questions, drawing on thematic analysis of all of the data sources. Driven by the pattern of data itself, I focus first on linguistic progress and then integrate the comparison of LF and conventional classroom teaching with the analysis of the range of factors that impacts on the LF approach.

7.4.1 Linguistic progress

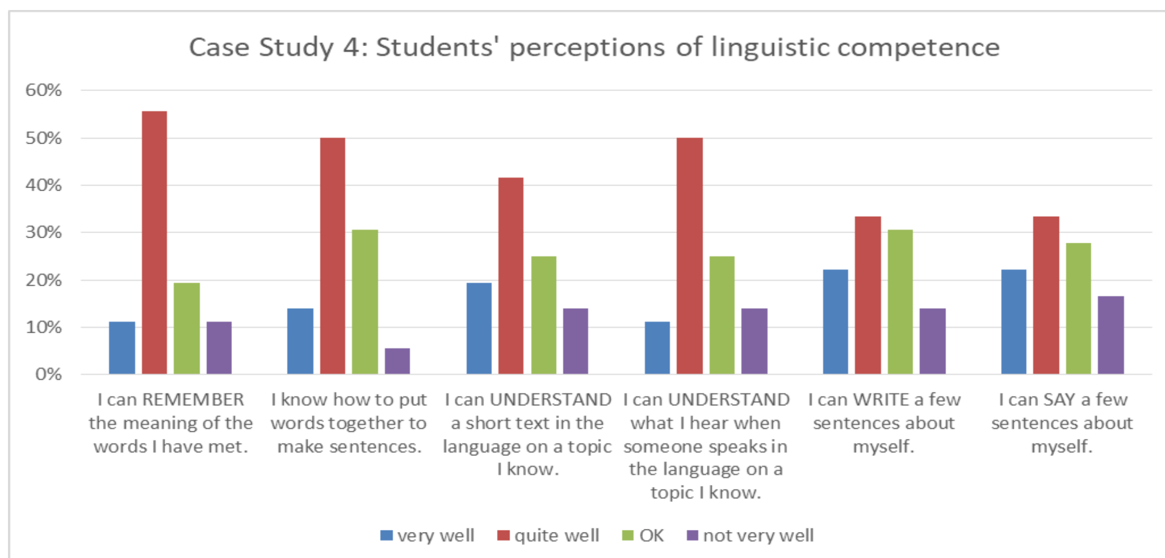
Within this extra-curricular LF model there was no formal assessment. Therefore, all data relating to linguistic progress were student self-report data, teacher and mentor perception data through interviews and observation data.
The student questionnaire responses, which included schools E, F and G, were completed approximately four months into the course. At this stage, the majority of students considered that they had mastered a productive repertoire of around 25 words, with a quarter estimating a vocabulary of more than 50, and a fifth fewer than 10 words.

Figure 35: Student perceptions of vocabulary mastery



These data are broadly comparable with, and in fact slightly ahead of, the data from case study 1. This is noteworthy given the substantially greater contact learning time for students in that study. It is also interesting to compare students' perceptions of confidence across the four skills, with those of case study 1. Not only are the overall positive responses (very well / quite well) higher for each of the items for learners in the extra-curricular model, there is a more even spread of confidence across the four skills and grammar than for case study 1 participants.

Figure 36: Students' perceptions of their competence in the four skills



We must, however, be tentative when drawing such comparisons and not forget that there were a few students who had prior learning of their LF language from curriculum time.

Whilst, broadly speaking, student self-report data present a positive sense of progress within this model, interview and observation data offer greater definition to the picture of learning. Group size attrition was a feature of this model and clearly, where students' attendance at the after-school sessions was patchy or even ceased altogether, linguistic progress was limited. Reasons were varied, but usually a result either of a conflict of interest with another extra-curricular activity, a school-based compulsory intervention in another curriculum subject, or diminished interest, probably as a result of perceived lack of success. As one LF teacher explains:
"well we started off with five, and two of them have dropped out, one because she got another commitment on the same night, and one has just stopped coming, and we're not sure why…"

It is the mentor who offers a possible explanation as to why this student stopped attending:
"the one who dropped out and I don't know why wasn't keeping up as well as the others perhaps that's why he dropped out, so for example we just one week when we were learning adjectives we decided it would be a good idea to learn numbers – we did that by playing a simple game where we threw the ball to each other and said the numbers 1 to 20 as we threw the ball and after a couple of weeks of doing that the three students I've got left were very competent to do that completely on their own, whereas the student who dropped out was still really struggling with that after four or five weeks, so."

All schools saw this pattern of reduction in attendance, and when reasons were given they were mostly the conflict with another activity. However, there was a minority of students who simply stopped attending, without giving a reason, and in those cases, it seems fair to assume that they were not experiencing sufficient success in their learning to sustain their interest over the longer term.

For the students who did continue to attend, progress still remains difficult to define. The perceptions of teachers involved in the programme differ quite substantially in this regard. Two of the teachers ultimately felt that students were not progressing as rapidly as they might, with just the programme parameters to structure and guide their learning, and felt that they really needed more of a structure. Another teacher, in spite of the modest progress of students in her group, felt nevertheless that the programme was building a platform for longer-term commitment and

retention of language:

"Well, I believe that with LF they will remember better, with the grammar or the vocabulary, coz they'll be working at their own pace, and with virtually no like language classroom, not working towards an assessment, they learn something specific for fun, they have been taught to learn, than have a teacher tell them what to learn, vocab to assess for, that's it, and it's actually be put in a box and forget about in a few years a few months you know…if they choose their own learning you know they'll remember better coz they choose it."

The mentor who was interviewed also reported positively about progress, going on to give an example:
"the three I've got are all pretty competent and are making really really good progress …So we decided it would be a good idea to learn numbers – we did that by playing a simple game where we threw the ball to each other and said the numbers 1 to 20 as we threw the ball and after a couple of weeks of doing that the three students I've got left were very competent to do that completely on their own."

In terms of vocabulary retention, grammar knowledge, speaking and pronunciation, there were similarly disparate views about progress. What emerged, and will be explored more fully in the next section of findings, is that this difference was best explained not only by the presence or absence of mentors, but also by the approach taken by the individual mentors.

For example, one mentor was proactive in her approach. Her mentoring was akin to small-group teaching, although decisions about what to learn next and how to go about it were taken together with the learners. She acknowledged spending a lot of time preparing for each mentor session. With her support, learners were observed studying grammatical structures carefully and attentively, and they were able to produce sentences. One learner, who, when interviewed has seemed unable to recall any target language words, was observed confidently constructing a sentence to describe what different people in the pictures were wearing. Pronunciation was secure and students were focusing hard to get it right. A similar approach was taken by another mentor, a trainee teacher, who directed the learning, eliciting responses from students, pushing for good pronunciation, and using the target language herself to praise students.

These learners, when working with their mentors, seemed to have no anxiety about speaking in the target language. A Spanish pair of students showed interest in phonics, and one was quick to make a link from encountering a verb form to using it in a short utterance, picking up that 'soy' means 'I am' and saying immediately 'Oh right so can I say 'Soy Darius'?

They are keen to get pronunciation right, and there is a sense of enthusiasm coming from the students, all of whom were very engaged in their learning. In interviews, they speak very positively about their enjoyment of LF, but as mentioned, one student was much more inhibited about speaking:

Interviewer: What are you struggling with?
Student: I'm struggling with how to pronounce it,
Interviewer: You're quite nervous about saying anything in German
Student: Yeah
Interviewer: What's the basis for your nerves? What makes you anxious about saying
Student: I think pronouncing it wrong maybe

Where there were mentors who took this active approach, essentially acting as small-group tutors, there was a definite sense of progress in terms of grammatical knowledge, the ability to form sentences, and to pronounce language accurately. Even retention seemed less of a thorny issue

than it has been seen to be, at least as far as this mentor is concerned:

"but very definitely they understand the vocabulary around the projects we've done so far and they can build on that and use it to go forward from…. where we've learned the vocabulary and built up the vocabulary they can probably retain about 80% of it."

The students were, of course, still very much ab initio learners. The mentor was careful not to overstate the progress they had made:

"although I think if you put them into a German environment and asked them to speak German they would be a bit lost because their vocabulary is very much limited to the projects that we've covered so far"

The interesting thing here is that the main barrier to progress for this mentor was the length of time students had been learning, rather than any factor associated with the structure of the programme itself. This view was not shared by the LF teacher in school F, however, who noted that students were unconfident about stringing together simple sentences and dialogues using the language they had been learning. When the researcher visited this LF class, it happened to be a session where only two mentors (Italian and Spanish) were present. Observing the Italian group, she noted that there was a lot of discussion about vocabulary, including some interesting cultural information, but that the target language input in the discussion was limited to individual words. With the Spanish group, the mentor talked quite a lot in Spanish, and students were clearly able to understand very well, although they tended to answer in English. In addition, these were the two students who were already learning Spanish in curriculum time, so had already had significant exposure to the language in lessons. The other groups, Japanese and Latin were working independently. Whilst the Japanese pair were clearly very interested in animé and seemed to know a fair bit about it, they knew rather less language, and it was difficult to get a clear sense of their linguistic progress.

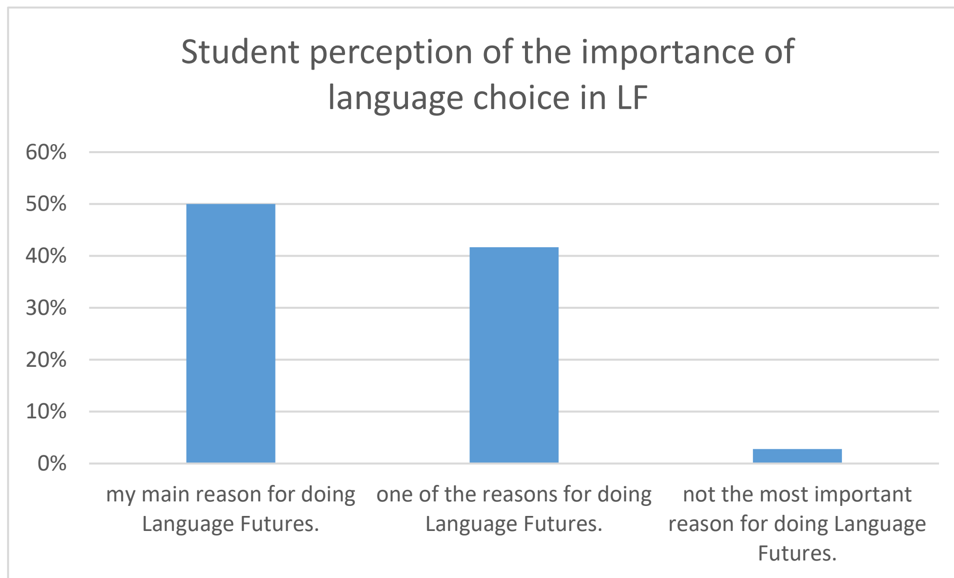
These findings suggest that, in this extra-curricular LF model, higher rates of linguistic progress are associated with a direct approach to mentoring, akin to small group tutoring. Where this is the norm, and students and mentors sustain regular weekly attendance, two principal limitations to linguistic progress, highlighted elsewhere in this study and previous LF research reports, are, to a certain extent, mitigated. In the section that follows, an analysis of the impact of specific elements of the LF approach in this model serves to develop further our understanding of these findings.

7.4.2 Key factors that impact on the LF approach

Choice

All students in this programme not only chose the language they wanted to learn, but significantly, also chose to participate in the programme itself. As one LF teacher put it:
"the motivation to learn a language, which has particularly piqued their interest, is probably what has attracted most participants to the scheme in the first place."

