Bringing Language to Consciousness:
Teacher Professional Learning in Genre-based Reading Pedagogy

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis represents my own work, except where due acknowledgement is made, and that it has not been previously submitted to the Open University or to any other institution for a degree, diploma or other qualification.

Abstract

This research aims to better understand the relationship between professional learning (PL) in genre-based literacy teaching and its impact on classroom practice. It is a study of teacher uptake of new knowledge about language and pedagogy based on *Reading to Learn* professional learning (Rose, 2014) offered to secondary school teachers in London.

The professional learning aims to make the role of language in learning visible to teachers so that it can be used as a tool for teaching in all subject areas. Large-scale action research projects in Australia and Europe have previously cited positive teacher responses to this PL through the use of teacher self-reporting methods (Acevedo, 2010; Coffin, Acevedo & Lövstedt, 2013; Culican, 2005; Rose, 2011a; Rose & Acevedo 2006a; Rose & Martin, 2012; Whittaker & Acevedo, 2016). Despite the teacher reports indicating shifts in theoretical positioning and pedagogy with a consequent impact on student learning, data focusing on the specific nature of the classroom implementation has been lacking.

This research, undertaken in England, draws on a range of empirical data to study the uptake of the professional learning by observing the practice of a group of teachers who took part in the PL and focusing in detail on the case of one history teacher's implementation. Using tools drawn from Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1978) for discourse analysis and multimodal analysis (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001), the teacher learning process is examined via the analysis of lesson preparation and classroom implementation. Additionally, to gauge the teacher's level of consciousness about the impact of the PL on her classroom teaching, the implementation data is compared to the teacher's perceptions concerning her learning about language and pedagogy.

The use of both discourse and multimodal analyses revealed the complexities in classroom implementation that related to issues beyond the new knowledge about language and pedagogy from the professional learning. A range of contextual factors that impinge on teacher uptake of the new learning and the classroom implementation were discerned by an examination of the broad policy and theoretical contexts beyond the classroom.

In spite of the impinging factors, this study nonetheless provided detailed empirical evidence of how a teacher consciously developed and implemented significant new knowledge about language and pedagogy from the PL in the classroom. The congruence of

the classroom implementation data with the teacher's perceptions about the learning process demonstrated that the teacher was largely conscious of her own learning process. The precise articulation of the teacher's linguistic and pedagogical practices at each stage of implementation made visible a 'linguistically informed pedagogic pathway' (Coffin, 2006, p. 92) for discipline-based literacy teaching. These findings are particularly relevant to the language teaching context in England where the call for the past century for *all* teachers to become teachers of English has not yet been translated into practice.

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1.1 Outline of the chapter

The primary purpose of this study is to determine what impact a scaffolded literacy professional learning programme grounded in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) has on a secondary subject teacher's knowledge about language (KAL) and classroom pedagogy. The need for such a study is explained in this chapter. I provide the motivation for my research into genre-based teacher professional learning (PL) and an historical perspective on the complex policy context for professional learning in the area of language and literacy education in secondary schools in England, establishing the climate in which this study takes place. The chapter leads to and closes with my research questions.

My motivation for undertaking this study (section 1.2) is aligned with calls, repeated in policy documents in England since the 1920s, for *all* teachers to become teachers of language (Newbolt, 1921; Sampson, 1922), a role which implies the need for the type of PL for discipline-based teachers that this research investigates. However, the majority of policy documents in the intervening period have elided the important issue of *how* to enable teachers to address literacy teaching in all subject areas, consequently this extended role has yet to become a reality in schools. While education policy documents frequently refer to curriculum issues concerning language and literacy, the professional learning of teachers tends to be ignored or subsumed in broader policy discussion and recommendations (e.g. Bullock, 1975; Kingman, 1988; Cox, 1989). It was not until the late 1990s, following the supressed LINC training (1989-1992) (section 1.3.6), that teacher professional learning related to the role of language and literacy pedagogy in the secondary school context was specifically addressed at the policy level in England by the National Literacy Strategy (section 1.4).

This chapter discusses the education policy shifts in England since the 1920s (section 1.3) that have had an enduring influence on language and literacy teaching and learning. The impact of these policies has contributed to creating the educational climate in secondary schools that has a direct influence on the uptake of professional learning by teachers, as shown by the teacher case exemplified in this doctoral study. The discussion highlights the complexity that surrounds contested notions of the subject English and the teaching of

English language and literacy. Complex and polarised perspectives on these questions arise from symbolic issues of personal and national identity often resulting in emotionally charged arguments rather than rational discussion around language matters which can impact on teaching in schools.

In the development of language policy in the post-war period, the subtle, yet pervasive, influence of the work of the major architect of Systemic Functional Linguistics, Professor Michael Halliday[1] (see section 1.3) has been a recurring theme, but his ideas have been controversial. This was especially evident in the early 1990s when an ambitious, large scale project influenced by Halliday's theoretical work into classroom pedagogy was thwarted (section, 1.3.6). The introduction of the National Literacy Strategy (NLS) in 1998, however, represented a major shift from previous language policy rhetoric (see section 1.4). The NLS has impacted on the context for my study on three levels. Firstly, it was a nationwide attempt to introduce a pedagogy for literacy teaching that went beyond the notion of 'traditional' grammar teaching. Secondly, the NLS adapted some key ideas regarding language and literacy pedagogy from the early genre-based approach to writing from Australia (Chapter 2). Thirdly, it was the first time that a centrally-organised national teacher professional development programme was devised and 'rolled out' to implement ideas from policy (Chapter 3).

Since 2006 the NLS has been replaced with a more narrowly focused strategy with recommendations for primary schools (The Rose Report, 2006), the most controversial being the use of phonics methods for teaching early reading. Secondary schools, historically having received far less attention in language policy documents, are currently faced with what could be seen as a policy void (see section 1.5). In the absence of national policy guidance, decision making concerning language and literacy and any associated professional learning has been devolved to schools. Examination pressure, however, has created what some see as a de-facto policy of 'teaching to the test' due to the publication of results and school inspection reports (see section 1.5.1). Concurrently, the cross curricular notion of literacy for all teachers seems to have fallen off the national agenda. This situation, however, has opened the door for individual schools to explore different

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[1] MAK Halliday is a linguist in the 'functionalist' tradition of J.R. Firth. He has been the main figure in the development of Systemic Functional Linguistics as an alternative to the formalism (associated especially with Noam Chomsky) of mainstream Linguistics.

approaches to literacy learning and thus provided the opportunity for my doctoral research project. The motivation for undertaking this study follows.

1.2 Motivation for this study of teacher professional learning

This research, in terms of its aims and theoretical approach, is influenced by particular values and experiences that have shaped my own professional life. For almost 40 years I have been concerned with language and literacy education, initially as a secondary school teacher in Australia and later as a school leader and teacher-researcher. For the past 20 years I have continued this work with teacher learners as a provider of professional learning (PL) in Australia, Europe and South America. The focus of all my work has predominantly been to improve the educational outcomes of learners who are considered to be educationally 'disadvantaged'.

In the discipline-based secondary school setting, accelerating language and literacy development of students who are not yet reading and writing independently at the levels expected for their age and stage of schooling requires teachers of all subjects to be involved. The task of discipline-based language and literacy teaching goes beyond what the language teacher alone can provide. My efforts to address this issue of discipline-based literacy teaching and learning in secondary schools led me to work with genre-based pedagogies that draw on Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (described in Chapter 2). The key developer of SFL, Professor Michael Halliday, worked in the United Kingdom (UK) until the 1970s, later relocating to Australia where his work was taken up by educators, initially in Sydney[2], where what has become known as 'Sydney School' genre-based pedagogy developed. This text-based application of SFL to literacy and learning initially focused on writing in different subject areas; however, since the late 1990s it has included work on reading as well as writing in all curriculum areas. It is the implementation of the professional learning for teachers in the genre-based reading and writing classroom methodology called *Reading to Learn[3] (R2L)* (described in Chapters 2 and 3) that is the focus of this research.

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[2] Key figures among the group of linguists and educators to initially take Halliday's ideas into schools in Sydney in the 1980s were, Jim Martin, Joan Rothery and Frances Christie.
[3] *Reading to learn* is the name given to both the professional learning and the genre-based classroom pedagogy for reading and writing developed by David Rose, University of Sydney, Australia. www.readingtolearn.com.au

A major motivation for my study has been to understand more about how teachers make sense of and employ knowledge about language (KAL) drawn from SFL in their classroom pedagogy in an effort to improve the learning of their students. The context for language learning in secondary schools in England, where I now live, resonates with many of my previous experiences in Australia and other parts of Europe, and has provided an opportunity to probe the issue of teacher learning in a new, yet not unfamiliar, environment in secondary schools in disadvantaged areas in inner London.

According to international meta-research of professional learning programmes (Timperley et al., 2007) (discussed in section 3.5), little research has focused on how teachers interpret understandings and utilise the particular skills offered during professional learning. This paucity of understanding about the complex relationship between professional learning opportunities and teaching practice has been referred to as the 'black box' of teacher learning (Timperley et al., 2007, p. xxiii). My study explores this previously under-researched area to contribute to a better understanding of how teachers bring knowledge about language and pedagogy to consciousness and use it as a tool for classroom teaching during a scaffolded[4] literacy professional learning process.

1.3 Overview of educational policy in the United Kingdom as context for the study

To provide a context for the professional learning that forms the basis of this research, this section provides a brief overview of some of the major policy developments concerning language and literacy in England. Although what follows is a somewhat dispassionate account of policy developments concerning the teaching of English, I would like to acknowledge from the outset that the ongoing debate in England around the *what* of the subject English and the *how* of English language and literacy teaching and learning in schools is far from dispassionate. The teaching of English is discussed and debated more than any other school subject (Stubbs, 1989; Kress et al., 2005; Davison et al., 2011) and the surrounding rhetoric is often heated and can become vitriolic. The debate around English is borderless, extending beyond the ambit of educational experts and their institutions. Because of the ways in which language symbolises social and personal identity (Crowley, 1989), it frequently becomes a 'burning' issue attracting interest from many sectors of society. When issues of teaching English, or literacy, rise to the fore on the

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[4] Scaffolding is temporary, structured support designed to move learners forward in their thinking.

public agenda, debates can become fervid as they are quickly fuelled by the mass media airing of varying opinions from a range of individuals and groups across society.

Nonetheless, the purpose of this introduction is to draw out some of the major emphases from a selection of key policy documents to briefly trace the development of the policy perspective to understand its influence on schools, classroom teaching and, by implication, on teacher professional learning. As teaching is a social process, the context for my study is not only influenced by current language and literacy policy, but also by previous policy. When considering the influence of teachers' personal theories of action (Timperley et al., 2007) on their classroom decision making, it is evident that they can be influenced as much by their own experiences as learners during earlier policy periods as by any current policies.