Figure 37: Student perception of the importance of language choice in LF



For the vast majority of learners, the ability to choose the language of study was either one or the main reason for applying to take part in the programme. Students' reasons given for choosing their particular language were varied. Broadly speaking, they fall into three main categories: family, intrinsic interest in the language, country and people, and a more general commitment to improving language learning skills. The table below shows the range of responses:

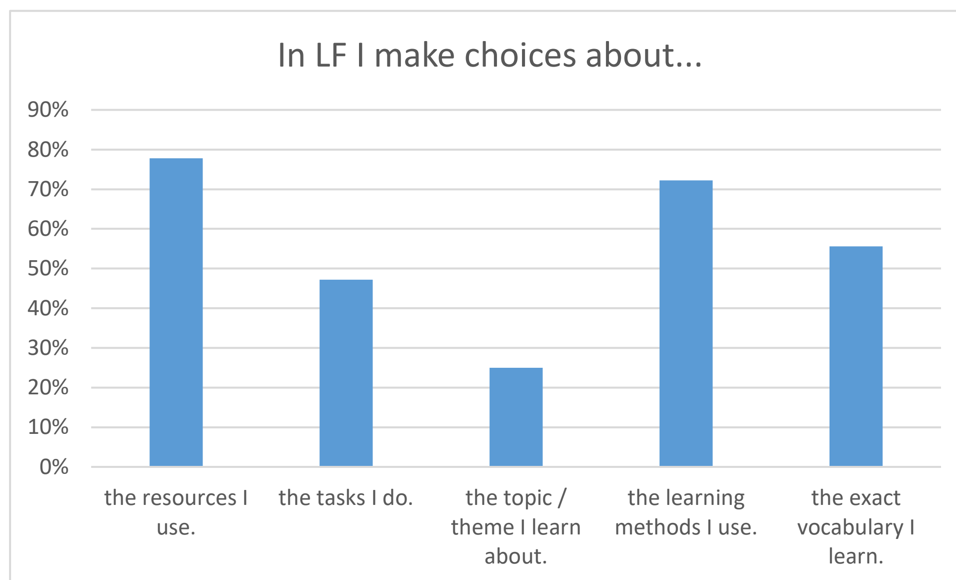
Table 21: Student reasons for choosing their LF language

	Family / friends speak the language	**A love of the language / interest in the country and its people**	**To get a qualification / improve language skills**	**To learn how to learn a language**	**Other**
Sample response	"I have family in that country and I would love to be able to communicate with them better"	"I love the language and I want to study there one day."	"because I wanted to improve my language knowledge and skill."	"To learn how to teach myself a language for future reference."	"To learn a language in a fun environment with my friend." "because it was free."
No. similar responses	9	9	10	3	4
Total responses: 35					

Agency and autonomy

Students in this LF programme reported high levels of freedom with respect to resources and learning methods and less with regard to the choice of exact vocabulary, and tasks and topics. This is consistent with this model of LF, which guides learning with a themed project (see Appendix H).

Figure 38: Student perception of choice in the LF programme



Teachers' perceptions of the impact of these freedoms differed significantly. One LF teacher felt that, without input from mentors or teachers, many students opt to copy out vocabulary or, in his exact words, 'play pretty', rather than do things that would further their language acquisition more reliably. This was attributed to a generally shallow knowledge about language and weak self-directed language learning skills. This view was, at least partly, shared by two of the other three LF teachers, although individual difference was viewed as significant, too, in determining just how well students were able to work autonomously.

The LF teacher in school H was much more robustly positive about the level of student autonomy associated with LF:

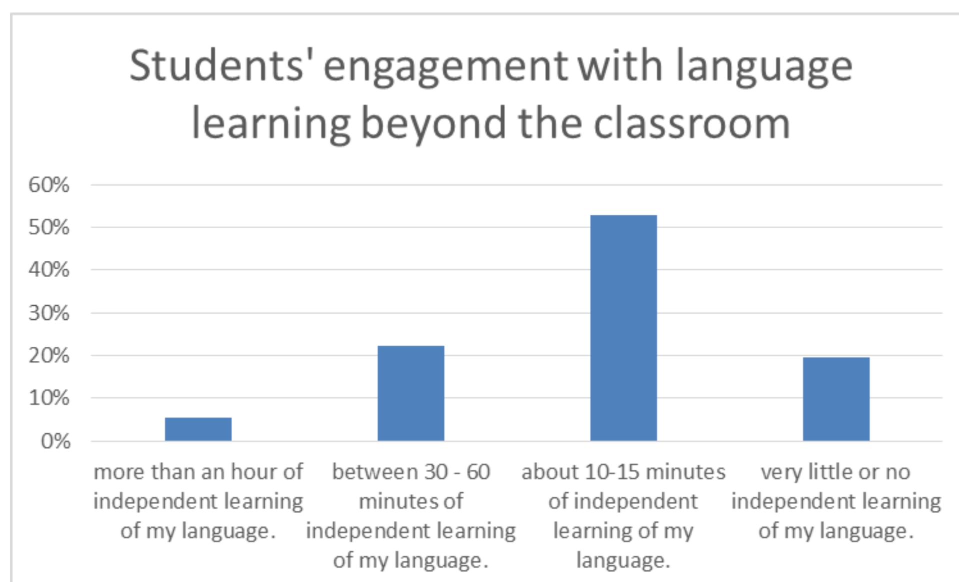
"Well the key as well I think is that they are free to go and work by themselves in groups or in pairs when I say work with themselves, they are actually holding the steering you know of the car, you know, and they are driving themselves you know to this, you know, wherever they're going to go to the project you so we are not you know pushing them and tell them where to go you know they are doing themselves."

This was, however, the school which had, for German and Spanish at least, highly proactive mentors who approached their role as language tutors. Whilst the students were certainly consulted about themes, learning methods and vocabulary choices, they were not required to direct their own learning in the same way as others with less frequent (or non-existent) mentoring were obliged to do. This does rather relativise the strength of the teacher's perceptions about learner autonomy.

School as basecamp

According to self-report student survey data, over half of students spent on average 10-15 minutes per week learning their LF language outside the classroom, and around one fifth spent between 30-60 minutes. A very few claimed to spend more than an hour each week, and at the other end of the spectrum, nearly a fifth of students claimed to spend very little or no time consolidating their learning outside of the classroom.

Figure 39: Student perception of choice in the LF programme



In terms of the activities undertaken, the most popular were: using apps to learn vocabulary, listening to songs and watching YouTube. Overall these responses are remarkably similar to those from case study 1, both in terms of time spent and preferred activities. It is worth remembering, however, that students in this programme have already voluntarily spent one hour each week on language learning just by participating in LF.

One LF teacher was clear that out-of-class learning needed to be absolutely optional as this was an extra-curricular learning project:

"Well you can't make them do homework for the project otherwise they're gonna think oh it's actually a lesson, but we always recommend actually we always tell them would be nice for you to take this home and just to read this to your parents or just revise for the week so you can remember this next week."

On the other hand, she also revealed that the German mentor had given them some homework the week before and that they were quite receptive to it.

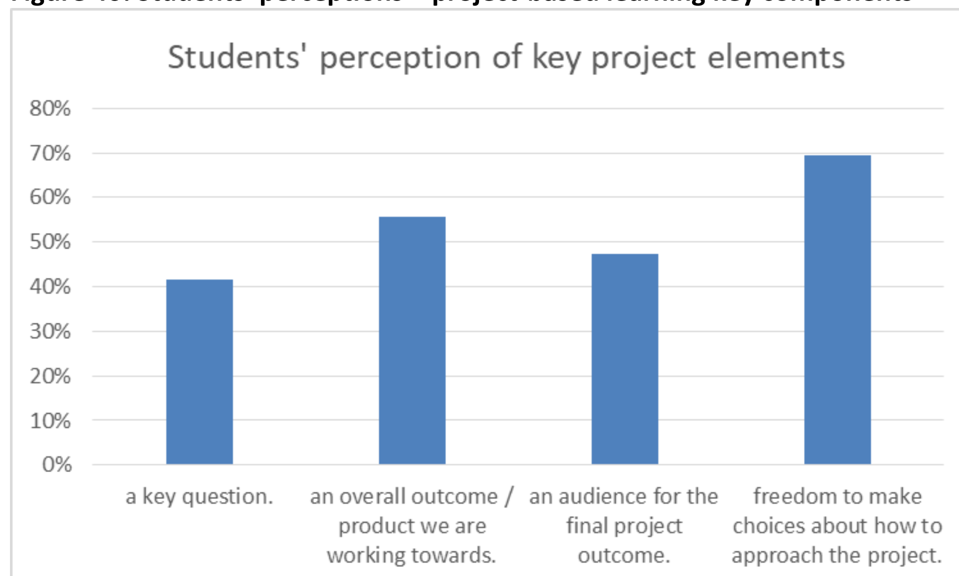
The LF teacher in school F observed that students typically needed to look back through their notebooks to remember what they were trying to do the week before. In addition, he mentioned that some students had been good at researching things in the LF sessions but less good at practising them over the week on their own. Most students in school H said they didn't practise very much outside class, and although in his interview, one student said he practised Spanish for one hour every day, that was not evident from his progress. Self-directed learning beyond the classroom emerges consistently as the most under-developed aspect of Language Futures. The question of

how to resolve this is explored in the discussion chapter that follows.

Project-based learning

The vast majority of students (4/5) involved in this model of LF recognised that their learning involved the opportunity to engage with project-based learning. From the student questionnaire data there was a high level of agreement that their LF project-based learning involved freedom about how to approach the project, although fewer students (approximately half) were convinced that there was a key project question, an overall outcome and an audience for the project outcome.

Figure 40: Students' perceptions – project-based learning key components



Overall, however, students were positive about projects, perceiving them as effective, fun, interesting and challenging, with just a few more negative responses indicating several students found them confusing, slow or boring.

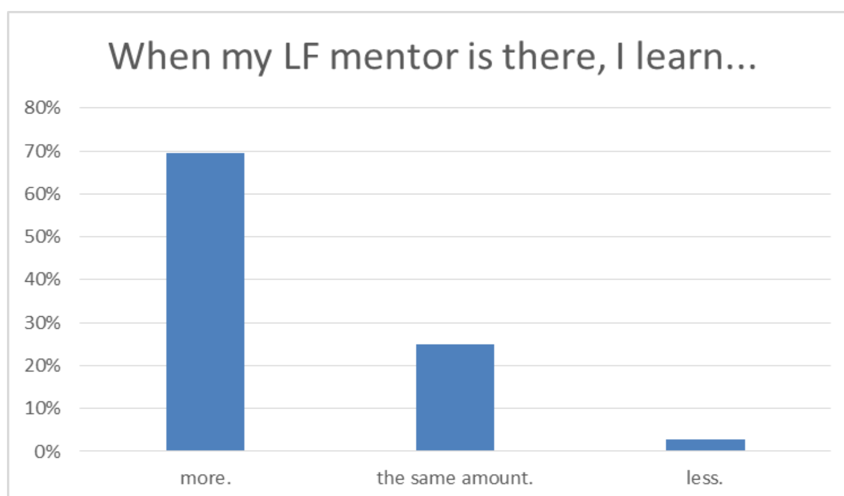
Building a learning community

Within the LF conceptual framework learners are supported by their LF teacher, their peers, a community mentor and their parents. The student questionnaire sought perceptions about the level and impact of support in particular from mentors on their language learning. Teacher and mentor interviews, classroom observation notes and teacher questionnaires were triangulatory sources of data.

Mentors

Mentors are an integral part of the Language Futures programme. As mentioned above, mentors in this programme are volunteers from the local community, or teaching assistants, trainee teachers or even language teachers who are expert linguists in the target languages; they are either native speakers or people who have language expertise due to an extended period of study or time spent abroad. Whilst the co-construction model of LF learning envisages that mentors guide rather than teach, as we have seen, some mentoring within this LF model resembled tutoring. As we have also noted, this approach to mentoring was also associated with higher levels of linguistic progress.

Student questionnaire data support this; nearly half of students felt that their mentors taught them,



as opposed to a fifth who felt guided, and the same proportion who felt they were prompted by mentor questioning. A very small number felt they were told the answers.