Important in this chapter is the influence of the principal architect of the educationally orientated Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), Michael Halliday. Inspired by his teacher J.R. Firth[5], Halliday began developing his linguistic theory described in Chapter 2. Halliday's view of language as 'a resource for making meaning', transcended traditional ideas of language as a collection of rules and labels for grammatical categories. His focus is on how language is used in different contexts in society to interactively shape and interpret the world and those in it. He developed a functional model of language[6] (section 2.4.1) and his pioneering attempts to apply the model resulted in the development of teaching materials in England during the 1960s[7] with a focus on language *in use* and *for use* which was a radical step away from a prescriptive approach to the teaching of grammar to a descriptive one. This shift away from rule-based school grammars inspired others to pursue the application of SFL as knowledge about how language makes meaning in patterned ways in texts even after his departure from the UK (Halliday & Hasan, 2006).

Following his relocation to Australia in the mid 1970s, Halliday's time as foundation professor of the Department of Linguistics at the University of Sydney saw the rapid growth and development of SFL theory and its application to education as it was taken up

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[5] J.R. Firth (1890-1960) was a British linguist and the first Professor of Linguistics to hold a chair at the University of London.
[6] The functional model of language views language as a socially embedded system which constructs meanings that are realised within a particular context. It is a stratified model that analyses language in terms of four strata: *Context, Semantics, Lexico-Grammar and Phonology-Graphology.*
[7] The materials were: *Breakthrough to literacy* (for teaching initial literacy) (Mackay & Schaub, 1970); *Language in use* (for the secondary school years) (Doughty, Pearce & Thornton, 1971) and *Language and communication 1 and 2* (for the 'middle years of schooling') (Forsyth & Woods, 1980).

by other linguists and educators, eventually leading to what is now known as 'Sydney School' genre pedagogy (Rose & Martin, 2012). The policy overview thus follows the influences of Halliday's work while simultaneously tracing the endurance of shifting notions of 'traditional' English language and literacy teaching.

This brief chronological account of a selection of significant reports on education concerned with the teaching of English language and literacy provides the policy context, past and present, for my study. The major emphasis of each report and its significance with regard to the educational context is highlighted to trace major shifts in focus on different aspects of language and literacy learning.

1.3.1 The Newbolt Report

The significance of the role that language plays in learning has been emphasised repeatedly at the policy level in England over the past century via the parliamentary tradition in the United Kingdom of committees set up to enquire into aspects of education, producing reports with recommendations for the government of the day to consider. Despite frequent policy recommendations to make the teaching of English a responsibility for *all* teachers, the kind of transdisciplinary approach to language teaching and learning that this implies has yet to be translated successfully into action at the school level.

A significant early government report commissioned in the period immediately following the first World War, known as the 'Newbolt Report', *The Teaching of English in England,* (Board of Education, 1921) stated in its opening pages that:

> The inadequate conception of the teaching of English…is not a separate defect which can be separately remedied. It is due to a more far-reaching failure - the failure to conceive the full meaning and possibilities of national education as a whole…in [England] we have no general or national scheme of education (1921, pp. 4-5).

This report, together with a publication by one of the committee members, *English for the English* (Sampson, 1922), played an important role in pointing to inadequacies in educational offerings and positioning English as a key subject that was integral to improving the whole educational landscape. Although the report stressed the importance of

teaching English literature as a way of establishing social unity in the post war period, the most often-cited key recommendation was 'that every teacher is a teacher of English, because every teacher is a teacher in English[8]... If every teacher showed realisation of this in his actual practice, the results achieved in our schools would, we are convinced, undergo a great change' (Board of Education, 1921, p. 63). This recommendation has resurfaced many times in policy documents for almost a century since the Newbolt Report but it has proven very difficult to translate into school-based action. In the context of undertaking this doctoral research in secondary schools in London, it is still commonplace for teachers of subjects other than English to see responsibility for teaching language as outside their remit (National College for Teaching & Leadership, 2015).

With specific regard to subject English, the Newbolt Report seemed to be aligned with a 'personal development' view of English:

> We have treated it as a subject, but at the same time, as a method, the principal whereby education may achieve its ultimate aim giving a wide outlook on life. When that aim is kept in view, it will be found that English as a subject must not take any place which may happen to be vacant, but the first place; and that English as a method must have entry everywhere. (Board of Education, 1921, p. 57)

In spite of the prominence the Newbolt Report gave to learning English and to the role of *all* teachers in the process, as it was not accompanied by a strategy to implement the idea, ultimately the legacy of the report was to place an emphasis on the role of teaching English literature. According to Giovanelli (2014) the messages in the Newbolt Report concerning the role and nature of language teaching remained unclear and the teaching of English language at that time was often understood as the teaching of decontextualised grammar.

This report nonetheless alludes to the question of the underlying debate concerning whether English should focus on the teaching of language – understood as rule-based grammar - or the teaching of literature. The next section discusses this issue further in the context of England in the years following the Newbolt Report when the role of psychology

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[8] This quote is taken from the *Newbolt Report* (1921) but it also appears in *English for the English* (1922), by George Sampson who was on the Newbolt committee. Sampson writes '*Teachers seem to think that it is always some other person's work to look after English. But every teacher is a teacher of English because every teacher is a teacher in English. That sentence should be written in letters of gold over every school doorway* (p. 25). Hereafter, the quote will be referred to as either the 'Newbolt wish' (1921) or cited to Sampson, 1922.

in education emerged to provide a new perspective on the teaching of English. This subsequently gave more prominence to the role of literature in learning and combined with other factors to cast the role of language, or rather, grammar teaching in a less favourable light.

1.3.2 The role of grammar in the teaching of English

It is commonplace for the teaching of languages to be seen as synonymous with the study of grammar. However, in the post-World War II years in England, as in other parts of the English-speaking world, the explicit teaching of grammar fell into decline. According to Hudson and Walmsley (2005), during this period school grammar was regarded as the learning of a set of 'prescriptive' rules and this type of teaching had not been able to demonstrate any beneficial effect on the development of language skills. This issue coupled with other factors such as a lack of research in grammar or linguistics at the university level led to what has been called the 'death of grammar-teaching'[9]. Halliday personally attested to this situation in a 1986 interview when he recalled his experience of writing materials for the Nuffield/Schools Council Programme in Linguistics and English Teaching (1964/71) and not daring to put grammar into the programme as 'no teacher would stand for it' (cited in Martin, 2013, p. 121). Nonetheless, the school project materials his team produced did contain *knowledge about language (KAL),* including grammar, and according to Hudson and Walmsley (2005), the programme's positive long-term effects were to sow the seeds for the more recent developments in language teaching: 'Perhaps the most general idea about grammar which has survived from the project is that grammar is a resource, not a limitation…' (2005, p.18). Other ideas from Halliday's work that were to be influential in shaping language policy in subsequent years were 'language awareness' and 'language in use' (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005, p. 18).

The decline of grammar teaching in England was also compounded from the late 1960s with the publication of the 1967 Plowden Report, *Children and their Primary Schools*. While like many previous reports, it had no specific implementation strategy, it publicly endorsed the notion of 'progressive child-centred', discovery learning based on Piaget's (1952) psychological theory of child development. The teaching of 'traditional' rule-based

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[9] For a detailed discussion of the decline of grammar teaching in schools in England in the post war period see: Hudson, R. & Walmsley, J. (2005) 'The English Patient: English grammar and teaching in the twentieth century', *Journal of Linguistics*, [Online]. vol. 41, no. 3, pp. 593-622. Available from: dickhudson.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/proofs.pdf [Accessed 16 April 2013].

grammar, associated with teacher led 'transmission' pedagogy, was thus cast further into the shadows in the light of the new tide of 'discovery learning'.

The recommendations of the Plowden Report have since been used as a justification for a variety of 'progressive' classroom pedagogies (that may, or may not have been endorsed in the original report[10]) that favour literature for personal development and influenced the adoption of a range of 'hands-off' approaches to language and literacy teaching. These approaches are often difficult to reconcile with pedagogies that call for the explicit teaching of KAL and these differing positions have given rise to vigorous debate in the media and within the education community[11].

Debates about teaching English have become progressively intricate over time as multiple, intersecting perspectives on *what teaching is* and *what English is* are brought to bear on the issues by different theorists and interest groups. The next section discusses a development in policy perspective that shifted the definition of English language from its synonymy with 'grammar' to a set of skills (reading, writing, talking and listening) that would necessarily impact on classroom teaching in all subject areas.

1.3.3 Literacy across the curriculum

The next major report concerning language was not to emerge for more than 50 years after the Newbolt Report, when in 1975 the Bullock Report, *A language for life*, was published, introducing the notion of *literacy* into the mix of perspectives on the teaching of English. Its terms of reference revealed a shift away from the teaching of literature to focus on 'all aspects of teaching the use of English, including reading, writing, and speech; how present practice might be improved and the role that initial and in-service training might play…' along with specific advice on assessment. (1975, p. xxxi) The committee developing the report interpreted its brief broadly as 'language in education', which ranged from the growth of language and reading ability in young children to the teaching of English in the secondary school (1975, p. xxxi).

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[10] See the text of Robin Alexander's invited lecture at the Awards Ceremony of the College of Teachers, May 15, 2009: Plowden, truth and myth: A warning, [Online]. Available at http://www.robinalexander.org.uk/
[11] See an exchange of views between Rosen and Christie: Rosen, M. (2013) 'How genre theory saved the world', *Changing English*, vol. 20, no.1, pp. 3-10, [Online]. Available at http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1358684X.2012.757055 ; Christie, F. (2013) 'Genres and Genre Theory: A Response to Michael Rosen', *Changing English*, vol. 20, no.1, pp. 11-22, [Online]. Available at http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1358684X.2012.757056

This report used the term 'language across the curriculum' which evoked the earlier *Newbolt wish* (1921) for language learning to permeate all school learning. The report made a series of recommendations that sought to promote the notion of teachers in all subjects seeing themselves as language teachers and it included specific recommendations for secondary schools: 'a policy for language across the curriculum should be adopted by every secondary school. We are convinced that the benefits would be out of all proportion to the effort it would demand…' (1975, p. 195).

While the report stopped short of making recommendations concerning professional development for teachers, its cross-curricular recommendations and the specific focus on secondary schools clearly underscored the need to examine and develop the relationship between subject English and the role of language learning in other subject areas. With the introduction of the term 'literacy' which was described as 'a complex set of skills' (DES, 1975, p. 26), the Bullock recommendations called into question the very nature and purpose of the subject English.