Figure 41 (left): Student perceptions of what their LF mentor does to support them

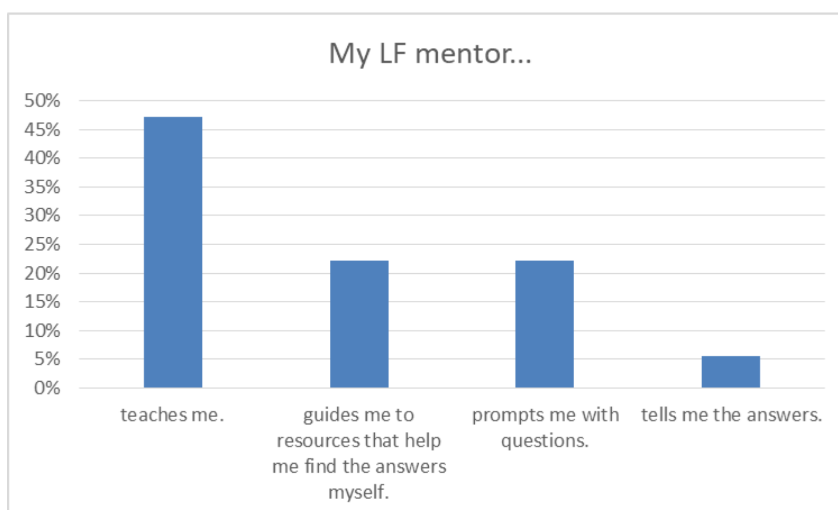
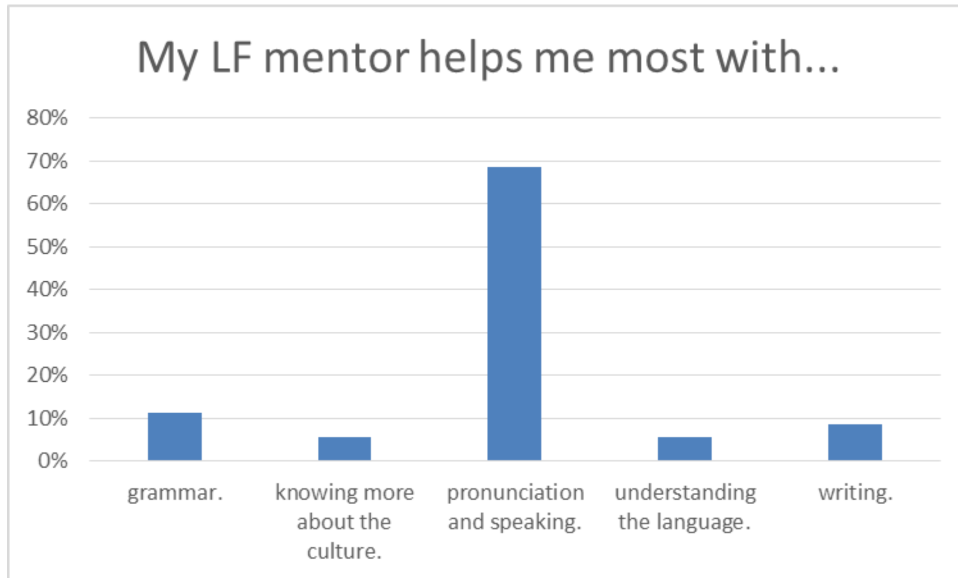


Figure 42 (above) :Student perceptions of learning when LF mentor is present

Interestingly, these student responses correlate with those in case study 1. However, there are not the same indications that there is any mismatch in the level and style of support offered by mentors, and the students' need for support. Nearly three-quarters of students believe they learn more when their mentor is with them, a quarter that they learn the same, and just two students think they learn less.

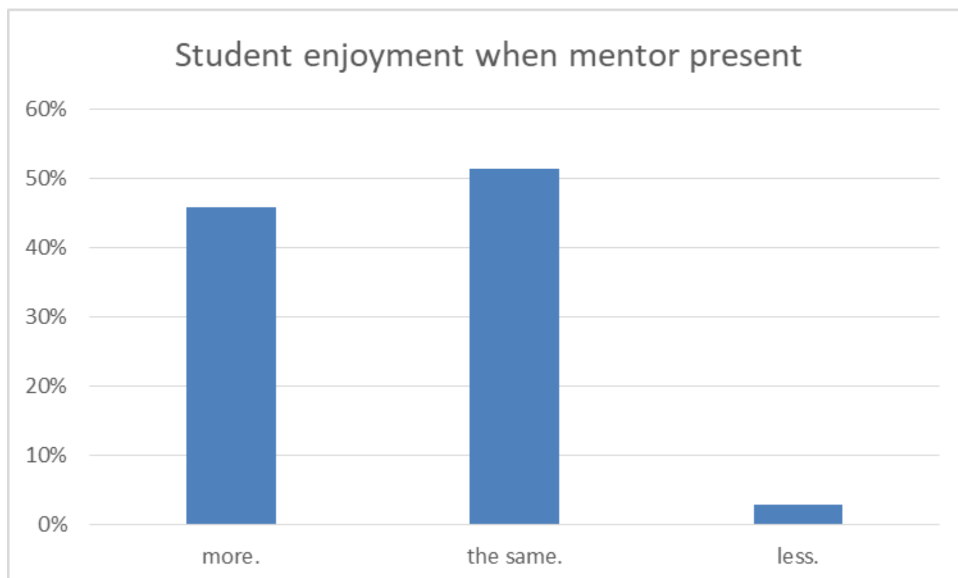
Around three-quarters of students believe that their mentor supports their pronunciation and speaking development. Students were directed to choose only one response in this question, so whilst mentors may also support with other aspects of language learning, students are clear that they gain most from the mentor input on pronunciation and speaking. This is consistent with the LF teacher's view that "community mentors have been particularly useful in pronunciation, modelling language learning skills and clearing up misunderstandings arising in students' independent work."

Figure 43: Student perceptions of LF mentor support



More than half of students enjoy the sessions with mentors more than other LF sessions, and most of the rest enjoys all LF sessions equally, with only two students claiming to enjoy them less when a mentor is there. These responses are more consistently positive than those in case study 1.

Figure 44: Student enjoyment of lessons when LF mentor is present



LanguageFutures

This LF model didn't suggest any instances where the mentor-student relationship might be a barrier to learning because it was excessively didactic. It seems that students were grateful for, and benefitted linguistically from, the personalised language tutoring that they received:

Interviewer: How often do you see your mentor?
Student: Once a week.
Interviewer: I'm getting the impression she gives structure to your learning.
Student: Yes
Interviewer: Is that helpful?
Student: Yes, a lot.
Interviewer: Do you feel free to ask?
Student: Yes, yes, if I'm confused I'll ask her like questions.

In school H, the progress of the students was seen to correlate with the frequency of attendance of the mentors:

"Well, I think they're important if you have proper mentors who actually come in, but we are lucky we have our German mentor who is very committed, who comes every week, she goes with her own resources, with quite er other things you know, and even comes even with food to share with the students, during Christmas time you know, so that they can taste what do they eat during Christmas so we are lucky to have this person, but we would love to have more people I would say committed to LF so er.. I would say yeah in my LF project, the German groups are quicker because they do have German mentor weekly."

This contrasts starkly with the absence of an Italian mentor:

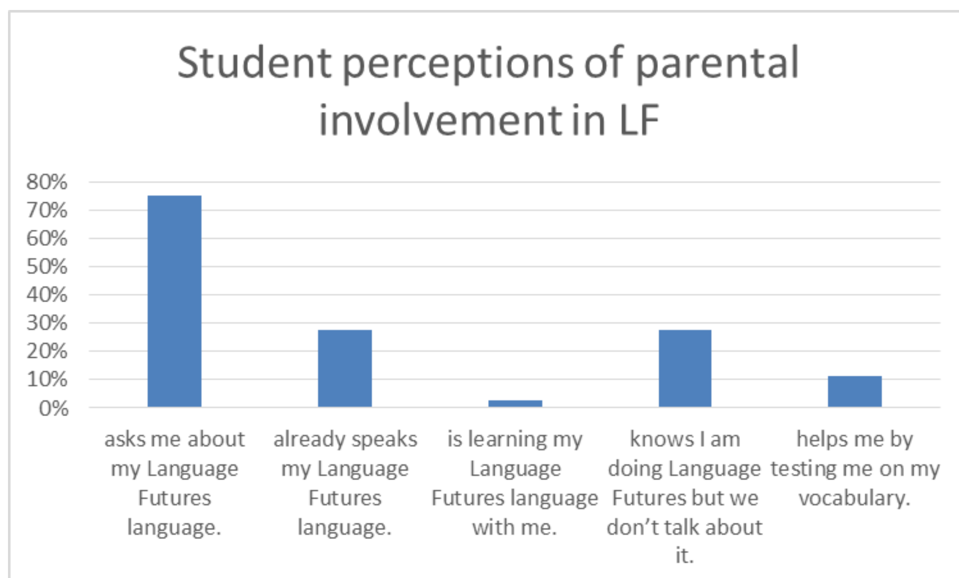
Interviewer: So you haven't got an Italian mentor, how are the Italian children getting on?
LF teacher: I must say not really brilliant because they have been very very good working by themselves and as a language teacher I was supporting them you know in the Italian you know but then having being here and having nobody as a mentor totally to give them a lesson or like teaching them you know, just a bit sad coz I mean the other group had German coming in every Thursday, and but they have nobody and they actually, I was feeling a bit coz they had nobody, so I tried my best to basically be there as the Italian mentor, but sometimes you have to be around everybody just to check they're doing well and if they need anything, they need, you know, but I don't think.. I need to get more Italian as well, pupils, coz I don't think the Italian boys are going to carry on as well you see."

Without a mentor, sustainability was a key issue in school H. The two Italian students decided not to continue, and this, in the teacher's view, was largely because of a lack of mentor in Italian.

Parents

In terms of parental involvement, three-quarters of parents show interest by asking about LF, and around a third of parents already speaks the LF language. These responses compare very favourably with those of students in the other three case studies.

Figure 45: Student perceptions of parental involvement in LF



When asked about the importance of parental support, the LF teacher in school H corroborates the high level of interest suggested by the student survey responses:

LF teacher: It is coz have very positive supportive parents who push those students you know to keep learning this language and ask them what did you learn today, tell me about it, it's just important you know encourage them and feedback to parents to show off what they're learning, I think, having parents who care about this, and who show support to their children you know there I mean those students are quite pleased, because they'll be I can show off to my mum and my dad what I've learned, I'm doing something very important,
Interviewer: Did these parents come to the initial meeting?
LF teacher: They did, yeah, they were very supportive and they did come to the initial meeting where I've met them as well, it's nice to see that as well, coz it's not apparently we may have we could have nobody coming to the meeting, to have people coming is a very good sign already for us.

Data from different sources in the study indicate therefore a high level of parental awareness about and interest in LF.

7.5 Conclusion

This model of LF is offered to students as an extra-curricular activity. Learners choose to learn a language with the support of at least one other student, a community mentor, their LF teacher and their parents. Across four schools a total of 43 students began the programme. However, there was a significant drop-out rate, as we have seen, and in three of the four schools, the project ran for two full terms, but was subsequently discontinued in the summer term, because of low numbers. Those schools have not ruled out a re-launch of the programme, but want to learn lessons from the first year, as it was a pilot programme for all schools.
One clear finding from this case study was that a more overtly didactic pattern of mentoring was associated with observably higher rates of progress, including previously resistant elements such as vocabulary retention, pronunciation and speaking. A related, and predictable, finding is that, where

mentors were more instructive or 'teacherly', students worked less autonomously, but in contrast to findings in case study 1, this did not lead to any diminution of enjoyment on the part of students, who overwhelmingly welcomed the support of their mentors. More research would be needed to determine whether this was purely down to the individual preferences of the students who happened to be in this particular model, or whether the extra-curricular model itself attracts learners who are resolutely more motivated by learning a new language than they are interested in learning in a more autonomous way.

Equally, it was noted that students lacked the language awareness needed to make the most of the learning affordances of LF, and perhaps a more structured, explicit preparation phase to develop the knowledge and skills needed to learn a language independently would not only help to sustain the extra-curricular programme more successfully but would also support students' GCSE outcomes in their curriculum language, as well as genuinely equipping a generation of future linguists with the tools to learn any language.

Chapter 8: Discussion

To discuss the overall implications of this study we begin with a review drawing together the key findings from the four case studies. This study sought to describe the progress of learners engaged in one particular pedagogical innovation, Language Futures, assessing the motivational effects of the approach as a whole, as well as exploring the impact of its key features. The study's context acknowledges the generally low level of motivation for language learning in England (Williams et al., 2002; Mitchell, 2003; Davies, 2004; Coleman et al., 2007; Erler & Macaro, 2011; Taylor & Marsden, 2014; Deckner, 2017) and recognises not only that progress depends on motivation (Ellis, 2008; Dörnyei, 2014) but that younger learners' overall motivation for language learning relates most strongly to their classroom learning experiences (Evans & Fisher, 2009). This makes motivation the most compelling and pervasive theme of the study.

8.1 Progress

In curriculum time, higher attaining students make the average linguistic progress that is expected during the first year of learning a new language. By the end of the year they are able to speak about themselves in sentences, give opinions on a range of topics, and talk about activities they do. They have learnt how to form the present, past and future tenses (European languages only) but are not yet able to use them confidently in unstructured conversations or compose written texts without reference to resources. Lower attaining students predictably make more modest linguistic progress; some acquire individual words and others are able to produce a range of short sentences with support, or exceptionally from memory, by the end of one year. In line with previous research studies, areas for development in linguistic progress with the approach remain long-term retention of language and pronunciation.
The study also found that the learners who had a stated intention to continue studying a language at KS4 believed they had become more autonomous in their learning by participating in LF. Students referred to not relying on the teacher, taking responsibility for what they learn, asking more questions, and wanting to find out more, all of which bodes well for outcomes at KS4. Lower attaining students were, predictably, less able to articulate their independence, but findings suggest strongly that, where the LF approach deliberately targets the development of autonomy, students do increasingly take responsibility for their project work, and that this is associated with greater confidence and enjoyment.

EAL learners of community languages in Language Futures make good to excellent progress, particularly in grammar and writing, which puts them on track to achieve their best GCSE outcome in that language, even when they had low or no prior literacy in the language. The opportunity to develop cultural knowledge of the country of their (or their parents') birth and the prospect of GCSE success are associated with improved self-esteem, a more comfortable sense of identity and a stronger perception of themselves as successful learners.

In the extra-curricular programme, well-motivated language learners make most linguistic progress when their mentors engage in direct tutoring, perhaps because of the limited contact time with LF, compared to in-curriculum models.

8.2 Progress in Language Futures compared with conventional classroom language learning

Students across the three in-curriculum case studies, irrespective of attainment level, associated the opportunities to direct their own learning in LF with an increased interest in learning. The ability to choose their language of study, the freedom to make choices about how to learn and the speed at which they learn, the use of technology and project-based learning, all contribute to enhanced enjoyment and engagement in lessons. Individual differences were evident, however. For some students, the feeling of autonomy was the overriding positive difference between LF and mainstream classroom experiences. For others, the less structured nature of LF learning led to some feelings of frustration, and a sense that progress was slower in LF than in the mainstream languages classroom. As we have established, the freedom within LF did not generally lead to faster linguistic progress. In fact, progress is typically slower when judged by conventional measures. However, as previous LF studies have suggested, the greater self-reliance that higher attaining students develop within LF augurs well for progress at KS4. Exploring the long-term positive impact on GCSE outcomes of an engagement with LF at KS3 would be a useful avenue for further research.
The link between autonomy and motivation was much less apparent in the extra-curricular LF programme, perhaps because their principal motivation was to learn the language; they welcomed the direct teaching approach of some mentors because it helped them to learn more quickly and securely.

As mentioned in the introductory chapter of this report, there is little research that explores the relationship between autonomous language learning and the development of linguistic competence (Reinders & Loewen, 2013). However, In Dam's classroom of autonomous Danish learners of English, learning outcomes in terms of vocabulary, grammar and oral interaction compared very favourably with two notional control groups, who followed a traditional textbook-based curriculum (Dam, 1995; Dam & Legenhausen, 1996; Legenhausen, 2003; Little et al., 2017).

The two studies describe similar learning experiences: student choice in terms of tasks, activities and resources, pair and small group learning, and the expectation that learners take responsibility for keeping a written record of their learning. However, whilst the findings in our study report generally high levels of motivation, overall progress is promising rather than convincing, and vocabulary acquisition, pronunciation and spoken interaction remain under-developed. One key difference is that the classroom teacher used English (the target language) with students at all times, and increasingly expected the students to use it with her. This would not be possible for the LF teacher as there are multiple L2s in the classroom. However, it is worth considering whether the way mentors work with students might benefit from further development, or whether other aspects of the LF model could be re-visited.

8.3 Impact of key features of Language Futures

The importance of classroom experiences to learners' overall motivation has been established. Unfortunately, so too has their predominantly negative impact on UK secondary language learners, for whom they represent high levels of anxiety (Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009), a lack of personal relevance (Taylor & Marsden, 2014), difficulty and boredom (Ofsted, 2015). The findings of this study suggest, that as a whole approach, LF is generally associated with high levels of motivation, and particularly for lower attaining students, generative of higher levels of engagement than the mainstream languages classroom. This study identified the motivational effects of individual key features of the LF approach across the four case studies and I summarise the findings below:

8.3.1 Choice, agency and autonomy

The choice of language is motivating, irrespective of attainment level of learner and of LF model design. Some learners articulated more convincing reasons for their language choice than others, but this had no impact on the strength of commitment to the language. We might conclude that the fact of having chosen the language themselves was a factor in sustaining their engagement. This resonates with other findings that making choices generates a sense of responsibility (Deci & Flaste, 1996) and feeds intrinsic motivation (Little, 2004). The fact that choice of language was universally and significantly motivating suggests that it fulfils a psychological need for self-determination, which is one of the aspects of autonomy (Lamb, 2007). The other aspect, according to Lamb, is taking responsibility for, and managing one's own learning, which is where other aspects of choice are significant, and where autonomy overlaps with agency.
Choice within LF is not confined to the choice of language. The LF approach envisions that learners exercise control over other significant aspects of their learning, which can include topic choice, selection of language within a topic, methods of learning, resources, classroom activities, and follow-up work outside the classroom. The extent to which choice is actively taken up (agency) and develops into managing one's own learning (autonomy) varies significantly according to the design of different models of LF, but ultimately also because of individual student differences. In LF models that prioritised autonomy, students were given significant freedom to organise their own learning. Some higher attaining learners particularly enjoyed this because mainstream classroom learning proceeded too slowly for them, at times. Some lower attaining learners enjoyed this because mainstream classroom learning had previously proceeded too quickly for them, causing them high levels of anxiety. On the other hand, some learners of all abilities and within all models of LF enjoyed a more teacher-directed approach, whether in the languages classroom or from their mentor in the LF classroom, suggesting that they felt more secure about their progress if they were being taught new knowledge. Whether participation in LF programmes is optional or required, it is useful to be able to gauge reliably students' predisposition towards autonomous language learning. The findings of this study indicate that the following attributes are suggestive of a 'readiness' for LF:

- Students explicitly demonstrate an interest in exploring independent ways of learning.
- There is some indication that teacher-led language lessons might be felt to be proceeding too slowly (a 'coasting' effect).
- There is an interest in learning for its own sake, and less importance placed on measuring their own progress in terms of level or grade.
- Students demonstrate an interest in using language for communicating with others.
- Students demonstrate that they are typically resilient in the face of challenge.
- Students are risk-takers, who enjoy any opportunity to work things out for themselves, and are unfazed by making mistakes.
- Students show an awareness that retention involves repeated language use over time, much of which requires a commitment to regular, self-directed out-of-class learning.

On the other hand, whilst individual learner preferences certainly play a role here, it seems that some students, perhaps most, are not able to take up the opportunities for autonomy as well as they might, and that this might account for less than optimum progress. The findings in this study suggest two main reasons for this. First, one LF teacher referred to students' independent working as 'playing pretty', looking things up and writing them down, but not engaging in elaboration and rehearsal tasks that enable long-term retention of new language and eventual communicative use. There was evidence of this in both in-curriculum and extra-curriculum LF models; students were working independently without necessarily demonstrating effective learner autonomy. This may stem from under-developed knowledge about how language works, but also from not being

sufficiently clear about the processes by which we acquire and retain language. With the benefit of additions to the LF programme that specifically equip learners with these skills and knowledge at the start, we may see more consistent progress in terms of language retention, pronunciation and spoken interaction. There may be some students, however, who struggle with this approach and will need more direction from a mentor, acting as tutor, if they are to make good progress. In summary, there are implications for practice relating to both student selection and programme design.

Secondly, the time spent out-of-class volitionally on language learning is insufficient to consolidate and develop the learning from the LF sessions. This is also a progress-limiting factor. We consider the implications of the study's findings in the following section.

8.3.2 School as basecamp

Notwithstanding individual differences, in most LF groups learners invested on average 10-15 minutes per week to language learning activities beyond the classroom, with the exception of the community language model, where all learners typically reported more than an hour of out-of-class learning per week. Most of these learners have the advantage of having regular opportunities for interaction in their LF language with family and friends, making it effortless to integrate into their daily lives, and an exception to the dominant finding in this and previous studies. In all other LF schools, many students reported prioritising homework they had been set in other subjects, and just doing a few minutes on LF now and then. One reason given was that they knew their homework in other subjects would be checked by the teacher.

The finding in this study that students do not voluntarily follow up their class learning in sufficient depth to bring about the changes to their long-term memory which are required for good linguistic progress has now been replicated in nine schools. It is time to re-consider the concept of School as basecamp in the light of this evidence. It seems clear that suggesting ways in which students might immerse or adopting an optional approach to homework, even within the extra-curricular model, is not a reliable way to promote out-of-class learning. Methods matter, but so does context (Lamb, 2007). Expecting secondary students with homework in other subjects and a range of extra-curricular interests to carry out 10 minutes of vocabulary rehearsal daily, and one to two longer tasks of 30 minutes per week, without any adult guidance or monitoring, is surely an unrealistic measure of their engagement. It is not clear from the study that students know that this is what is required for them to make the sort of progress that will develop their motivation and sustain their interest over the longer term. Some higher attaining students expressed a certain disappointment towards the end of the course that they hadn't learnt as much as they had expected. Success is a significant motivator (MFL pedagogy review, 2016) and yet a substantial commitment is required, particularly in the initial stages and after the 'honeymoon' period, to get learning off to a good start. Little and often is obvious and necessary to experienced linguists, but it is not typically the way students approach their learning in other subjects. Students may therefore need more than a little encouragement, including the setting and monitoring of learning by the teacher, to get learning routines established. This is not to suggest that students should not control their learning, just that they may benefit from a stronger steer at the start to boost progress to such a level that success starts to sustain engagement. LF teachers may want to set out-of-class learning, therefore, in terms of what needs to be learnt, but give choices as to how this is managed.

8.3.3 Project-based learning

Project-based learning, in all its forms, is universally enjoyed by students, irrespective of attainment level or LF model, even by those who ultimately reported a general preference for teacher-led

language learning. The aspects of PBL that students enjoy are varied and include: the freedom to work at their own pace, the opportunity to work in pairs or small groups, having a purpose for using the language, learning new cultural knowledge, developing grammatical knowledge and writing skills. The strong motivational effect of using new technologies was also evident in this study, as in many others (Macaro, Handley & Walter, 2012). Some students also reported that project work helped language stick in their heads, although it was not straightforward to find compelling evidence of long-term language retention linked to projects. Whilst previous research studies of language learning had indicated that too much choice may not be beneficial, as students may spend too much time and energy working out what to do, leaving their enthusiasm for actually doing the task depleted (Patall, Cooper & Robinson, 2008, Iyengar & Lepper, 2000), this was not supported by findings in this study. Instead, however, some students did express frustration when they researched some language independently only to be told by their mentor several lessons later that it was incorrect.

8.3.4 Mentors

The mentor-student relationship and its impact on LF language learning emerges as one of the more complex themes in the study. On the one hand, mentors are pivotal to linguistic progress, particularly in pronunciation and speaking. On the other hand, interpersonal relationships are paramount to motivation (Lamb, 2007), and this study's findings suggest that, for mentoring to be successful, the level of support needs to be contingent on students' learning needs. Furthermore, whilst there is no simple recipe for it, clusters of factors have been identified that dispose learners towards more- or less-directed mentor support. Table 23 summarises these findings:

Table 22: Factors that suggest different optimum levels of mentor support

More didactic support	Less didactic support
Learner preference for direct teaching	Learner preference for autonomous learning
LF language is substantially different from previous language(s) learnt and mother tongue	LF language shares similarities with previous language(s) learnt and/or mother tongue
Some prior knowledge	Ab initio learner
Limited online resources, especially for speaking	Plentiful online material, including audio
Low peer group cohesion	High peer group cohesion
Extra-curriculum model	In-curriculum model (in general, but individual differences, as above, are important)
Mentor attends infrequently	Mentor attends very frequently

The main findings concerning the motivational effects of individual key features of the LF approach indicate a complex constellation of inter-dependent factors, some of which may emerge in a potentially inverse relationship. For example, autonomy and mentoring, or choice and School as basecamp. Attempting to coax them into alignment requires an understanding of the learning needs and preferences of each individual student, of the skills and attributes of each mentor, and the inter-relationship between LF teacher, mentor, and pairs or groups of learners.

There is no doubt that Language Futures is, for most students, a very motivating way to learn a language, irrespective of model and cohort. To an extent, all LF models succeed in what they set out to do. Students in the community LF class develop their understanding of grammar, improve their writing and are on track to achieve highly in their GCSE. Cultural knowledge, a more comfortable sense of identity and improved self-esteem are further benefits of that programme. Lower attaining students enjoy their language learning, acquire words and short phrases in a new language, and in one class improve their overall independent learning skills and world knowledge. It is clear that learning behaviours are positively impacted by engagement with the Language Futures programme,

particularly the extent to which learners are resilient, independent and embrace challenge.

Higher attaining students become more autonomous and resourceful learners, and learn more about how to learn a language. And yet, data from this study indicate that participation in LF does not make these higher attaining students any more or less likely to continue with a foreign language at KS4 than if they study a second language in a traditional classroom setting. Moreover, in the extra-curricular model, there is initially a lot of enthusiasm for learning a new language after-school, but participation wanes after two terms.

In the final chapter of this report, we consider the implications of these findings for Language Futures, for further research, for community languages and for the mainstream languages classroom.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

In the previous chapter, we reviewed the overall study findings and explored the extent to which they resonate with recent theories of motivation for language learning in the secondary foreign languages classroom. Given the overarching purpose of the study to assess the motivational effects on learning of one particular pedagogical innovation, Language Futures, it is important to reflect on the contribution the study has made to our understanding of LF, as well as any implications of the study for the LF approach itself, for further research, and importantly, for the mainstream secondary languages classroom.