In relation to the focus of this research into the teaching of reading in the secondary school, it is significant that the importance of the role of reading in the curriculum was first highlighted in 1975 and that the report also stressed the need for expertise in language teaching:

> Reading must not be thought of as an uncomplicated skill like walking, acquired when young then left to look after itself. Reading, writing, talking and listening are associated abilities which the school should go on developing throughout a pupil's educational life. Teachers can do this only if they understand these abilities, and that means recognising them as an area of learning which demands expert knowledge. In the secondary school, it means an end to the ill-informed view of English that because anyone can speak it anyone can teach it. And it means that all teachers should be made aware in their training of the complex role that language plays in their work, whatever they are teaching (DES, 1975, p. 26).

Although many years were to pass before the Bullock recommendations would be taken further, the earlier *Language in Use* materials for schools (Doughty et al., 1971) produced as a result of Halliday's work with the Nuffield/Schools Council Programme in Linguistics and English Teaching (1964/71), (section 1.3.2) had promoted interest in the notion of

language as a social tool for learning in schools. The use of Halliday's functional approach to linguistics meant that a key area of study in these materials was the nature and function of language (Giovanelli, 2014).

Despite the materials not being taken up widely by teachers due to their use of an unfamiliar investigative methodology, they influenced a new generation of textbooks in the 1970s centred around descriptive inquiry and analysis, representing a shift away from previous prescriptive approaches to language teaching that were based on grammar drills and labelling parts of speech (Keith, 1990). The subtle influence of Halliday's functional model of language and the development of the notion of learning *about* language is traced through further policy developments in the next section.

1.3.4 Language teaching and a theoretical pedagogical model of learning

A little more than a decade after Bullock, the Kingman Report, *The Teaching of English Language* (1988), reveals that little progress had been made in introducing 'language across the curriculum', as this report once again repeated the desire for all teachers to be involved in the teaching of English: 'subject departments concerned with the teaching of language in secondary schools should develop a co-ordinated policy for language teaching' (1998, p. 48). Nonetheless, the Kingman report articulated for the first time the notion of a theoretical pedagogical model of language to guide approaches to teaching and learning, and, importantly from the perspective of my SFL-based research project, Halliday's legacy is evident in the brief for the report, which recommend a *model* of the English language that was to:

> serve as the basis of how teachers are trained to understand how the English language works and to recommend the principles which should guide teachers on how far and in what ways the model should be made explicit to pupils, to make them conscious of how language is used in a range of contexts. (1988, p. 1)

While the Kingman model was written in everyday, skills-related terminology, Giovanelli (2014) proposed that Halliday's theory (see section 2.4.1) was, in fact, its basis by

observing that the Kingman model drew on the notion of language as a social semiotic[12] and reconfigured functional linguistics into a model of language pedagogy suitable for schools.

Additionally, the Kingman report reiterated the recommendation of an earlier discussion document, *English from 5 to 16* (1984), that called not only for the teaching of English language but 'to teach pupils *about* language so that they achieve a working knowledge of its structure and of the variety of ways in which meaning is made, so that they have a vocabulary for discussing it, so that they can use it with greater awareness, and because it is interesting.' (1988, p. 2) This recommendation has been attributed to Halliday's legacy (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005), and is congruent with his tryptic of: 'learning language, learning through language and learning about language…' (Halliday, 1993, p. 112) which guides current genre-based pedagogies.

Thus, in the mix of policy perspectives concerning the nature and teaching of English, by the late 1980s in addition to the concept of literacy, a more theoretical model to guide teacher and student learning *about* language was beginning to emerge. This idea was no longer couched in terms of *grammar* but rather as *knowledge about language* (KAL) which echoes both Halliday's functional model of language and the spirit of the materials he developed for the Nuffield/Schools Council Programme in Linguistics and English Teaching (1964/71).

Nonetheless, the development of policy can take many twists and turns, even over short periods of time, in response to a range of often conflicting national and international economic, social and political concerns. The next section examines two further aspects of English policy development: the acknowledgement of a range of possible interpretations of English and the close alignment of policy in England with ideas emerging from early developments in genre pedagogy in Australia.

1.3.5 Notions of genre pedagogy

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[12] SFL views language as a resource for construing meaning. Halliday, (*Learning How to Mean*, 1975), coined the expression *Language as social semiotic*. In SFL, every act of language is an act of meaning and 'to mean is to act semiotically.'

The Cox Report, *English for ages 5 to 16* (1989), designed to build on the Kingman Report of a year earlier, was however controversial[13]. It articulated 'five views' or models of English: 'a personal growth view, a cross-curricular view, an adult needs view, a cultural heritage view (appreciation of literature) and a cultural analysis view (critical understanding of the world and the cultural environment)' (DES,1989, p. 66). This array of views is testimony to the multiple conceptualisations that have been inscribed onto the subject English. While the articulation of divergent views was intended to please a range of stakeholders, it also serves to highlight the sources of tension that contribute to debates concerning the often-competing notions of the purpose of the English curriculum. When the equally contested notions of literacy and grammar are also added to this range of views, then the nature and purpose of the subject becomes even more elusive and the development of clear policies that can be translated into practice becomes difficult.

Nonetheless, with regard to the often-debated issue of grammar, the Cox report has been regarded by many as an attempt to reform the traditional teaching of English in the light of more recent linguistic knowledge which has been attributed to the influence of Halliday (Stubbs, 1989):

> For grammar to be of relevance to English teaching, it should be: a form of grammar which can describe language in use; relevant to all levels from the syntax of sentences through to the organisation of substantial texts; able to describe the considerable differences between written and spoken English; part of a wider syllabus of language study... Knowledge about sentence syntax is necessary as part of a larger description which includes the structural organisation of whole texts, such as stories, and arguments (DES, 1989, p. 66).

The influence of Halliday's SFL and its ongoing development as genre pedagogy in Australia[14] (Martin, et al., 1988; Rothery, 1989) in the 1980s is evident, although not acknowledged[15] in the Cox report. Early research into the genres of primary schooling in Australia had begun to describe the different social purposes of the texts students were

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[13] For a detailed discussion of the diverse opinions that surrounded the Cox report (1989) see: Gibbons, S.J. (2017) *English and its Teachers: A history of pedagogy, policy, and practice,* London, Routledge.
[14] See: Rose & Martin, 2012, for a description of the first phase of research into genre-based pedagogies, known as *The Writing Project* and *The Language and Social Power* project initiated in 1979 by teacher educator Joan Rothery and discourse analyst J.R. Martin as a result of a seminar on language in education organised by Halliday at The University of Sydney.
[15] Stubs (1989), claims that the Cox report was 'a collage of quotes and plagiarised ideas' (p. 8)

reading and writing and to identify and name the predictable and patterned ways in which meaning unfolded in stages according to purpose. Texts with the same purposes were grouped and named as a *genre* family (see *Table 1*, section 2.5) and teachers were learning to guide their students to understand the patterns in different genres and to use them through interactive modelling to write their own texts.

The influence of this development in SFL pedagogy can be seen in the Cox report (above) as it refers to the relevance of teaching about the structural organisation of whole texts for different purposes and uses the terminology that was emerging in Australia for naming some common school genres: *stories, recounts, reports, explanations* and *arguments*. The combined influence of the Kingman and Cox reports led to the education reform described below and to a new English curriculum which for the first time would be accompanied by teacher learning materials, inspired by the work of Halliday, to support implementation.

1.3.6 Language in the National Curriculum (LINC) project

In 1988, almost 70 years after Newbolt first called for a national system of education, the Education Reform Act introduced the first National Curriculum for England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Based on recommendations from the Kingman and Cox reports, it was a milestone in education history as it enshrined in law *what* had to be taught in schools. It had broad general aims and introduced the notion of Key Stages of schooling with corresponding attainment targets and programmes of study.

Almost simultaneously in 1989, the Language in the National Curriculum (LINC) project was established to provide in-service study materials to support teachers with the implementation of the new English curriculum. This accompaniment to the National Curriculum would for the first time provide advice to teachers on *how* language and literacy should be taught in schools. As the curriculum had become law, it was necessary to redress the previous lack of attention to the key issue of implementation. Since the learning materials were designed for teachers who may have had no formal training or only minimal background in the description of the English language (Carter, 1997), the development of knowledge about language (KAL) was a key feature. The writers of the new materials were inspired by Halliday's work and used the recommendations from the Kingman report to propose a new model of language for education that was largely functional and discourse-based (Giovanelli, 2014).

Astoundingly, after two years of collaborative work between teachers and linguists to develop an extensive range of comprehensive resources, including audio visual material produced by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), and costing millions of pounds, the Conservative government refused to publish the materials. Despite all the public controversy that ensued, the leader of the project, Carter (1997), has since described the issue at the heart of the controversy concerning the materials in a diplomatic fashion that does not reflect the ferocity of the debate at the time:

> The emphasis on language variation and on language in context led to a too frequent reference to social theory and an emphasis on sociolinguistic perspectives. For governments of a particular political persuasion the word *social* is directly equitable with the word *socialist*… The government eventually made it clear that it had preferred all along training materials which emphasised right and wrong uses of English, reinforcing such an emphasis with drills and exercises for teachers and pupils to follow, and with a printed appendix containing the correct answers to the exercises (1997, p. 44).

It is not uncommon in the UK, as in other countries, for ideological clashes concerning the teaching of language and literacy to be played out in public and for the media to provide a platform for different groups to air their views in polarised and even vitriolic debates. The LINC project in its attempt to put the ideas of educational linguists inspired by Halliday into practice represented a 'radical' move away from what the government, the press, the general public and even some teachers regarded as 'traditional' English grammar teaching. This reflects the ongoing difficulty those with specialised knowledge have when trying to implement practices that are not understood by policy makers and other stakeholders.

Nonetheless, although the materials were never allowed to be published, they were distributed in photocopied form for in-service training and became very popular in the United Kingdom and other countries including Australia. In fact, unofficial interest in the materials has endured and they are still available in digital format from the University of Nottingham. Even so, this first attempt to ensure that policy did not simply remain at the ideas level but would actually be translated into classroom practice by providing comprehensive multimedia professional learning materials was thwarted by the

government of the day – popular notions of 'back to basics' had instead prevailed for another decade.

The following section discusses the first national teacher professional development initiative in England that accompanied the National Literacy Strategy in 1998. The National Curriculum had focused on *what* had to be taught and, a decade later, a national implementation strategy detailing *how* it would be taught was 'rolled out' via centrally organised teacher professional development.

1.4 The National Literacy Strategy and genre pedagogy

While the National Curriculum (outlined above) underwent various revisions following its inception in 1988, principally with the aim of reducing its content, its original intention of ensuring that all children were taught essential knowledge in the key subject disciplines was maintained. The most significant policy initiative in terms of providing contextual background for my study of teacher PL came in 1998 when the 'New Labour' government presented a centralised National Literacy Strategy (NLS). The NLS was to be a 'steady, consistent strategy' for raising standards of literacy, which could be sustained over a long period of time (Beard, 1998). It consisted of targets for achievement, a *Framework for Teaching* (DfEE, 1998), a teacher professional development programme and other community-based elements. The hallmark of this strategy was the 'Literacy Hour' which prescribed not only *what* should be taught but *how* it should be taught. It was initially introduced at the primary school level (Key Stages 1 & 2) and then extended in 2001 as the Literacy Strand for the first three years of secondary school (Key Stage 3).