9.1 Implications for Language Futures

This substantial research study has mined the 'nuggets of gold' tentatively identified in the 2011 LF study (Hawkes, 2011). Choice and agency in a variety of LF learning contexts are associated with high levels of language learning motivation. Findings strongly suggest that the reasons for this include the psychological need for autonomy more generally, and the importance of being able to control the pace of one's learning, to avoid anxiety or frustration. Project-based learning sustains and builds motivation through the course, and underpins the elements of choice and agency.

Linguistic progress is variable across different models, but it is also different in nature from progress in the mainstream classroom. LF students in the most well-established in-curriculum models become more autonomous and resourceful, which may potentially lay the foundations for greater success at KS4. However, if the LF approach is to do more than touch the surface of learning a new language, then the question we need to answer is how linguistic progress can be more consistent and substantial for all groups of learners and within all models. Findings suggest that even in the most well-established models of LF, there is room for development in terms of linguistic progress, particularly as regards retention of language over time, application and transfer of linguistic structures, and speaking skills.
There seem to be several possible ways forward. One seems to be to get mentoring right, as where the level of mentor support matches the needs of the learner, linguistic progress is most convincing. This is a complex area but this study has generated significant evidence to start the conversation.

Another important strand to consider is the selection or recruitment of students, and linked to this, the initial preparation and subsequent support for the development of language learner autonomy. Findings from the study have generated some guidance that informs the selection of students for the course, going forward. Further thought is needed to explore how to prepare learners better to take up the learning affordances of LF. Finally, it is important to re-think School as basecamp and consider how to balance the psychological need for students to experience sufficient progress with LF's philosophical ethos of volitional learning. This study's clear findings on this element of language futures prompt us to consider re-thinking our understanding of how to operationalise School as basecamp.

9.2 Implications for further research

As with any inquiry, there are limitations to its scope and its findings, some of which lead inevitably to further questions and the basis for further research. This study sought to understand the learning affordances and motivational effects of the Language Futures approach, and in so doing, contribute

to a broader body of research examining the motivational effects of language teaching. The areas for further research suggested here apply in part to Language Futures specifically, in part to language teaching motivation research more generally.

First, starting from the finding that the LF students who chose to continue with a language now believe themselves to be more independent and resourceful language learners, as a result of taking part in the programme, it would seem important to explore the longer-term impact on subsequent language learning and GCSE outcomes of learners who have previously engaged with the LF approach at KS3, either in-curriculum time or as part of an extra-curricular model.
Secondly, mindful of the importance of mentoring, but given the complex and somewhat variable findings in this study about its impact on language learning, it seems that mentoring represents a significant avenue for further study.

In addition, having identified the overwhelmingly positive association of choice and motivation, it would be interesting to see some intervention studies in the mainstream languages classroom, which add clarity to the motivational benefits of specific aspects of choice.

Studies to implement interventions to promote out-of-class learning and measure its impact on linguistic progress and motivation for language learning are equally important, both for LF but also for classroom language learning at KS3 and KS4.

Finally, one tentative indication in this study is that the seed sown in LF may be associated with a long-term motivation for language learning, which is not necessarily a desire to master one particular language, but an interest in learning multiple languages. This picks up on an observation from the literature review about the extent to which the central paradigm of foreign language learning, at least within Second Language Acquisition research, with its goal of native-speaker-like fluency, implicates failure (and therefore, demotivation) from the outset. The researcher (Ushioda, 2017) wonders whether radically different, and eminently more positive, motivational trajectories for learners might result, were the prevailing paradigm to shift to multilingualism, with its emphasis on a more holistic view of learners as communicators through a variety of linguistic codes. The current appetite for rigour does not allow us to do more than speculate about this, as the current one size fits all GCSE in a single language is predicated on the prevailing native-speaker paradigm. However, were there to be another window for alternatives to GCSE at some point in the future, the prospect of using multilingualism as a starting point would be an exciting proposition.

9.3 Implications for heritage languages in schools

In England, one in five young people has a first language other than English (Ward, 2014) but only around a third take a qualification in their mother tongue. In part this is because their skills go unrecognised by the exam system, which now accredits only a handful of community languages. Official recognition of language expertise through national examination is felt by many to be a crucial next step if England is serious about developing its multilinguistic capital. Where qualifications do already exist in community languages, quite a number of schools given their students the opportunity to take them, but they do not provide tuition in them (Tinsley & Board, 2017). This innovative LF model is therefore a valuable contribution to the community language agenda.
There seem to be several further reasons why encouraging students to maintain and develop their community language proficiency should be supported in schools: firstly, a recognition of the intrinsic

value of language learning and maintenance and secondly a greater acceptance that first language development is supportive of second language development (Cummins, 1980). As previously noted, there is both theoretical and empirical support for the notion that L1 or community language development can support L2 (in this case, English) language development, which may strengthen the overall outcomes for students at secondary level.

This study provides further empirical support for the benefits of teaching community languages in schools:

1. Progress and attainment

For most of the LF students, the predicted LF grade is above, or significantly above their average predicted grade for their remaining GCSE subjects. The impact of receiving positive attainment data in one subject, in this case the LF language, may be associated with higher levels of motivation, both for L2 learning in particular, and school learning more generally.
Interview data reveal three particular areas of linguistic progress that students, mentors and teacher all believed showed development in LF: grammar, vocabulary and written accuracy. It is clear that the opportunities for formal language learning in this LF model allow community speakers to connect the different strands of their community or home language competence more securely, by a more overt study of the language system, enabling them to achieve more highly in their community language GCSE.

2. Identity, culture and self-esteem

Students in the community LF programme display strong associations between language and identity. The opportunity that LF provides for students to find out more about the country of their (or their parents') birth is significant, and students themselves recognised that they were learning significant cultural knowledge.

3. Language mentors

It was particularly helpful for students to have a sixth-form Polish mentor who had, like most of them, moved to England at some point during his late primary or early secondary education, had had to acquire English through immersion and had decided to maintain and develop his Polish, having overcome a period of disaffection for his mother tongue.

9.4 Implications for the mainstream languages classroom

The findings of this study resonate with previous findings that motivation for language learning is, for secondary learners in England, largely dependent on classroom learning experiences. The motivational aspects of the LF approach have implications for mainstream classroom practice, in particular with respect to development of student autonomy and project-based learning. However, the purpose of research inquiry is, first and foremost, an in-depth understanding of the object of study, and must avoid the temptation to leap to prescription. There is always a tension here in educational research, as the frenetic nature of teaching in schools gives teachers an appetite for practical recommendations for change that address their immediate priorities. On the other hand, it is hard to claim a *raison d'être* for research that has nothing to say to practitioners! Mindful of this pedagogical imperative, therefore, this section of the report suggests potential applications to classroom language teaching, aware that it runs the risk of failing to reflect the full complexities of

language teaching, teacher and learner differences, which are better reflected in the full research report.

1. The motivational power of choice

When learners make choices they tend to take more responsibility for their learning. Increasing the range and variety of ways in which we offer choice to students in their language learning may improve motivation. This might include a choice of words to learn for vocabulary tests, using 'Surprise Me!' homework tasks more often, or considering how to make classroom tasks more open-ended.

2. Language mentors

The support of additional adults or older learners in the classroom, as role models, conduits of culture, one-to-one explainers of structures or vocabulary, is invaluable. All teachers know students whose understanding is suddenly accelerated when they spend a few minutes after-school with them individually. This is often done as an intervention in response to an identified lack of progress. We might usefully consider the benefits of recruiting community volunteer mentors or sixth-form mentors to support classes from the start of Y7. Providing additional learning support in the classroom earlier for learners may promote less anxiety for lower attaining learners and more stretch for higher attaining learners.

Many schools no longer employ foreign language assistants (FLAs). Evidence from the vast majority of schools in the study suggest that there are, more often than not, adults and sixth-formers (within school and the local community) who can provide in-class support. There are models of this sort of support already in some schools. Examples include:

- Sixth form enrichment, in which students use Wednesday afternoons to support in lower school classes
- Sixth form afterschool lesson programme, in which students take responsibility for planning and delivering additional support lessons to Y7 students
- Adult community volunteers, who come into lessons once a week to classes of Y7 and Y8 students
- Adult learners in lessons, a project in which adults join a GCSE class and learn alongside students, indirectly modelling mature learning behaviours and linguistic thinking

3. Autonomy

Most students in the programme articulated their enthusiasm for LF because it allows them to work at their own pace. For some students, this undoubtedly means a slower pace than the mainstream classroom, and we return to this in the section on mastery, but other students are seemingly held back in the mainstream classroom because they are ready to make links for themselves and work more independently. They relish the opportunity that LF gives them to do this in their language learning. There was also evidence that students transfer greater levels of agency to other subjects, including their first foreign language, but also other curriculum subjects. Students refer to not relying on the teacher, taking responsibility for what they learn, asking more questions, and wanting to find out more.

In discussion with these students, they envisage an 'ideal scenario' in which there is a mix of direct teacher-led instruction and more independent work. Interestingly, they suggest that the independent work would not always follow instruction, but that they would sometimes have the chance to discover for themselves and then have a teacher-led lesson to take the learning on further or confirm their hypotheses. These were higher attaining students, typically boys. This could be part of an answer to how we might engage certain higher ability boys in language learning.

LanguageFutures

4. Mastery

Lower attaining students overwhelmingly appreciated LF because they had more time to master content, vocabulary and grammar. Their levels of anxiety and frustration in the mainstream classroom, where things moved on too quickly, and they didn't feel able to ask questions, were clearly in evidence from the interviews. The relief of being able to elaborate their new learning over several lessons, the constant repetition, and the learner satisfaction afforded by having the time to work on small project-type tasks involving making and doing, were a key component of learner enjoyment of the LF programme. At KS4, as schools move towards greater inclusion, teachers will inevitably begin to focus on the mastery of key structures and vocabulary that students absolutely need for success at foundation tier. It would seem useful for this to start in Y7 with a 'pruning' of overall content to allow time and space for mastery of this core language.

5. Project-based learning

Students in all the different LF models where projects were a key feature reported high levels of enjoyment. One of the reasons that projects worked so well in some LF models was that it allowed students to work with the same key language for longer, allowing better mastery of it. However, this is not the only significant feature of PBL – it was clear from the research that the dual features or working towards a practical outcome and purpose, as well as having an audience, were also important for motivation.

6. Culture

Students who might not be intrinsically motivated by language can be motivated by culture. In addition, students who are interested in the language can also be further motivated by engagement with the culture. So, for all students, a culture-rich curriculum is likely to be more motivating.

7. Developing the ecology of the mainstream classroom

It is clear that students within the LF classroom are less anxious and exhibit higher levels of student agency than many (not all!) mainstream languages classrooms. One measure of this is the number of questions students typically ask. In the LF classroom, students tend to ask quite a lot of questions, often not of the LF teacher, but rather of their mentor or their peers. There are many possible reasons why this could be the case, but two reasons suggested by this research are:

- Asking questions in small groups is much more face-saving than in front of a class of 30 learners.
- They have more questions to ask because far less is explained to them. The onus is on them to find things out for themselves and they know this.

The following are tentative suggestions for ways we as teachers could adapt conditions in the classroom to reduce anxiety and reticence, and to promote active enquiry and risk-taking amongst our students:

- Re-programme ourselves as teachers to bounce questions from students on to other students.
- Actively promote and solicit question-asking from students by rewarding them explicitly for it
- Explicitly teach and revisit often target language question-forming in our curricula

- Use pair and group configurations to generate more questions, getting them to try out their spoken questions on each other first in a face-saving situation before expecting them to use them in whole-class discourse.

8. Paradigm for an LF sequence in whole-class teaching

Recurring themes throughout the study associated with higher levels of engagement are: choice, controlling the pace and scope of one's learning, open-ended tasks and projects, and collaborative working in pairs or small groups. Here is one suggestion for an LF-style learning sequence, as it might look in the mainstream languages classroom:

Lesson objective: To make a phone reservation for a hotel stay in a TL country
1. Introduction of the project task (in the target language)
2. Whole class brainstorm of language needed (depends on the stage in the scheme of work where the lesson occurs, but this brainstorm may include some TL and some English)
3. Scaffolded whole-class 'harvesting' of known TL structures (i.e. language and structures that students have previously mastered that would also work in this context – e.g. I would like / Do you have?
4. Group work to generate all the language needed for the dialogue (teacher is a facilitator during this phase – students use own resources, dictionaries, textbooks, iPads, etc...)
5. Language rehearsal in pairs / groups
6. Recording (or live performance) so that there is an outcome / audience for the work
7. Peer and/or teacher evaluation, as appropriate.

Useful additions to this sequence of teaching would be some engagement with real examples – e.g. a previous lesson researching real hotels in a given destination and reading some trip advisor reviews of the hotel, which would generate ideas for actual facilities that are / are not available in a particular hotel. This example is not too different from a lesson teachers might already have taught. One key difference, potentially, is the amount of time given over to the practice, recording and performance phases. In my experience, this phase is often curtailed by pressure of time.

These implications for practice from the LF research project are suggestions to add to the ongoing conversation about motivation for language learning. Researchers, politicians, educationalists and teachers are unwise to offer easy solutions to the challenges of learning languages in the classroom. It is important to be mindful of both the complexity of L2 motivation, and the importance of individual learner differences. As Lamb reminds us, "pedagogical innovations rarely gain universal approval – what works for one learner may not work for another" (Lamb, 2017).

On the other hand, practitioners are consistently rewarded when they engage seriously and openly with research findings, seeking to apply the 'nuggets of gold' to their own practice, and reflecting on the evidence from their own classrooms.

Appendix A
Online student questionnaire (www.surveymonkey.com)

Section A

1. I was able to choose the language I wanted to study.

Yes / No (go to Q4)

2. Being able to choose the language I wanted to study was…

a. my main reason for doing Language Futures.

b. one of the reasons for doing Language Futures.

c. not the most important reason for doing Language Futures.

Complete the sentence.

3. The reason I chose my Language Futures language was…

4. In Language Futures I make choices about:

Tick all those that apply. You can tick more than one.

a. the resources I use

b. the tasks I do

c. the topic / theme I learn about.

d. the learning methods I use

e. the exact vocabulary I learn

Complete the sentence.

5. The ways I use to learn new vocabulary are…

6. The most interesting thing I have learnt about my language is…

7. The most recent grammar I learned in my language was…

8. Three of the verbs I know in my language are…(write them in English and in your LF language)

9. The coolest thing I know how to say in my language is…

10. From memory I think I could list…

a. more than 50 words

b. around 25 words

c. 10 words or fewer

LanguageFutures

11. I can SAY a few sentences about myself.

a. very well

b. quite well

c. OK

d. not very well

12. I can WRITE a few sentences about myself.

a. very well

b. quite well

c. OK

d. not very well

13. I can UNDERSTAND what I hear when someone speaks in the language on a topic I know.

a. very well

b. quite well

c. OK

d. not very well

14. I can UNDERSTAND a short text in the language on a topic I know.

a. very well

b. quite well

c. OK

d. not very well

15. I can REMEMBER the meaning of the words I have met.

a. very well

b. quite well

c. OK

d. not very well

16. I know how to put words together to make sentences.

a. very well

b. quite well

c. OK

d. not very well

Section B

17. In Language Futures we learn through projects.

Yes / No (Go to Q22)

18. In the projects I have done so far, there is:

Tick all those that apply. You can tick more than one.

a. a key question

b. an overall outcome / product we are working towards

c. an audience for the project outcome

d. freedom to make choices about how to approach the project

19. Learning a language through a project is…

Tick the two responses that most closely match your opinion.

a. effective

c. fun

d. confusing

e. motivating

f. hard

g. interesting

h. memorable

i. boring

j. challenging

k. fast

l. slow

20. What specific language (vocabulary and grammar) are you learning in your current project?

21. What is your opinion of your current project?

Section C

22. Outside of Language Futures sessions, each week I usually do…

a. more than an hour of independent learning of my language

b. between 30 - 60 minutes of independent learning of my language

c. 10-15 minutes of independent learning of my language

d. very little or no independent learning of my language

Complete the sentence. List as many as you like.

23. My favourite learning resources are…

24. In my own time, in my Language Futures language I …

Tick all those that apply. You may tick more than one.

a. read books

b. read the news online

b. listen to songs

c. watch YouTube

d. use social media

e. use apps

f. play videogames

25. My parent/carer …

Tick all those that apply. You may tick more than one.

a. doesn't know I'm doing Language Futures

b. asks me about my Language Futures language

c. already speaks my Language Futures language

d. is learning my Language Futures language with me

e. knows I am doing Language Futures but we don't talk about it

f. helps me by testing me on my vocabulary

26. There is a Language Futures mentor who sometimes comes to my Language Futures sessions.

YES / NO (go to Q34)

27. I have contact with my Language Futures mentor on average…

a. almost every week

b. once every two-three weeks

c. once a month

d. less than once a month

28. When my Language Futures mentor is there, I enjoy the sessions

a. more

b. less

c. the same

Tick all that apply.

29. My Language Futures mentor helps me with…

a. writing

b. pronunciation and speaking

c. grammar

d. understanding the language

e. knowing more about the culture

Choose ONE answer.

30. My Language Futures mentor helps me MOST with…

a. writing

b. pronunciation and speaking

c. grammar

d. understanding the language

e. knowing more about the culture

LanguageFutures

Choose ONE answer.

31. My Language Futures mentor..

a. teaches me

b. tells me the answers

c. prompts me with questions

d. guides me to resources that help me find the answers

32. When my Language Futures mentor is there, I learn

a. more

b. less

c. the same amount

Complete the sentence.

33. When my mentor is there I think I…

Tick any and all that apply.

34. Since taking part in Language Futures, in school lessons generally I am MORE or LESS or JUST AS likely to…

a. ask the teacher a question in class when I'm unsure

b. try to puzzle something out for myself

c. enjoy working in a team (even when not with my friends)

d. stick with a challenging task

e. answer a question in class

f. push myself to do extension or more challenging work

g. complete homework on time

h. think everyone else is cleverer than I am

i. feel anxious about what I know or don't know

j. choose to study a language for GCSE.

LanguageFutures

Appendix B

Teacher questionnaire

Languages Futures Teacher questionnaire

1. Give details about your **Language Futures students** by completing the table below (adding rows as necessary):

Student number	Initials	Age	Gender	LF language	LF language competence at start of programme (see codes)	Language competence in other languages (see codes) e.g. *French - I*	Additional details (optional)
1							
2							
3							

Language competence codes	
Absolute beginner	AB
Foundation – 1-2 years classroom-based prior learning	F
Intermediate – 3-4 years classroom-based prior learning	I
Advanced – 5+ years classroom-based prior learning	A
Heritage speaker with no or limited literacy	HS
Heritage speaking with some literacy	HS+

2. Give details of **your group's Language Futures curriculum** by completing the table below:
For this question include what you typically cover in the Language Futures curriculum, rather than judging the extent to which students have mastered this knowledge and these skills.

1 Grammar / Language structures	2 Vocabulary areas	3 Knowledge about language	4 Language learning skills	5 Other relevant curriculum elements (not mentioned in 1-4)

3. Give details of **how you assess students' learning** in the Language Futures programme. Enter **Y** in each box, if applicable.
If entering Y, enter also the number of assessment opportunities there are during one academic year. ***E.g. Y [2].*** Add additional columns, as necessary.
Other boxes can be left blank. If the assessment arrangements are the same for all LF languages offered, then enter '**All languages**' in the first cell.

LF language	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Grammar	Vocabulary	Other
E.g. Russian	*Y[2]*		*Y[2]*	*Y[1]*			

4. Give details of **how you measure students' progress** in the Language Futures programme. Enter **Y** in each box, if applicable.
Other boxes can be left blank. If the assessment arrangements are the same for all LF languages offered, then enter '**All languages**' in the first cell.

LF language	National Curriculum level	Common European Framework level (A1, A2)	Life after levels school-based system	Mentor feedback	Teacher feedback	Peer feedback	Student self-assessment	Computer-assisted assessment (i.e. automatic correction)

LanguageFutures

5. Give your **overall impression of your students' progress** in each of the **areas of linguistic competence** listed in the table below, when compared to your expectations of progress within conventional classroom-based learning with the same time allocation and starting point. Use the codes: **--** (slower than expected classroom-based progress), **=** (equivalent to expected classroom-based progress), **+** (faster than expected classroom-based progress).

LF language	1 Grammar / Language structures	2 Vocabulary areas	3 Knowledge about language	4 Language learning skills	5 Understanding (listening / reading)	6 Production (speaking / writing)

If you have indicated + or – rates of progress as compared to classroom-based learning, please give further observations and / or evidence that support these conclusions:

Type here:

6a. Give details of **the main features of your Language Futures programme.** Enter **Y** in each cell, as appropriate, in response to statements 1-6.

LF language	1 Students choose LF language.	2 Students have autonomy within LF sessions.	3 Learning is task-based.	4 There is parental involvement.	5 There are community mentors.	6 Students take their language learning beyond the classroom.

6b.How important are these features?

If you have indicated **Y** to any or all of the statements 1-6 above, please give **further observations and / or evidence** that explain the **impact** of each feature on **students' language learning**.

Type here:

Thank you very much for your time.
Language Futures team

LanguageFutures

Appendix C
Student interview questions

School Name: ____________________ Student ID: ________________________

1. What is your language? Did you choose it? Why?

2. Since you have been following the Language Futures approach, what are you now able to do in your language? (plus suitable follow up prompts).

3. Tell me about the projects you have done this year so far in Language Futures. (What have you learnt? (prompt for specific language, grammar, cultural knowledge) How have you learnt? In what way is this an effective way to learn?

4. Outside of lesson time, what do you do to learn your language? (how much time do you spend, do you think?)

5. In what way is an adult at home or an older / younger sibling involved in your language futures learning? (Do they know about it? Ask you? Do they learn with you?)

6. Does anyone else help you (e.g. a mentor)? How? How often? In what ways?

7. Do you think that the Language Futures programme has changed you as a learner in any way? If so, how?

8. Are you going to study a language for GCSE? Why / why not?

LanguageFutures

Appendix D

Teacher interview questions

1. Since students have been following the Language Futures approach, what are they now able to do in their language?

2. Are there differences in the progress between students in the group? If so, how do you account for those differences?

3. Do you measure progress using a recognised assessment framework? (If so, which one? If not, why not?)

4. Overall do pupils make more or less progress in Language Futures than their expected progress in a more conventional languages classroom? How do you account for this?

5. In your view, what are the key factors that impact on the success or otherwise of the Language Futures approach?

(Follow up: how important to you believe the following to be, and why?)

i. choice of language

ii. autonomy to work at own pace in lessons

iii. task-based learning

iv. parental involvement

v. community mentors

vi. learning beyond the classroom

LanguageFutures

Appendix E

Mentor semi-structured interview questions

1. What is your own language background? (Ascertain the mentor's own connection to the language and culture of the TL country)

2. How did you get involved in the LF programme?

3. Do you enjoy the role? What do you get out of it?

4. What do you see as your 'job' in the LF classroom?

5. To what extent have you seen the learners progress in their language learning?
Can you give me some specific examples.

6. Are some students making progress than others? How do you account for this?

Appendix F

Coding Framework

Attitudes
- negative
- positive

Autonomy

Community of Learning
- mentors
- parents
- peer learning
- siblings
- teacher role

Engagement
- Intrinsic interest
- instrumental / other-motivated interest
- classroom experience
- uptake at KS4

Behaviour

Conventional classroom learning

Project-based learning

Progress
- assessment
- individual differences
- linguistic
- metacognition
- language learning strategies

Resources

School as Basecamp

Student choice

Teacher Role

LanguageFutures

Appendix G

National Curriculum level descriptors (legacy)

http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/10747/7/1849623848_Redacted.pdf

Level	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
1	Pupils show that they understand a few familiar spoken words and phrases. They understand speech spoken clearly, face to face or from a good quality recording. They may need a lot of help, such as repetition or gesture.	Pupils say single words and short, simple phrases in response to what they see and hear. They may need considerable support from a spoken model and from visual clues. They imitate correct pronunciation with some success.	Pupils recognise and read out a few familiar words and phrases presented in clear script in a familiar context. They may need visual clues.	Pupils write or copy simple words or symbols correctly. They label items and select appropriate words to complete short phrases or sentences.
2	Pupils show that they understand a range of familiar spoken phrases. They respond to a clear model of standard language, but may need items to be repeated.	Pupils answer simple questions and give basic information. They give short, simple responses to what they see and hear, and use set phrases. Their pronunciation shows an awareness of sound patterns and their meaning is clear.	Pupils show that they understand familiar written phrases. They match sound to print by reading aloud familiar words and phrases. They use books or glossaries.	Pupils write one or two short sentences, following a model, and fill in the words on a simple form. They label items and write familiar short phrases correctly. When they write familiar words from memory, their spelling may be approximate.
3	Pupils show that they understand the main points from short spoken passages made up of familiar language. They identify and note personal responses. They may need short sections to be repeated	Pupils ask and answer simple questions and talk about their interests. They take part in brief prepared tasks, using visual or other clues to help them initiate and respond. They use short phrases to express personal responses. Although they use mainly memorised language, they occasionally substitute items of vocabulary to vary questions or statements.	Pupils show that they understand the main points and personal responses in short written texts in clear printed script made up of familiar language in simple sentences. They are beginning to read independently, selecting simple texts and using a bilingual dictionary or glossary to look up new words.	Pupils write a few short sentences, with support, using expressions that they have already learnt. They express personal responses. They write short phrases from memory and their spelling is readily understandable.
4	Pupils show that they understand the main points and some of the detail from spoken passages made up of familiar language in simple sentences. They may need some items to be repeated.	Pupils take part in simple conversations, supported by visual or other cues, and express their opinions. They begin to use their knowledge of grammar to adapt and substitute single words and phrases. Their pronunciation is generally accurate and they show some consistency in their intonation.	Pupils show that they understand the main points and some of the detail in short written texts from familiar contexts. When reading on their own, as well as using a bilingual dictionary or glossary, they begin to use context to work out the meaning of unfamiliar words.	Pupils write short texts on familiar topics, adapting language that they have already learnt. They draw largely on memorised language. They begin to use their knowledge of grammar to adapt and substitute individual words and set phrases. They begin to use dictionaries or glossaries to check words they have learnt.
5	Pupils show that they understand the main points and opinions in spoken passages made up of familiar material from various contexts, including present and past or future events. They may need some repetition.	Pupils give a short prepared talk that includes expressing their opinions. They take part in short conversations, seeking and conveying information, opinions and reasons in simple terms. They refer to recent experiences or future plans, as well as everyday activities and interests. They vary their language and sometimes produce more extended responses. Although there may be some mistakes, pupils make themselves understood with little or no difficulty	Pupils show that they understand the main points and opinions in written texts from various contexts, including present, past or future events. Their independent reading includes authentic materials. They are generally confident in reading aloud, and in using reference materials.	Pupils write short texts on a range of familiar topics, using simple sentences. They refer to recent experiences or future plans, as well as to everyday activities. Although there may be some mistakes, the meaning can be understood with little or no difficulty. They use dictionaries or glossaries to check words they have learnt and to look up unknown words.