The strategy drew on research from within the UK, from the USA and Australia (Beard, 1998). The influence of Halliday's functional model of language could be discerned in the model of reading and writing used in the *Framework for Teaching* which had a subdivision between *word level*,[16] *sentence level* and *text level* work reflective of the *strata* in the SFL model of language (see section 2.4.1). Another idea in the NLS that was attributed to Halliday was also seen in the focus on understanding and talking about how language works, with explicit teaching about language structure. According to the British linguist

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[16] The convention of writing terms from Systemic Functional Linguistics in *italics* is used in this dissertation.

Dick Hudson (2005), the strategy was a 'major revolution in British language education'. Now:

> prescription is dead – non-standard varieties are tolerated, as are informal registers; variety is accepted, but different varieties are suited to different occasions, so the focus is now on the matching of variety to context (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005, p. 23).

However, though some of Halliday's 'ideas' about functional grammar could be identified in the NLS, as Walsh (2006) points out, 'the model of grammar adopted was a hybrid version of formal or traditional, descriptive grammar…' (2006, p. 159).

Thus, despite the Literacy Strategy in the UK owing much to the early work of the genre theorists in Australia, the pedagogy was not true to the theory. While some 'ideas' from the work on textual genre (Christie, 1985; Rothery, 1989; Derewianka, 1990) may have inspired the NLS, it was overshadowed by David Wray and Maureen Lewis's 'paragraph frames' (Lewis, 2000, p.15). These frames represented a reductionist view, not only of the SFL concept of genre but of its associated pedagogy. While writing frames (Lewis & Wray, 1998), a series of 'paragraph and sentence starters', may have offered some support to student writers, they were not part of the genre writing pedagogy that was developed in Australia. This misconception led to a serious misunderstanding and rejection of genre approaches in the UK (e.g. Rosen, 2013). In genre pedagogy, the interactive teacher guidance to deconstruct a model text, build linguistic and content knowledge and provide the scaffolding for both joint and individual writing of a new text (Rothery, 1995) is based on knowledge of linguistics and of pedagogy (Bruner, 1986; Vygotsky, 1978). Far from a recipe for paragraph writing, it has continued to be developed with more research into secondary and tertiary education genres around the world, incorporating critical views on the content of texts and roles of genres in society (see e.g. Martin & Rose, 2008; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Rose & Martin, 2012).

In the light of the amount of theoretical knowledge genre pedagogy is based on, it is not surprising the issue of adequate professional learning for teachers charged with responsibility for the complex task of developing student literacy and learning was a major

challenge for the successful implementation of the NLS[17]. The *Final Report* (OISEUT, 2003) commissioned by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) on the NLS found that much had been accomplished but due to a persistent lack of pedagogical understanding more in-service development was required (2003, p. 12). Without an appreciation of the complexity of the teacher learning process and the provision of adequate resources for the undertaking, opportunities for simplistic 'quick fix' solutions to be brought into the classroom enabled narrow, inadequate and reductionist pedagogic solutions to prevail.

In terms of the new prominence given to the 'hybrid' grammar in the NLS, Hudson and Walmsley (2005), expressed concern about the inability of teachers who were emerging from a period of 'grammar-free' education to implement the framework. They acknowledged that teacher education in grammar was far from adequate and had mixed reactions to the in-service education initiatives of the NLS: '…central government produced packages of material for use in one-day courses for serving teachers, as well as some printed reference material. These packages are all pitched at an extremely elementary level in terms of linguistic knowledge… Most school teachers are still struggling to come to terms with the ideas and terminology of grammar…' (2005, p. 25).

So, while the provision of professional development was one of the strengths of the NLS, it was simultaneously a weakness due to its reductionist design. The centrally organised one-day, 'rollout' approach that was its hallmark, underestimated the need for in-depth scaffolding of teacher learning. The content of the literacy hour borrowed a number of ideas from 'Sydney School' genre pedagogy but by simplifying the process much of the strength of the approach was lost. My study, two decades on from the NLS, researches an opportunity for supported professional learning for teachers that uses a more theorised and pedagogically robust version of the early genre pedagogy that includes strategies for reading curriculum texts. The classroom data in my study moves beyond the pedagogy 'as prescribed' enabling an examination of the pedagogy 'as enacted' (Alexander, 2012) in the classroom in all its complexity.

The next section discusses some of the more recent policy developments in language and literacy education that replaced the NLS.

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[17] Reference to the NLS here does not include the subsequent national strategies: the National Numeracy Strategy, the Key Stage 3 Strategy and the Early years foundation Stage which are all reported on by the Department for Education in its 2011 publication, The National Strategies 1997 -2011.

1.4.1 A focus on reading in the primary school

In 2006 the National Literacy Strategy was replaced with a Primary National Strategy for both literacy and numeracy. The introduction to the Primary Framework for Literacy and Mathematics states that national test results had shown that progress had not been sustained across the board by the previous NLS and the need for improved results in reading was highlighted. The focus for the new strategy was on Key Stage 1 and included the recommendations of the *Independent review of the teaching of early reading*, the Rose Report, (2006) which placed importance on the central role of teaching 'synthetic phonics' to accelerate early reading. Although the new Framework has advisory status only, allowing schools to make decisions locally, the recommendation has served to renew vigorous debate about the most appropriate method for teaching beginning reading (Gibb & Rosen, 2013) 'decoding' versus more 'holistic' methods that focus on reading texts for meaning and enjoyment.

The most recent policy review into the Standard Attainment Tests (SATs) for 11-year-olds, led by Lord Bew in 2011, resulted in the introduction of tests of spelling, punctuation, grammar and vocabulary (SPaG) in the final year of Key Stage 2. Teachers would continue to assess student writing composition in a broad range of genres during Year 6. However, the more technical aspects of English – such as spelling, punctuation, grammar and vocabulary – were viewed differently, in that they are deemed to be assessed effectively via an externally marked test (Bew, 2011). This once again shows the pervasiveness of traditional views of language teaching that reduce it to the teaching and testing of right or wrong answers on a grammar test (see Chapter 2). Even though there is an argument that this should promote the development of student knowledge about language, repeated studies on the effects of this type of summative assessment have shown that they can have a very narrowing 'backwash' effect on the curriculum and the quality of teaching and the student experience (Torrance, 2011).

The policies introduced since 2006 have been developed as a response to specific areas of underachievement that have been identified in national testing programmes in primary schools. They are narrowly focused and again are not accompanied by professional development which is currently a matter for schools to decide (see the discussion in Chapter 3). In the current climate, due to the absence of any comprehensive literacy policy

initiatives since the NLS, coupled with the increasing focus on national testing, what could be seen as a 'policy void' (see Chapter 3) has come to be filled to a large extent by the demands of testing such as the abovementioned SATs in Year 6.

The next section takes up these issues from the perspective of secondary schools through a discussion of the current policy documents that refer to literacy in the secondary context, that of my research.

1.5 Literacy policy as it relates to secondary schools

While the more recent policy initiatives (referred to in 1.4.1 above) do not focus on literacy in secondary schools; the All-Party Parliamentary Group for Education report (2011) notes that literacy is not just a primary school issue. However, it points out that it is more difficult for secondary schools to tackle literacy as a distinct issue because secondary teachers are not used to teaching basic skills and furthermore subject English does not incorporate the skills-based approach of literacy. (APPG, 2011, p. 8)

Although explicit references to the initial call for *every teacher to be a teacher of English* (Sampson, 1922), later echoed as 'literacy across the curriculum' (1975) have disappeared from current policy rhetoric; the Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted) still highlights that literacy is important for *all* teachers. In their report *Improving literacy in secondary schools: A shared responsibility* (2013), they assert literacy's enabling power with a quotation from Kassam (1994):

> To be literate is to gain a voice and to participate meaningfully and assertively in decisions that affect one's life. To be literate is to gain self-confidence. To be literate is to become self-assertive…Literacy enables people to read their own world and to write their own history…Literacy provides access to written knowledge – and knowledge is power. In a nutshell, literacy empowers. (Ofsted, 2013, p. 41)

Notwithstanding, by using the above assertion about literacy, Ofsted seems to be aligning itself with a Freirean (1970) 'critical consciousness' notion of literacy[18]. This stance may of course be reflected in the 'smorgasbord' of constructivist pedagogies (see discussion in Chapter 2) that are enacted in some classrooms in England, echoing the ideas of the Plowden Report (1967). Nevertheless, the Ofsted report continues in the tradition of previous reports, by offering only diffuse guidance about *how* schools and teachers could improve literacy to *empower* students:

- involve all teachers and demonstrate how they are all engaged in using language to promote learning in their subject
- identify the particular needs of all pupils in reading, writing, speaking and listening
- make strong links between school and home
- plan for the longer term, emphasising the integral relationship between language for learning and effective teaching in all subjects (Ofsted, 2013, p. 41).

The definition of literacy and the advice from the report seem to be deliberately broad, implying that schools should use the advice to develop their own implementation strategies. This position, however, seems almost incommensurable with the acknowledgement earlier in the report that secondary teachers often have little understanding of how literacy might be related to discipline area teaching. It states that 'teachers in a secondary school need to understand that literacy is a key issue regardless of the subject taught (2013, p. 8)'. This statement points to an unmet need for teacher professional development which is articulated clearly in another recommendation that urges school leaders to establish training programmes when teachers need support in teaching literacy skills. Notwithstanding the mixed messages in the report, its very existence does indicate that Ofsted views literacy as a relevant issue for secondary schools and that it requires improvement.

A similar view regarding literacy is echoed by the Teachers' Standards in England, which require that teachers 'demonstrate an understanding of and take responsibility for

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[18] Freire (1970) is known for *Critical pedagogy* which attempts to help students question and challenge posited 'domination' and to undermine the beliefs and practices that are alleged to dominate. *'Reading the world, not just reading the word.'*

promoting high standards of literacy, articulacy and the correct use of standard English, whatever their specialist subject' (DfE, 2012, p.11)[19]. Nonetheless, the lack of specific guidance concerning literacy for secondary schools has created a policy void, in spite of it being promoted as a worthwhile idea. This is compounded by the fact that literacy has been posited at cross purposes with the discipline-based organisation of secondary schools, meaning it continues to be associated only with English, English as an Additional Language (EAL) and special education. So even when there is support for the idea of discipline-based literacy, there are few enabling mechanisms in the secondary school environment to support such change.