6	Pupils show that they understand the difference between present, past and future events in a range of spoken material that includes familiar language in less familiar contexts. They identify and note the main points and specific details. They need little repetition.	Pupils give a short prepared talk, expressing opinions and answering simple questions about it. They take part in conversations, using a variety of structures and producing more detailed or extended responses. They apply their knowledge of grammar in new contexts. Although they may be hesitant at times, pupils make themselves understood with little or no difficulty and with increasing confidence.	Pupils show that they understand the difference between present, past and future events in a range of texts that include familiar language in less familiar contexts. They identify and note the main points and specific details. They scan written material for stories or articles of interest and choose books or texts to read independently, at their own level. They are more confident in using context and their knowledge of grammar to work out the meaning of unfamiliar language.	Pupils write texts giving and seeking information and opinions. They use descriptive language and a variety of structures. They apply grammar in new contexts. Although there may be a few mistakes, the meaning is usually clear.
7	Pupils show that they understand longer passages and recognise people's points of view. The passages cover a range of material that contains some complex sentences and unfamiliar language. They understand language spoken at near normal speed, and need little repetition.	Pupils answer unprepared questions. They initiate and develop conversations and discuss matters of personal or topical interest. They improvise and paraphrase. Their pronunciation and intonation are good, and their language is usually accurate.	Pupils show that they understand longer texts and recognise people's points of view. These texts cover a range of imaginative and factual material that contains some complex sentences and unfamiliar language. Pupils use new vocabulary and structures found in their reading to respond in speech or writing. They use reference materials when these are helpful.	Pupils write articles or stories of varying lengths, conveying opinions and points of view. They write about real and imaginary subjects and use an appropriate register. They link sentences and paragraphs, structure ideas and adapt previously learnt language for their own purposes. They edit and redraft their work, using reference sources to improve their accuracy, precision and variety of expression.
8	Pupils show that they understand passages including some unfamiliar material and recognise attitudes and emotions. These passages include different types of spoken material from a range of sources. When listening to familiar and less familiar material, they draw inferences, and need little repetition.	Pupils narrate events, tell a story or relate the plot of a book or film and give their opinions. They justify their opinions and discuss facts, ideas and experiences. They use a range of vocabulary, structures and time references. They adapt language to deal with unprepared situations. They speak confidently, with good pronunciation and intonation. Their language is largely accurate, with few mistakes of any significance.	Pupils show that they understand texts including some unfamiliar material and recognise attitudes and emotions. These texts cover a wide variety of types of written material, including unfamiliar topics and more complex language. When reading for personal interest and for information, pupils consult a range of reference sources where appropriate.	Pupils produce formal and informal texts in an appropriate style on familiar topics. They express and justify ideas, opinions or personal points of view and seek the views of others. They develop the content of what they have read, seen or heard. Their spelling and grammar are generally accurate. They use reference materials to extend their range of language and improve their accuracy
EP	Pupils show that they understand the gist of a range of authentic passages in familiar contexts. These passages cover a range of factual and imaginative speech, some of which expresses different points of view, issues and concerns. They summarise, report, and explain extracts, orally or in writing.	Pupils take part in discussions covering a range of factual and imaginative topics. They give, justify and seek personal opinions and ideas in informal and formal situations. They deal confidently with unpredictable elements in conversations, or with people who are unfamiliar. They speak fluently, with consistently accurate pronunciation, and can vary intonation. They give clear messages and make few errors.	Pupils show that they understand a wide range of authentic texts in familiar contexts. These texts include factual and imaginative material, some of which express different points of view, issues and concerns, and which include official and formal texts. Pupils summarise, report, and explain extracts, orally or in writing. They develop their independent reading by choosing and responding to stories, articles, books and plays, according to their interests.	Pupils communicate ideas accurately and in an appropriate style over a range of familiar topics, both factual and imaginative. They write coherently and accurately.

LanguageFutures

References

Acheson, K., M. Nelson, & K. Luna (2015). Measuring the impact of instruction in intercultural communication on secondary Spanish learners' attitudes and motivation.
Foreign Language Annals 48.2, 203–217.

BAAL (2000). *Recommendations for Good Practice in Applied Linguistics Student Projects*. British Association of Applied Linguistics.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* New York: Freeman.

Bassey, M. (1999). *Case Study Research in Educational Settings.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Beckett, G.H. (2002). Teacher and Student Evaluations of Project-Based Instruction. *TESL Canada Journal,*19, (2).

Beckett, G.H. & Chamness Miller, P. (Eds.) (2006). *Project-Based Second and Foreign Language Education*. Information Age Publishing.

Bell, S. (2010). Project-Based Learning for the 21st Century: Skills for the Future. Retrieved: http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/00098650903505415

Benson, P. (2011). Language learning and teaching beyond the classroom: An introduction to the field. In P.Benson & H. Reinders (Eds.) *Beyond the language classroom.* (pp.7-16), Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan.

BERA (2004). *Ethical Guidelines*. London: British Educational Research Association.

Bild, E.R. and Swain, M. (1989) Minority language students in a French immersion Programme: Their French proficiency. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* 10, pp.255–274.

Bloom, B. (1956). *A taxonomy of educational objectives. Handbook 1: Cognitive domain.* New York: McKay.

Borg, S. 2006. The distinctive characteristics of foreign language teachers. Language Teaching Research 10: 3-32.

Buck Institute for Education (2015). Gold Standard PBL: Essential Project Design Elements.

Burge, B. et al., (2013). *European Survey on Language Competences: Language Proficiency in England.* National Foundation for Educational Research.

Busse, V. (2017). Plurilingualism in Europe: Exploring Attitudes Toward English and Other European Languages Among Adolescents in Bulgaria, Germany, the Netherlands, and Spain, *The Modern Language Journal,* Vol. 101, 3, 566-582

Carson, L. (2012). The role of drama in task-based learning: agency, identity and autonomy. Scenario VI (2), 53-66. Retrieved: http://research.ucc.ie/scenario/2012/02/Carson/06/en

Chan, H. W. (2016). Popular Culture, English Out-of-class Activities, and Learner Autonomy among Highly Proficient Secondary Students in Hong Kong. *Universal Journal of Educational Research* 4(8):

1918-1923. DOI: 10.13189/ujer.2016.040823

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: a practical guide through qualitative analysis.* London: SAGE Publications.

Claxton, G. (2009) Cultivating positive learning dispositions. In H. Daniels, H., Lauder, H., Porter, J. & Hartshorn, S. (eds.) *Educational Theories, Cultures and Learning: a critical perspective,* London: Routledge Falmer, pp.177-187

Coleman, J. (1992). Project-based learning, transferable skills, information technology and video, *The Language Learning Journal*, 5:1, 35-37, DOI:10.1080/09571739285200121

Coleman, J.A., Galaczi, Á. and Astruc, L, (2007). Motivation of UK school pupils towards foreign languages: a large-scale survey at key stage 3. *The Language Learning Journal* 35, no. 2: 245–80.

Crotty, M. (2003). *The foundations of social research: meaning and perspective in the research process.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications Inc.

Csizér, K. & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The Internal Structure of Language Learning Motivation and Its Relationship with Language Choice and Learning Effort. *The Modern Language Journal,* Vol. 89, No. 1 (Spring, 2005), pp. 19-36.

Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research* 49, pp.222-251.

Cummins, J. (1980). 'The construct of language proficiency in bilingual education'. In: Alatis, J.E. (ed.) *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics*. Washington,D.C.: Georgetown University Press. 1-7.

Cummins, J. (1984) *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy.* Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Cummins, J. (2007). "Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms." *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10, pp.221–240.

Cullingford, C. 1991. The inner world of the school: children's ideas about school, London: Cassell.

Dam, L. (1995) Learner Autonomy 3: From Theory to Classroom Practice. Dublin: Authentik.

Dam, L., & Legenhausen, L. (1996). The acquisition of vocabulary in an autonomous learning environment - the first months of beginning English. In R. Pemberton, et al. (Eds.), Taking Control: Autonomy in Language Learning (pp. 265-280). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Davies, B. (2004) The gender gap in modern languages: a comparison of attitude and performance in Year 7 and Year 10*, Language Learning Journal*, 29, 53–58.

Deckner, S.E. (2017): Quantitative evidence of the occurrence of a motivational dip in language learning in year 7, *The Language Learning Journal*, DOI:10.1080/09571736.2017.1351482

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1995). Human autonomy: The basis for true self-esteem. In M. Kernis (Ed.), *Efficacy, agency, and self-esteem.* (pp. 3149). New York: Plenum.

Deci, E.L. & Flaste, R. (1996). *Why we do what we do: Understanding self-motivation*. New York: Penguin.

Dewaele, J-M. & Thirtle, H. (2009). Why do some young learners drop foreign languages? A focus on learner-internal variables. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* Vol. 12, No. 6, November 2009, 635-649

Dewey, J. (1938/1997). Education and Experience. New York. Touchstone.

Donato, R. (1994). Collective Scaffolding in Second Language Learning. In J.P. Lantolf, & G.Appel (Eds.), Vygotskyan Approaches to Second Language Research (pp.33-56). Norwood NY: Ablex Publishing Corporation

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). Motivational strategies in the language classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (1997) Psychological processes in cooperative language learning: Group dynamics and motivation, *Modern Language Journal*, 81: 482-493

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. Language Teaching. 31. 117-135.

Dörnyei, Z. and K. Csizér. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research.* 2, 3. 203-229.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: Quantitative Qualitative, and Mixed Methodologies.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). Teaching and researching motivation (2nd ed.). Harlow: Longman.

Dörnyei, Z. (2014). Motivation in second language learning. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th ed., pp. 518-531). Boston, MA: National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning.

Duff, P.A. (2012). Identity, agency, and second language acquisition. In A.Mackey & S.M.Gass (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition*. London: Routledge.

Ellis, R. (2008) *The Study of Second Language Acquisition* (2nd edition), Oxford: Oxford University Press

Erler, L. & Macaro, E. (2011) Decoding Ability in French as a Foreign Language and Language Learning Motivation, *Modern Language Journal*, 95 (4), 496-518

European Commission, (2017). Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe, Eurydice Report http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Foreign_language_skills_statistics

Evans, M., & Fisher, L. (2009). *Language Learning at Key Stage 3. The impact of the Key Stage 3 Modern Foreign Language Framework and Changes to the Curriculum on Provision and Practice.* Research Report DCSF-RR091. Retrieved: http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/11170/1/DCSF-RR091.pdf

Fisher, L. 2001. Modern foreign languages recruitment post-16: the pupils' perspective. *Language Learning Journal*, 23: 33–40.

Foster, P., & Ohta, A. S. (2005). Negotiation for meaning and peer assistance in second language classrooms. *Applied Linguistics*, 26, 402-430.

Fragoulis, I. & Tsiplakides, I. (2009). Project-Based Learning in the Teaching of English as A Foreign Language in Greek Primary Schools: From Theory to Practice. *English Language Teacher*, Vol 2, no.3. Retrieved: http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1083088.pdf

Fredricks, J.A., Blumenfeld, P.C. and Paris, A.H. (2004) School Engagement: Potential of the Concept, State of the Evidence. *Review of Educational Research*. 74 (1), pp. 59–109.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Gayton, A.M. (2016).A context-specific approach to L2 motivation in Anglophone settings: a first step towards theory development, *The Language Learning Journal*, DOI: 10.1080/09571736.2015.1130081

Gibb, N. (2015) *The social justice case for an academic curriculum*. Speech delivered on 11 June 2015, Policy Exchange, London.Graham et al., 2014

Gordon, A-L. (2017). ALL Statement on GCSE languages results 2017. Retrieved: https://www.all-languages.org.uk/news/all-news/comments-2017-gcse-results/

Graddol, D. (1997). The Future of English? British Council, London.

Graham, S., & E. Macaro (2008). Strategy instruction in listening for lower-intermediate learners of French. *Language Learning* 58.4, 747–783.

Hawkes, R. (2011a) Language Futures Pilot Project Report – September 2011. Unpublished research report.

Hawkes, R. (2011b). Language Futures Report Update Phase 2 – November 2011. Unpublished research report.

Hawkes, R. (2012). Learning to talk and talking to learn: how spontaneous teacher-learner interaction in the secondary foreign languages classroom provides greater opportunities for L2 learning. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Cambridge, England.

Hawkins, E. (1984). *Awareness of language. An introduction.* Cambridge University Press.

Hawkins, E. (2002). Drop out from language study at age 16+: a historical perspective, in Swarbrick, A. (ed.) *Teaching Modern Foreign Languages in Secondary Schools: A Reader*, Abingdon: Routledge pp.23-43

Hill, R. (2012). *Teach First. Ten years of impact.* Teach First.

Hyland, F. (2004). Learning autonomously: Contextualising out-of-class English language learning. *Language Awareness,* 13(3), 180-202

Iyengar, S. S., & Lepper, M. R. (2000). When choice is demotivating: Can one desire too much of a good thing? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79, 995–1,006.

Jelly, M., Fuller, A. and Byers, R. 2000. *Involving pupils in practice: promoting partnerships with pupils with special educational needs,* London: David Fulton.

Jeynes, W. H. (2007). The relationship between parent involvement and urban school student academic achievement: A meta-analysis. *Urban Education*, 42, 82-110

Kangasvieri, T. (2017): L2 motivation in focus: the case of Finnish comprehensive school students, *The Language Learning Journal*, DOI:10.1080/09571736.2016.1258719

Kaplan, A., & Patrick, H. (2016). Learning environments and motivation. In K. Wentzel & D. Miele (Eds.) *Handbook of motivation at school* (2nd Ed., pp. 251-274). New York: Routledge.

Kirschner, P.A., Swelle, J. & Clark, R.E. (2006). Why Minimal Guidance During Instruction Does Not Work: An Analysis of the Failure of Constructivist, Discovery, Problem-Based, Experiential, and Inquiry-Based Teaching, *Educational Psychologist*, 41:2, 75-86, DOI: 10.1207/s15326985ep4102_1

Kuhn, T. (1996). *The structure of scientific revolutions.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press. Retrieved: http://dx.doi. org/10.7208/chicago/9780226458106.001.0001

Lamb, M. (2007) 'Which came first, the worm or the cocoon?' *Independence 40*: 28-29

Lamb, M. (2017). The motivational dimension of language teaching. *Language Teaching,* 50(3), 301-346. doi:10.1017/S0261444817000088

Lanvers, U. (2016) On the predicaments of the English L1 language learner: a conceptual article. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 26: 147–167. doi: 10.1111/ijal.12082.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated Learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge University Press.

Lee, M.K. (2016). To Be Autonomous or Not to Be: Issues of Subsuming Self-Determination Theory Into Research on Language Learner Autonomy, *TESOL Quarterly*, DOI: 10.1002/tesq.343

Legenhausen, L. (2003) Second language acquisition in an autonomous learning environment. In D. Little, J. Ridley and E. Ushioda (eds) Learner Autonomy in the Foreign Language Classroom: Teacher, Learner, Curriculum and Assessment (pp. 65-77). Dublin: Authentik.

Little, D. (1997). Language awareness and the autonomous language learner. *Language Awareness*, 6:2-3, 93-104, Retrieved: 10.1080/09658416.1997.9959920

Little, D. 2004. Democracy, discourse and learner autonomy in the foreign language

classroom. *Utbildning & Demokrati 13*: 105-26.

Little, D., Dam, L. & Legenhausen, L. (2017). Language Learner Autonomy Theory, Practice and Research. Multilingual Matters. Bristol. Blue Ridge Summit.

Lo Bianco, J. (2014), Domesticating the Foreign: Globalization's Effects on the Place/s of Languages. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98: 312–325. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2014.12063.x

Macaro, E (2001) *Learning Strategies in Foreign and Second Language Classrooms.* London: Continuum.

Macaro, E (2007) *Language Learner strategies: Thirty years of research and practice.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Macaro, E., Z. Handley & C. Walter (2012). A systematic review of CALL in English as a second language: Focus on primary and secondary education. *Language Teaching* 45.1, 1–43.

Malpass, D. (2014) The Decline in Uptake of A-level Modern Foreign Languages: Literature Review. A review of Modern Foreign Languages at A level: A* grade and low take up [online]. Retrieved: http://www.jcq.org.uk/media-centre/news-releases/mfl-review-press-notice

Mergendoller, J.R., Maxwell, N.L. & Bellisimo, Y. (2006). The Effectiveness of Problem-based Instruction: A Comparative Study of Instructional Methods and Student Characteristics. *The Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-based Learning*, v1, no. 2, 49-69

Merriam, S.B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education.* Jossey-Bass Publishers. San Francisco.

Mikulec, E. & Miller, P.C. (2011). Using Project-Based Instruction to Meet Foreign Language Standards. *The Clearing House*, 84: 81-86, 2022, Taylor & Francis Group, LLC. DOI: 10.1080/00098655.2010.516779

Mitchell, R. (2003) Rethinking the concept of progression in the National Curriculum for Modern Foreign Languages: a research perspective, *Language Learning Journal*, 27, 15–23.

Mori, J. (2004). Negotiating sequential boundaries and learning opportunities: A case from a Japanese language classroom. *Modern Language Journal,* 88, (4), 536-550.

Ning, H. & Hornby, G. (2014) The impact of cooperative learning on tertiary EFL learners' motivation, *Educational Review*, 66 (1), 108-124

Office for Standards in Education, (2015). Key Stage 3: the wasted years. No. 150106. Retrieved: https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/459830/Key_Stage_3_the_wasted_years.pdf

Park, H., & Hiver, P. (2017). Profiling and tracing motivational change in project-based L2 learning, *System* http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2017.04.013

Patall, E., Cooper, H., & Robinson, J. C. (2008). The effects of choice on intrinsic motivation and related outcomes: A meta-analysis of research findings. Psychological Bulletin, 134(2), 270–300.

Patall, E. A., Cooper, H. & Robinson, J. C. (2008). Parent involvement in homework: A research synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, 78, 1039-1101. doi: 10.3102/0034654308325185.

Payne, M. (2007) Foreign language planning: pupil choice and pupil voice, *Cambridge Journal of Education,* 37:1, 89-109, DOI: 10.1080/03057640601179194

Peiser, G., & M. Jones (2013). The significance of intercultural understanding in the English modern foreign languages curriculum: A pupil perspective. *The Language Learning Journal* 41.3, 340–356.

Polanyi, L. (1995). Language Learning and Living Abroad, Stories from the Field (in B.F.Freed Ed. Second Language Acquisition in a Study Abroad Context.

Reinders, H. (2011). Materials development for learning beyond the classroom. In P.Benson & H. Reinders (Eds.) *Beyond the language classroom.* (pp.175-189), Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan.

Reinders, H. (2014). Personal learning environments for supporting out-of-class language learning. *English Teaching Forum*, 52(4), 14-19.

Reinders, H. & Loewen, S. (2013). Autonomy and language learning behavior: The role of student initiation and participation in L2 classrooms. *Study in English Language Teaching,* 1(1), 1-7.

Rice, T. (2013). Bringing life into language learning. *Secondary Headship*, 113, p.7

Richards, K. 2006. Being the teacher': Identity and classroom conversation. *Applied Linguistics*, 27: 51-77.

Richards, J.C. (2014). The Changing Face of Language Learning: Learning Beyond the Classroom, *RELC Journal,* 1–18, DOI: 10.1177/0033688214561621

Robson, C. (2002). *Real World Research.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Ryan, R., & Deci, M. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, Vol 55(1), 68-78

Rüschoff, B., & Ritter, M. (2001) Technology-Enhanced Language Learning: Construction of Knowledge and Template-Based Learning in the Foreign Language Classroom, *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 14:3-4, 219-232

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2006). Self-regulation and the problem of human autonomy: Does psychology need choice, self-determination, and will? *Journal of Personality*, 74, 1557–1586. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6494.2006.00420.x

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. (2009). Promoting self-determined school engagement: Motivation, learning, and well-being. In K. Wentzel & A. Wigfield (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation at school.* (pp. 171–195). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis.

Slavin, R. (2000) *Educational Psychology: Theory and Practice*, (6th edition) Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon

Souza, A. (2011). Children see language as a feature of their identity. Research summary. NALDIC. Retrieved: https://www.naldic.org.uk/Resources/NALDIC/Research%20and%20Information/Documents/RS%20%20Souza.pdf

Spielmann, G., and M. Radnofsky. 2001. Learning language under tension: New directions from a qualitative study. *The Modern Language Journal* 85: 259-78.

Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case study research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Stewart, R.A. (2007). Investigating the link between self-directed learning readiness and project-based learning outcomes: the case of international Masters students in an engineering management course. *European Journal of Engineering Education*, 32:4, 453-465, Retrieved: 10.1080/03043790701337197

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques*. London: Sage.

Tassinari, M.G. (2015). Language learning beyond the classroom: Lernerräume (er)öffnen. In A. Hettinger (Ed.), Vorsprung durch Sprach.... Retrieved: file:///C:/Users/Study/Downloads/E4_Beitrag_AG5_Tassinari_11_Komm_MGT.pdf

Taylor, F. and E.J. Marsden. 2014. Perceptions, attitudes, and choosing to study foreign languages in England: an experimental intervention. *The Modern Language Journal* 98, no. 4: 902–20.

Taylor, F. (2013) *Multilingual Britain.* The British Academy. Retrieved: https://www.britac.ac.uk/sites/default/files/Multilingual%20Britain%20Report.pdf

Thomas, J.W. (2000). *A review of research on project-based learning.* Retrieved: http://www.newtechnetwork.org.590elmp01.blackmesh.com/sites/default/files/dr/pblresearch2.pdf

Tinsley, T. & Board, K. (2017). Language Trends 2016/17: Language teaching in primary and secondary schools in England. Survey report. British Council. Retrieved: https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/language_trends_survey_2017_0.pdf

Teaching Schools Council. (2016). Modern foreign languages pedagogy review. Retrieved: https://www.tscouncil.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2016/12/MFL-Pedagogy-Review-Report-2.pdf

Ushioda, E. (2011) Why autonomy? Insights from motivation theory and research, *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 5:2, 221-232, DOI: 10.1080/17501229.2011.577536

Ushioda, Ema. (2016) Language learning motivation through a small lens: a research agenda. *Language Teaching*, 49 (4). pp. 564-577.

Ushioda, E. (2017). The Impact of Global English on Motivation to Learn Other Languages: Toward an Ideal Multilingual Self. *Modern Language Journal*, 101, 3, 469–482. DOI: 10.1111/modl.12413

Vygotsky, L.S. (1962). *Thought and Language.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in Society*. London: Harvard University Press.

Wang, H.C., Huang, H.T. & Chun-Chieh, H. (2015). The impact of choice on EFL students' motivation and engagement with L2 vocabulary learning. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL*, Vol. 12.2, 1-40

Ward, L. (2004). The case for language learning. The Guardian. Retrieved: https://www.theguardian.com/education/2014/nov/28/community-languages-uk-young-attitudes

Wenger, E. (2000). Communities of Practice and Social Learning Systems. *Organization*, 7, 225-246

Williams, M., Burden, R. & Lanvers, U. (2002) 'French is the language of love and stuff': student perceptions of issues related to motivation in learning a foreign language, *British Educational Research Journal,* 28(4), 503–528.

Wilson, R. (2008) Foreign languages: a guide for the inhibited, *The Language Learning Journal*, 36:1, 111-115, DOI: 10.1080/09571730801988538

Yap, S. S. (1998). Out-of-class use of English by secondary school students in a Hong Kong Anglo-Chinese school. (Thesis). University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam, Hong Kong SAR. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.5353/th_b3194495

Yin, R.K. (2003). *Applications of case study research* (2nd ed.). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publishing.

Zuber-Skerritt, O. (ed.) (1996) *New Directions in Action Research*. London; Falmer Press.