Secondary schools, however, have largely filled the policy void by allowing published student results and good Ofsted inspection ratings to become their goals and examination requirements have thus become their guidelines (discussed in detail in Chapter 3). In these circumstances, subject specific examination requirements have become the *what* of the enacted curriculum. These requirements are usually prioritised over the broader aims of literacy improvement, despite the potential gains for students that are alluded to in the policy documents if teachers include literacy in their discipline-based teaching. The trend to 'teach to the test' and prepare for exams using the most expedient pedagogy to hand figure prominently in terms of the *how* of teaching (Dorling, 2016). Even though examination preparation is underpinned by literacy in all discipline areas, it is hard to recognise literacy as a *visible* pedagogy beyond English, EAL or special education classrooms.

The next section examines how assessment has emerged as one of the key drivers of secondary curriculum in the absence of clear policy guidance.

1.5.1 Examination driven secondary school curriculum and teaching

As discussed above, current education policy provides little specific pedagogical guidance to secondary schools concerning the development of literacy, instead the emphasis for secondary schools has been on improving exam results. A key focus has been on the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) which was first awarded in 1988 at the termination of compulsory schooling. This marked the beginning of a phase of exam

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[19] This as a requirement for entry into the teaching profession in England and Wales

driven educational change in England. Despite much debate leading to many modifications (Torrance, 2011), the standards-based, test driven system has remained the key policy response to frame the curriculum and encourage school improvement particularly for secondary schools (this issue is discussed further in Chapter 3).

While the national outcome of the rigorous testing regimes has been a reported improvement in results, other evidence suggests that, if anything, actual standards of achievement are falling, and grade inflation is undermining the whole system (Torrance, 2011). This is shown by the mediocre results in international comparison studies such as PISA[20] (Adams, 2013; Wiertz, 2015) which contrast with the trend towards rising exam grades nationally. The recent study, *Building Skills for All: Review of England,* undertaken by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (2016) showed a similar trend, reporting that not only are young people in England less skilled than their peers in other OECD countries, but that, despite 16-24 year olds having more qualifications at higher levels than those aged 55-65, their skills are not more developed. This suggests that qualifications in England may no longer be a reasonable indicator of skills. Notwithstanding, the education agenda continues to focus on raising attainment standards, accountability and testing, with test results used more and more publicly (Isaacs, 2010).

My study takes place in this environment, one in which a desire exists to further develop the idea of *literacy for all* in secondary schools, even though there is no real policy push or recommended approach. In the face of the pressure of examinations, some secondary schools were interested in becoming involved in teacher professional development and their teachers readily volunteered to participate in the professional learning process that underpins my research.

The next section introduces the genre-based approach to reading and writing that forms the basis of my study.

1.6 The 'Sydney School' and genre-based approaches to literacy learning

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[20] The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) is a triennial international survey which aims to evaluate education systems worldwide by testing the skills and knowledge of 15-year-old students.

The research and ongoing development of genre-based pedagogy in Australia is now into its fourth decade. There is an extensive body of literature available and linguists and educators around the world are involved in disseminating previous research and associated pedagogical applications while simultaneously undertaking further research into the linguistics and pedagogy. Outside of Australia, genre pedagogy has many proliferations, hence the term 'Sydney School' genre pedagogy is used here to identify the genre pedagogy developed in Australia and based on Halliday's SFL. The simplified 'writing-frame' version of genre pedagogy known in the UK has little in common with the SFL-based 'Teaching and Learning Cycle' (T&L cycle) (Rothery, 1994), or the more recent form used in my study, *Reading to Learn (R2L)*, incorporating Martin and Rose's (2008) development of discourse semantics, coupled with notions from Bernstein's (1996/2000) work on pedagogic discourse.

Although the theoretical underpinnings of the Reading to Learn (R2L) pedagogy are elaborate, its enactment in the classroom appears deceptively simple and similar in some aspects to classroom strategies teachers may already be familiar with. To enact the pedagogy, however, teachers need to be thoroughly prepared and plan carefully for each stage of the lesson through a series of different phases and cycles to read for meaning and then use the understandings from reading as well as the language structures and features of the text to model writing for the class. To enact this pedagogy teachers cannot rely simply on their intuitive knowledge about language, they are required to use their conscious knowledge of the SFL model. Thus, they are able to convert language into an effective tool for learning that can be discussed and shared with students who can then adopt it as tool for their own independent learning.

While the pressurised exam context in secondary schools in England may not seem like an ideal environment to undertake research into this type of extended and in-depth professional learning, the lack of policy advice and the discretion given to schools means that they have the opportunity to explore different professional learning opportunities. So, while my study was undertaken within the constraints of the context, schools and teachers participated freely and with largely open minds.

The next section describes the specific context for this doctoral study and presents the research questions.

1.7 My study and the research questions

The precursor to my study is a series of large-scale action research projects into the implementation of *Reading to Learn (R2L)* professional learning undertaken in Australia and Europe over the past 15 years (Culican, 2005; Acevedo & Rose, 2007a; Acevedo & Rose, 2007b; Acevedo, 2010; Coffin, Acevedo & Lövstedt, 2013; Whittaker & Acevedo, 2016). The dissemination of project reports on improved student literacy achievement in a range of subject areas created interest from some London schools in exploring the pedagogy. Teachers were provided with time to participate in the professional learning and their subsequent classroom implementation is the focus of my study. It investigates how teachers' tacit knowledge about the role of language in pedagogy develops, as it is brought to consciousness during professional learning in genre-based reading and writing pedagogy, conducted over a school year.

The title of my study is motivated by Halliday's (1985) reflections on learning language:

> language is unique among cultural processes in the extent to which it remains below the level of consciousness' (cited in Martin, 2013, p. 78).

> …what the school requires is for you to bring language back to consciousness… Becoming literate means reflecting consciously on your language (cited in Martin, 2013, p.138).

The sequence of the professional learning is likewise inspired by Halliday's reflections in that it begins by building on teachers' pre-existing (often tacit) knowledge about language (KAL) and supplementing it with 'just enough' new KAL to enable them to work progressively with each step in the genre pedagogy sequence. Enacting the pedagogy in the classroom provokes questions about language and thus the new KAL is developed gradually in relation to particular steps in the pedagogy so that the professional learning experience raises teachers' awareness of the role of language in learning and enables them to use it consciously as a pedagogical tool in any subject area. The overarching question that drives the research seeks to explore *how conscious* a teacher becomes about her own professional learning about language and pedagogy. The teacher's uptake of the pedagogy is studied via her planning and classroom implementation as well as by probing her perceptions of the new learning to determine to what extend she is conscious about the role

of language in her enactment of the pedagogy:

> What impact does scaffolded literacy professional learning grounded in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) have on a secondary subject teacher's knowledge about language and its use as part of classroom pedagogy?

The specific research questions are designed to probe three relevant factors further:

Question 1. What are the contextual factors that impact on a teacher's uptake of the professional learning in terms of knowledge about language and classroom practice?

Question 2. How does the professional learning (PL) impact on a teacher's classroom practice as evidenced in lesson planning and classroom interactions?

Question 3. What are the teacher's perceptions of the professional learning and its influence on classroom practice?

This introductory chapter, designed to respond to research Question 1, has developed a picture of how the overall context for literacy professional learning in secondary schools has become more complex over time to impact on teachers, and specifically on the teacher in the London school where my study takes place. Despite the fact that the notion of *all* teachers being responsible for language and literacy development has been advanced repeatedly over time in policy, it has fallen prey to a century of inertia, leaving secondary schools bereft of any specific advice on *how* to bring this idea to fruition. Even though the influence of policy has diminished and an exam driven curriculum now dominates teaching practices, it is perhaps because of the void in policy that a window of opportunity has opened for some schools to explore professional learning in the discipline areas that addresses the '*Newbolt wish*' (1921) for *all* teachers to become teachers of language.

The next chapter provides the background to respond to research Question 1, by focusing on the differing underlying theoretical perspectives and often tacit beliefs about the nature and purposes of schooling and the nature of language itself that give rise to a plethora of disparate literacy pedagogies. The discussion of a range of diverging perspectives also contributes towards an explanation for the ongoing controversy in debates around issues of language and literacy learning that have been raised in this chapter.

Chapter 2 - Literacy and pedagogy: underpinnings and practice

2.1 Introduction

The policy debates about literacy, pedagogy and the curriculum, referred to in Chapter 1, are rooted in differing and often conflicting underlying views not only about the nature and purposes of schooling but also about the nature of language itself and necessarily how it is learnt. These differing perspectives give rise to the adoption of disparate pedagogies and subsequent claims and counter claims concerning their efficacy. This chapter complements the discussion of policy in Chapter 1 by exploring these underlying views as they relate to classroom teaching, to contribute to the development of a theoretical context that will enable an understanding of the impact of theory on the focus teacher's uptake of the professional learning in response to research Question 1: *What are the contextual factors that impact on a teacher's uptake of the professional learning in terms of knowledge about language and classroom practice?*

Research into teacher professional learning (Timperley et al., 2007) indicates that teachers hold implicit theories about teaching and learning that inform all aspects of their decision making, planning and classroom teaching; yet these theories are often tacit, and even inconsistent in their application. The PL research (Timperley et al., 2007) indicates that unless teachers' current theories are engaged and examined then any new practice is likely to become layered onto existing practice, rather than replacing it (p. xxxix). This chapter discusses a number of such theories in order to provide a context to examine the theoretical positioning of a teacher prior to the professional learning, to contextualise the stance that is adopted in this thesis with regard to literacy, pedagogy and curriculum, as well as to frame the presentation and analysis of classroom data in Chapter 5.

2.2 Theoretical orientations to teaching, learning, curriculum and literacy

Theoretical perspectives underpinning literacy pedagogies may have origins that date as far back as the ancient Greeks (e.g. Aristotle, *De Anima*, Book III, 4th Century BC) before gaining credence in England in the early modern period (e.g. Locke, 1689). In the contemporary period, differing and variously named theoretical positions have led to a proliferation of pedagogies that impact on literacy (Skinner, 1957; Britton, 1970; Barnes 1976/1992; Bloom, 1976; Piaget, 1976; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976; Halliday, 1978;

Vygotsky, 1978; Reddy, 1979; Graves, 1983; Christie, 1985; Chomsky, 1986; von Glasersfeld, 1995; Cummins, 2000; Gibbons, 2002; Mercer, 2003; Hudson & Walmsley, 2005; Myhill & Jones, 2011; Alexander, 2012; Rose & Martin, 2012). Teachers' theoretical orientations to learning are often tacitly acquired through observation and participation in longstanding classroom routines, allowing them to become 'naturalised' as commonly held 'folk theories' (Kövecses, 2002, p. 109) which often remain unexamined. The following theoretical overview provides a platform for subsequent discussion of differing pedagogies, both those that might be unarticulated and difficult to discern in everyday classroom practice, as well as the genre pedagogy that the teacher in this study is endeavouring to make visible in her classroom teaching.

These divergent theoretical perspectives are not discrete, but are drawn from philosophy, psychology and sociology and often combine different elements from these and other disciplines. Theories change over time as does their influence and popular appeal. The metaphor of the 'pendulum' has often been used to characterise the shifts to and fro over time between what are seen as oppositional views about language and learning and curriculum. While the pendulum metaphor views these issues as merely dichotomous, it is a convenient way to cluster a variety of theoretical positions towards opposing ends of a continuum. The discussion here uses the notion of weighting divergent tendencies along a continuum to allow for exploration of differing interpretations of the theories and their associated pedagogies.

The starting point for the discussion is divergent epistemological tendencies, as questions about knowledge are of fundamental importance to education and how these questions are answered has implications for the development of theories of learning and the implementation of a range of associated classroom pedagogies. While epistemological positioning does not tend to arise explicitly in popular debates concerning education; it is nonetheless often the underlying adherence of individuals and groups to positions that gives rise to the conflict of ideas around education. In the following sections the epistemological stances of objectivism and constructivism are discussed in turn in relation to the theories of teaching and learning and the view of language that is broadly associated with each stance. The fundamental question these differing positions address is whether knowledge is absolute and separate from the knower, corresponding to an objective external reality; or, whether it is part of the knower and relative to the experiences the individual constructs through interaction with the environment.

2.2.1 Objectivist epistemology

According to the objectivist view, objects have intrinsic meaning and knowledge is a reflection of this correspondence to reality. In this tradition, knowledge represents a real world that is separate and independent of the knower and this knowledge should be considered true only if it correctly reflects that independent world (Jonassen, 1991). Objectivists also adhere to the notion of *tabula rasa*, drawn from the writings of Aristotle in *De Anima*, the belief that at birth the mind of the child is like a blank slate onto which ideas are subsequently imprinted by the reaction of the senses to the external world of objects. In 17th century England, Locke (1689), subscribing to Aristotle's view, proposed that the mind at birth was like 'white paper' and advocated education via the development of a healthy body, the formation of a virtuous character, and the choice of an appropriate academic curriculum (Locke, 1690). Objectivist views have become 'naturalised' as part of educational thought via generations of classroom practice. They are often described as 'traditional' views and can be inscribed with many virtuous attributes in public education debates concerning policy and practice as outlined in Chapter 1.

For objectivists, as there is only one correct understanding of any topic, knowledge and learning are achieved when the learner's mind mirrors this reality. Learning, then, is defined as change in behaviour and/or in the learner's cognition. This implies that the business of teaching is to transfer objective knowledge into the mind of the learner, and this can be verified by observation or testing.

I now turn to some of the pedagogical implications of the objectivist position for teaching and learning.

2.2.2 Objectivist theories of teaching and learning

Objectivist epistemology is most closely associated with behaviourist psychology, not least because of the view that learning can be defined as change in observable behaviour. This led psychologists such as Thorndike (1932), Pavlov (1955) and Skinner (1957) to develop a learning theory of stimulus-response with positive reinforcement. This learning theory gives prominence to curriculum knowledge, with the teacher's role to transmit that knowledge to students, as passive recipients. In it, knowledge, a type of commodity, is

transferred from teacher to student, after which the product of learning is displayed by the student proving that learning has taken place. It is exemplified in current education settings by teaching methods such as; lectures in tertiary institutions, 'teaching is telling'; in the secondary school by 'chalk and talk', and in the primary school by 'rote learning'.

Many of the educational practices attributed to behaviourist theory have been criticised for being too teacher-directed, driven by teacher-talk and having a heavy dependence on textbooks and curriculum materials. Critics of transmission pedagogy also claim that it limits opportunities for students to interact with each other or the teacher, thereby inhibiting the development of thinking skills. This is exacerbated by success measures that focus on students 'regurgitating' their received wisdom in tests and exams which has the effect of narrowing the curriculum to focus on the test items (see discussion of GCSE examinations in Chapters 1 and 3).

Nonetheless, it is not likely that all of these characteristics can solely be attributed to behaviourism, particularly as it lacks a focus on cognitive functions but certain clearly 'Skinnerian rules' such as positive and negative reinforcement are commonplace in schools. Other methods that could be classed as neo-behaviourist include: 'mastery learning' (Bloom, 1976), modelling, providing cues for certain behaviours, teacher-student contracts, consequences, and behaviour modification programmes (Standridge, 2002).

Much of what is referred to as 'transmission pedagogy' or, 'teaching is telling', is almost the 'default' position that teachers tend to adopt, sometimes routinely, but most frequently in the later years of schooling when faced with time constraints and exam pressures. In meta-research into effective learning, Hattie (2012) reported that in one study, after teachers in grades 6-12 were timed on 28,000 occasions, they were found to have spent 70 to 80 percent of their lesson time talking (p. 5). This coupled with the emphasis on testing and examinations referred to in Chapter 1 (and discussed further in Chapter 3) is an indication that many underlying objectivist views prevail in the current education system in England and elsewhere.

The next section moves from the discussion of the objectivist perspective as it applies to theories of language learning.

2.2.3 Language from the objectivist perspective

The objectivist theory concerning knowledge as a commodity has a related view of language as a 'conduit' for the transfer of knowledge, information, thoughts and feelings between individuals via spoken and written language. In other words, it objectifies meaning and 'influences us to talk and think about thoughts as if they had the same kind of external, intersubjective reality as lamps and tables' (Reddy, 1979, p. 308). While this view acknowledges that language must be learnt, it implies a separation of language from the content or knowledge it conveys, creating a theory of language as the means or *form* to transmit the content. Communication is seen as a process of speakers encoding thoughts or meanings into words which are like 'packages of meanings' to be conveyed to receivers who decode the words back into meanings.

Gibbons (2006) asserts that:

> In language teaching this has tended to lead to teaching the component parts of language separately, beginning with elements seen as "simple" and progressing to more complex forms; for example, phonics instruction as a prerequisite for reading, and spelling and grammar as a prerequisite for writing' (2006, p. 17)[21].

This idea of breaking learning into small steps to be mastered before going on to the next step is also exemplified in audio-lingual 'mastery learning' approaches (Bloom, 1976).

Gibbons (2006) and Cummins (2000) share similar concerns about the type of narrowly focused teaching practices that this view of language promotes and according to their experience it is the dominant form of language teaching used for groups of disadvantaged students who are seen to have language 'deficits' and are therefore in need of 'back to basics' instruction that deprives them of learning that promotes an integrated approach to language learning and development of thinking skills. Cummins is also particularly critical of scripted phonics programmes that have been promoted as a 'quick fix' for reading and overall academic progress.

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[21] Similar responses to the teaching of phonics in the UK can be found in: Walker-Gleaves, C., & Waugh, D. (2017). Looking After Literacy: A Whole Child Approach to Effective Literacy, London, Sage; The National Association of Teachers of English (NATE) (2006) https://ukla.org/downloads/NATE_Phonics_and_early_reading_report.pdf ; and the response to teaching phonics from an EAL perspective from the National Association for Language Development in the Curriculum (NALDIC) (2006) http://www.naldic.org.uk/Resources/NALDIC/Home/Documents/NALDICresponsetotheRosereview.pdf

Furthermore, Reddy (1979) claims that the 'conduit' view of language is pervasive, unexamined and dominates English speakers' ways of perceiving language[22]. While Reddy's assertion has been re-examined in terms of its relevance to the field of conceptual metaphor (Grady, 1998); according to others (Kövecses, 2002; Taylor, 2002), the formulation of the 'conduit' metaphor has become the most widely accepted account of the dominant way in which speakers of English talk and think about communication. If this is the case, it would contribute to a plausible explanation for the ambivalence that inevitably follows the repeated calls, over almost a century, for 'all teachers to be teachers of language' (discussed in Chapter 1). While the proposal may receive support, it does little to alter embedded beliefs about language, that it is separate from thought and merely a vehicle for conveying meaning. As such, it is not perceived as a legitimate concern for subject teachers. On the policy level, this position also explains why the 'back to basics' solution to issues of language and literacy learning keeps resurfacing.

Following is a discussion of what is often seen as an oppositional epistemological stance to objectivism.

2.2.4 Constructivist epistemology

Often characterised in contrast with the objectivist stance, constructivist epistemology takes a subjective view of knowledge, seeing it as part of the knower and relative to the experiences of the individual in the environment. It holds that while reality may have a separate existence from experience, it can only be known through experience, resulting in a personally unique reality (von Glasersfeld, 1995)[23]. Apart from agreement on this fundamental point, however, constructivism has been defined and interpreted in many different ways so while it could be placed at the opposite end of an epistemological continuum when compared to the objectivist stance, it almost requires a continuum of its own to be fully explored. Notwithstanding, to provide a context for this research, just two dimensions of constructivism are focused on in the following sections; individual and social constructivism.

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[22] Some examples of Reddy's (1979) communication metaphors implying that human language functions like a conduit to transfer information from one individual to another; *to give an idea; to get concepts into your head; "A" got the concept from "B"; to get it across.* Ejecting into external space: *to pour out; to kick around ideas.* Independently reified in space: *floating around.* (Reddy 1979, pp. 311-320).
[23] von Glasersfeld is particularly associated with *radical* constructivism.

2.2.5 Individual constructivism

The work of the Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget is usually associated with cognitive or individual constructivism. His well-known theory of developmental child psychology is based on the ideas of biological maturation and interaction between the child and the environment. [24] For Piaget, intellectual growth proceeds through developmental stages involving individual adaptation to the environment while simultaneously learning increasingly complex schemata[25] or ways of organising knowledge (Piaget, 1976). The work of this influential psychologist led to the development of an educational ideology of individualised, activity-based learning that allows students to discover and build knowledge for themselves. According to Piaget, development precedes learning so the concept of 'readiness' to learn led constructivist classrooms to accept individual differences and to allow children to construct knowledge that is meaningful for them at their own stage of development, making traditional whole-class teaching far less relevant. This theory rejects the objectivist notion of *tabula rasa,* and its implications for teaching and learning are discussed in the following section.

2.2.6 Influence of individual constructivism on learning and the teacher role

This emphasis on the needs of the learner and the process of learning itself, rather than the product, requires the teacher to listen, observe and diagnose an appropriate learning pathway for each student as they become developmentally ready for the next stage of learning. The role of the teacher in a constructivist classroom is therefore not to dispense knowledge and has been likened to that of a 'midwife in the birth of understanding' as the teacher is to provide opportunities and incentives for students to build up their own knowledge (von Glasersfeld, 1995, p.7). The traditional role of the teacher as 'sage on the stage' was challenged by constructivists who re-imagined the teacher as a 'facilitator' of learning or a 'guide on the side' which raised issues about the adequate preparation of teachers for this new and more demanding role.

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[24] Piaget, J. (1952) proposes four developmental phases: sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational and formal operational.
[25] According to Piaget's theory, *schemata* are a series of linked mental models of the world that are used to understand and respond to different situations. When schemata are in *equilibrium* they are capable of explaining phenomena. Intellectual growth occurs via adaptation of schemata to new situations that arise through experience of the world; firstly, by *assimilation* and finally by *accommodation* of the previous schemata to a new situation.

The very nature of the constructivist epistemology raised an issue for teachers in that it provides for a theory of learning but it has little to say about a theory of teaching other than a set of concepts such as; group work, discovery learning, problem-based learning, experiential learning, enquiry-based learning, task-based learning, collaborative learning, student ownership of learning, authentic real-world learning, active engagement and student self-regulation. Constructivist learning has been variously interpreted but it is difficult to define. It is often described using amorphous terms such as 'progressivism' and 'child-centred' to distinguish it from the 'teacher-centred', 'transmission pedagogies' which had been traditional in schools in England prior to the publication of Piaget's work in English in 1952. The implications of the endorsement of progressive education policy in England in the 1960s, which represented a shift from more traditional transmission style pedagogy is discussed in the next section.

2.2.7 Individual constructivism or 'progressivism' in policy and practice

The recommendations of the 1967 Plowden Report (mentioned in Chapter 1) exemplify Piagetian constructivist learning theory:

> The teacher has to be prepared to follow up the personal interests of the children who, either singly, or in groups, follow divergent paths of discovery. Books of reference, maps, enquiries of local officials, museums, archives, elderly residents in the area are all called upon to give the information needed to complete the picture that the child is seeking to construct. When this enthusiasm is unleashed in a class, the timetable may even be dispensed with… (Plowden, 1967, p. 544).

While the report had no specific implementation strategy, it came to be associated with the wave of constructivist learning which followed and has continued to polarise opinion about education in England. Ironically, Alexander and his colleagues reported in what was known as the Three Wise Men Report (1992)[26], that:

> The commonly held belief that primary schools, after 1967, were swept by a tide of progressivism is untrue. HMI[27] in 1978, for example, reported that only 5 per cent

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[26] See: Alexander, R.J., Rose, J., & Woodhead, C. (1992) Curriculum organisation and classroom practice in primary schools: A discussion paper (the 'three wise men' report), London, Department for Education and Science.
[27] HMI – Her Majesty's Inspectors of schools

of classrooms exhibited wholeheartedly 'exploratory' characteristics and that didactic teaching was still practised in three-quarters of them ... The reality, then, was rather more complex. The ideas connoted by words like 'progressive' and 'informal' had a profound impact in certain schools and LEAs[28]. Elsewhere they were either ignored, or ... adopted as so much rhetoric to sustain practice which in visual terms might look attractive and busy but which lacked any serious educational rationale. (Alexander, Rose, & Woodhead, 1992, p. 9).

The 1992 report called into question not only the extent to which constructivism was being enacted in classrooms in England but also whether it was benefiting students' learning. While the report's recommendations fell short of a 'back to basics' approach they did suggest a renewed focus on the teaching of subjects and balance of whole-class, group and individual teaching which was in fact one of Plowden's original recommendations.

Constructivism also attracted criticism internationally, particularly from mathematics and science educators some of whom claim that: 'The best evidence developed over the past half century supports the view that minimally-guided learning does not enhance student achievement any more than throwing a non-swimmer out of a boat in the middle of a deep lake supports learning to swim' (Kirschner, Sweller & Clark, 2006, p. 75).

However, the linguists and educators who developed the 'Sydney School' genre pedagogy (section 2.5 below) found that the 'progressive' or individual constructivist 'hands-off' approaches to literacy learning were commonplace in Australian classrooms in the 1960s and 1970s. They argue that these practices did not provide sufficient support for marginalised groups of learners such as immigrants, working-class and Indigenous learners who achieved very low literacy outcomes and that constructivism was oriented towards the interests of middle-class professional families. Halliday called this type of pedagogy 'benevolent inertia' (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 30).

The next sections of this chapter move from the discussion of individual to social constructivism. Social theories of learning that underpin the approach to language and literacy pedagogy in my research are presented and discussed.

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[28] LEAs – Local Education Authorities

2.3 Social theories of teaching and learning

Theories that view learning as a social process emphasise the importance of observing the behaviour of others, so social interaction is key to the learning process. From this perspective, learning takes place through modelling and purposeful imitation of others. Social models can be siblings or friends but the most influential models for learning during childhood come from those with authority or a higher status such as parents and teachers who provide positive reinforcement. This type of social learning is often associated with an apprenticeship style of learning. The Canadian psychologist Albert Bandura (1962) refers to social theory as the bridge between behaviourist and cognitive learning theories.

The following section introduces the social learning theory of Lev Vygotsky (1978) that underpins the genre approach to literacy learning that forms the basis of my study.

2.3.1 Social Constructivism

While social constructivism is often seen as oppositional to individual constructivism, it is also based on cognitive psychology. However, while social constructivism does not negate the mental construction of knowledge emphasised by Piaget, it foregrounds the co-construction of meaning through social interaction. This means that language has an important role to play in social constructivism which views learning as a shared cultural experience. Thus, it is a key theory in my research.

Social constructivism is most commonly associated with the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978) whose theory of 'zones' of development has been influential in shaping social constructivist learning theories. Vygotsky proposes that there is a 'zone of actual development' (ZAD) which represents what learners can do without support in a given situation at a particular point in time and a 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) which represents what is just beyond a learner's individual problem-solving capabilities but is where learning can take place. Vygotsky points to the specific role that social speech plays in this process, proposing that social speech becomes inner speech and that this inner speech develops consciousness or thought. This indicates that it is social speech that leads learning. Development in the ZPD can thus be led by speech from adults or more capable peers.

Whereas Piaget's theory views the stages of development as individual learner attributes, Vygotsky's ZPD is seen as an attribute of each learning event. Unlike Piaget's notion of development leading learning, the implication of Vygotsky's theory for education is that learning with guidance in the ZPD is what leads development. This perspective on constructivism points to the important role of the teacher in providing learning contexts that will lead development and to language as a key tool to mediate learning and hence development. Vygotsky's social theory of learning is key to the genre approach to pedagogy. The next section discusses how this theory has been further developed and applied to education.

2.3.2 Social constructivist theories of education

While Vygotsky's untimely death, at the age of 37 in 1934, meant that he did not test his theory in classrooms or develop it any further, other theorists have since interpreted and elaborated on his work in a range of ways which have led to the development of sometimes disparate neo-Vygotskian educational theories. The popularisation of Vygotsky's ZPD theory in the context of education owes much to the work of the cognitive psychologist Jerome Bruner (1960). He also believed in the social nature of learning and challenged Piaget's notion of 'readiness'. Bruner proposed that complex understandings could be introduced to children in an understandable form at any age and then re-visited in more depth at a later stage, thus modelling the curriculum as a spiral. Bruner and his colleagues used the metaphor of scaffolding to describe assistance that teachers provide to students to enable them to acquire a skill that is beyond what they can do without support (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). In spite of its limitations, this closely aligned, metaphorical elaboration of Vygotsky's ZPD has been widely taken up by teachers so that the two terms are used almost interchangeably in educational literature, albeit to refer to practices that may or may not represent the concept. The role of the teacher in the scaffolding process is elaborated below.

2.3.3 Scaffolding and the Zone of Proximal Development

The metaphor of *scaffolding* as a temporary support structure erected around buildings during construction is popular with teachers as it articulates a more specific role for the teacher than individual constructivist learning theories where the teacher was the 'guide on the side'. Additionally, without promoting a return to a transmission model of teaching, it

advocates the idea of the teacher as an 'expert' who will guide student learning through shared experience as a pathway to develop independence. Bruner (1986) emphasised the role of the teacher in specifically focusing the learner on the challenge of a task describing scaffolding as '…the steps taken to reduce the degrees of freedom taken in carrying out some task so that the child can concentrate on the difficult skill she is in the process of acquiring' (1978, p. 19).

In some contexts, the term scaffolding has lost its specific meaning as it has become synonymous with any support or assistance a teacher or a more capable peer might provide to a learner. In other instances, however, scholars have elaborated the notion to emphasise the importance that it places on the quality of the support provided by specifying its orientation to future learning:

> [Scaffolding] is not just any assistance which helps a learner accomplish a task. It is help which will enable a learner to accomplish a task which they would not have been quite able to manage on their own, and it is help which is intended to bring the learner closer to a state of competence which will enable them eventually to complete such a task on their own. (Maybin, Mercer & Steirer, 1992, p.190)

This more exacting definition of scaffolding points to the role of developing students' meta-cognitive abilities, enabling them to complete similar tasks on their own.

Furthermore, Hammond and Gibbons (2001) highlight the important role of teacher knowledge concerning the content area and the nature of the learning task that will be devised to provide the right level of challenge and the appropriate level of support for learners to work in the ZPD. They point to the need for 'built-in', or macro, scaffolding at the level of curriculum and lesson planning as well as 'contingent', or micro, scaffolding of the moment-by-moment classroom interactions between teachers and students. 'To be effective, scaffolding requires clearly articulated goals and learning activities which are structured in ways that enable learners to extend their existing levels of understanding' (2001, p. 16).

Vygotsky's theory of the ZPD highlights the important role that language can play as a key tool in leading development and Bruner's notion of scaffolding emphasises the central role that the teacher can play in this process. These understandings of learning are key drivers

of developments in pedagogy for language learning in recent decades and likewise form the theoretical basis for this research project. This linguistic basis is the focus for the next section of this chapter.

2.4 Theories of language

While the previous sections of this chapter have outlined theories of knowledge, learning and their associated pedagogies, they have not been accompanied by a discussion of a theory of language. While one of the most well-known views of language acquisition is that of Noam Chomsky (1986), this section discusses the theory of language underpinning the pedagogy in my research as educators have questions about how language makes meaning that Chomsky's generative grammar is not designed to answer. The work of Halliday, however, grew out of the education environment and is designed as an 'appliable linguistics' (Halliday, 2006, in Martin, 2013, p. 189). The following section introduces Systemic Functional Linguistics and its view of language as social semiotic.

2.4.1 Halliday's view of language as a social semiotic resource

The view of language that is relevant to the research undertaken here is M.A.K Halliday's (1978) view of language as a social semiotic resource. Halliday's perspective sees language as a resource for making meaning and his focus is on the functions of language and how both meaning and function can shape its form. This view led Halliday to systematise choices about meaning-making as networks of possibilities, rather than to develop an inventory of structures (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Language is also seen as the means by which social and cultural attitudes are construed, maintained and contested which leads Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) to look towards complementarities with sociology (see collaborative work with Bernstein section 2.5.1).

Halliday emphasises that language is a social semiotic resource which has important implications for learning:

> When children learn language, they are not simply engaging in one kind of learning among many; rather, they are learning the foundation of learning itself. The distinctive characteristic of human learning is that it is a process of making meaning - a **semiotic** process; and the prototypical form of human semiotic is

language. Hence the ontogenesis[29] of language is at the same time the ontogenesis of learning (Halliday, 1993, p. 93).

SFL views knowledge essentially as a social construct which complements Vygotsky's social view of learning. Halliday's assertion that the roles of language and learning are inextricably linked has powerful implications for education particularly when considered together with Vygotsky's notion of the ZPD and Bruner's concept of scaffolding. The implication is that, as social speech leads learning, in an education setting a linguistically-informed teacher would have the opportunity to provide the type of scaffolding to advance the learning of all students.

Systemic Functional Linguistics is based on what is known as a *stratified* model of language and the different *strata*, or layers, can be depicted as a series of tangent circles (as illustrated in *Figure 1*, below). The model is based the notion of language as text in social context (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin & Rose 2007). The global social purpose of a text is its *genre* (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 22) represented by the outer circle and the three inner circles represent the layers of language.
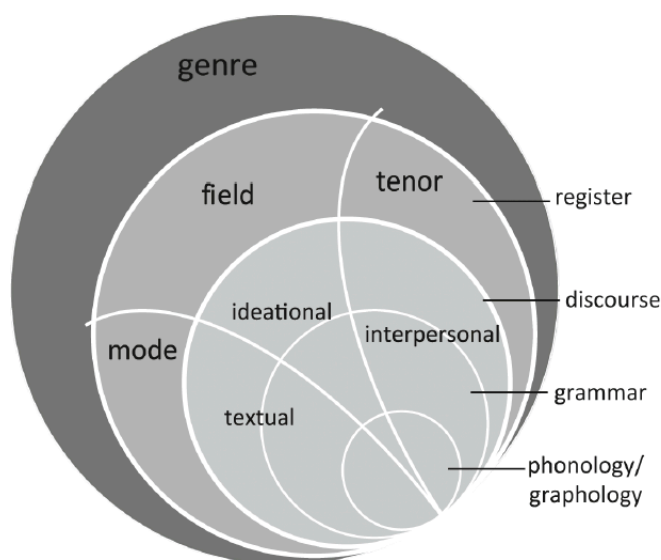
Figure 1 Strata of language in context (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 23)[30]

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[29] In SFL, *ontogenesis* refers to the growth and development of meaning potential in individuals i.e. in children in a pedagogical setting their individual growth in language and learning.
[30] Reproduced with permission from D. Rose and J. R. Martin.

SFL acknowledges a two-way relationship between language and social contexts. This means that contexts are brought into being through patterns of interaction in unfolding texts, at the same time as meaning patterns in texts construe the social activity (Martin & Rose, 2007 & 2008). Language will of course vary considerably according to different situations and the SFL model has identified three domains of variation (*Figure 1*, above): 1) *what* is actually taking place, or the *field* of activity, e.g. history or literacy, 2) *who* is taking part, the *tenor* of relationship between the participants, e.g. teacher and students or a group of teachers, and 3) what role *language* is playing, whether the *mode* is, spoken or written[31], e.g. a discussion or an exam. These three domains comprise what is known as the *register* in SFL, so *field, tenor* and *mode* are the three *register variables* that intertwine and vary according to different situations of interaction (Martin & Rose, 2008). These two layers of meaning work together as *genres* involve particular configurations of the *register variables*.

The layers of *genre* and *register* in the functional model of language of course rely on the subsequent layers of language (and other semiotic systems) to express meaning (*Figure 2*, below). The language levels are made up of: *discourse semantics*, which focuses on meaning-making in whole texts (Martin & Rose, 2007); *lexicogrammar*, which focuses on meaning-making at the level of the *clause* (Halliday, & Matthiessen, 2014); and, *phonology* and *graphology*, which express in speech and writing the higher levels in the model.
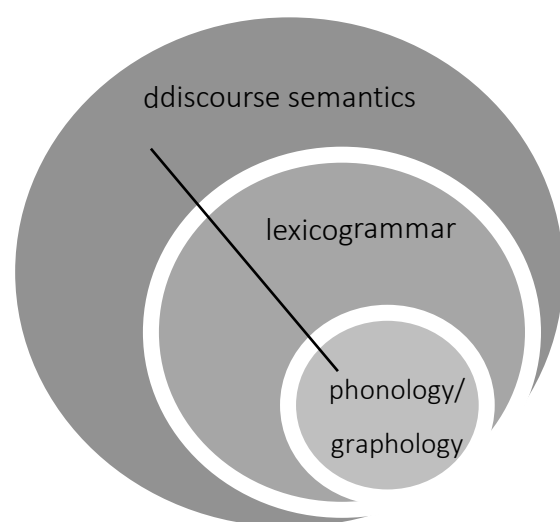
Figure 2 Levels within language (adapted from Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 22)

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[31] *Mode* also includes the channel of communication: face-to-face or via technology; telephone or video.

So, the functional model of language (illustrated above) can be thought of as representing a *hierarchy of stratification* as each layer of meaning in the model construes meaning at the higher level; while meaning at the higher levels, is realised by meaning at the lower levels. In this model, the only way that the abstract layers of meaning can be understood is as unfolding texts. This gives rise to the *text in context* view of meaning-making – at the opposite pole from the 'conduit' metaphor of language which separates content and form.

When considering the notion of *text in context*, the SFL model provides different perspectives on meaning-making which consist of three interwoven strands of meaning known as *metafunctions* (also illustrated in *Figure 1,* above*)*. The *ideational* metafunction construes our experience of the external world (events and actions) and our internal world (thoughts and feelings); it is associated with the register variable of *field* as it is linked to *what* is happening. The *interpersonal* metafunction is concerned with enacting our social relationships and is associated with the register variable of *tenor*. The *textual* metafunction organises the *ideational* and *interpersonal* resources as discourse (Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 11).

This social semiotic approach to language enables Halliday's theory, as further developed by Martin (1992), to be applied to education via genre pedagogy as explained further below. The functional model of language has been introduced here in conjunction with Vygotsky's social theory of learning and the notion of scaffolding (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976) as an introduction to the theoretical underpinnings of the genre approach to writing.

2.5 The development of genre-based pedagogies

A number of retrospective accounts of the emergence of genre-based pedagogies in Australia (Christie, 2004; Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012) provide a developmental overview that complements the plethora of publications on a range of specific aspects of SFL and its application in different education contexts. The purpose of the outline provided here is to highlight the aspects of the pedagogical developments that are relevant to the more recent reading pedagogy and to its classroom enactment as *Reading to Learn*.

The retrospectives outline three major phases in the pedagogy's development: the initial design of the writing pedagogy in the 1980s, identifying a small number of genres in the primary school; the extension of the writing pedagogy in the 1990s, to genres across the

secondary school curriculum and beyond; and the development of the reading pedagogy from the late 1990s, integrating reading and writing with teaching practice across the curriculum at all stages of schooling (Rose & Martin, 2012). The strategies developed for writing in the initial developmental stage of the pedagogy are the most well known internationally and were influential in the development of the NLS in England (as outlined in section 1.4). They have been popularised in publications by scholars such as Christie (2012) Derewianka (2011) and Gibbons (2002) and are used widely in the Australian context particularly in primary schools, English as a Second Language settings (Gibbons,1991) and in academic literacy programmes (Dreyfus et al., 2016).

The first key step in the development of genre pedagogy was the application of knowledge about language from SFL to student writing in the primary school in the 1980s. The analysis of student writing and the identification of the kinds of texts that students were producing according to purpose produced a map of the genres of writing in the primary school years.

Some 1500 texts at one primary school were initially analysed and named according to purpose, to form three families of genres with similar purposes (Martin & Rothery, 1986). The predictable ways in which the genres unfolded in stages were also identified and named. This work subsequently led to the landmark SFL-based, linguistic map of the genres of primary school writing (*Table 1* below) that is still in use today.

One of the findings of the early mapping (*Table 1* below) was that students were writing genres described as observation/comment and recounts, almost to the exclusion of other genres. This narrow range of genres neither fulfilled the requirements of the curriculum, or prepared students for the demands of factual and argumentative writing in the secondary school (Martin & Rose, 2012).

Table 1 Genres in the primary school (adapted from Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 56)

	genre	purpose	stages
Stories	**recount**	*recounting events*	Orientation Record of events
	narrative	*resolving a complication*	Orientation Complication Resolution
	anecdote	*sharing an emotional reaction*	Orientation Remarkable event Reaction
	exemplum	*judging character or behaviour*	Orientation Incident Interpretation
Factual texts	**description**	*describing specific things*	Orientation Description
	report	*classifying & describing general things*	Classification Description
	explanation	*explaining sequences of events*	Phenomenon Explanation
	procedure	*how to do an activity*	Purpose Equipment Steps
	protocol	*what to do and not to do*	Purpose Rules
Arguments	**exposition**	*arguing for a point of view*	Thesis Arguments Reiteration
	discussion	*discussing two or more points of view*	Issue Sides Resolution

The map of genres was further developed in the 1990s in the next project that focused on writing in secondary school and vocational education settings. This resulted in the mapping

of the genres for the whole of schooling (*Table 2*, below) that is currently used in the *Reading to Learn* professional development.

Table 2 Genres for the whole of schooling (adapted from Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 130)

	genre	purpose	stages
Stories	**recount**	*recounting events*	Orientation Record of events
	narrative	*resolving a complication in a story*	Orientation Complication Resolution
	exemplum	*judging character or behaviour in a story*	Orientation Incident Interpretation
	anecdote	*sharing an emotional reaction in a story*	Orientation Remarkable event Reaction
Histories	**autobiographical recount**	*recounting life events*	Orientation Record of stages
	biographical recount	*recounting life stages*	Orientation Record of stages
	historical recount	*recounting historical events*	Background Record of stages
	historical account	*explaining historical events*	Background Account of stages
Explanations	**sequential explanation**	*explaining a sequence*	Phenomenon Explanation
	factorial explanation	*explaining multiple causes*	Phenomenon: outcome Explanation: factors
	consequential explanation	*explaining multiple effects*	Phenomenon: cause Explanation: consequences.

Procedures	**procedure**	*how to do experiments & observations*	Purpose Equipment Steps
	procedural recount	*recounting experiments & observations*	Purpose Method Results
Reports	**descriptive report**	*classifying & describing a phenomenon*	Classification Description
	classifying report	*classifying & describing types of phenomena*	Classification Description: types
	compositional report	*describing parts of wholes*	Classification Description: parts
Arguments	**exposition**	*arguing for a point of view*	Thesis Arguments Reiteration
	discussion	*discussing two or more points of view*	Issue Sides Resolution
Text Responses	**review**	*evaluating a literary, visual or musical text*	Context Description of text Judgement
	interpretation	*interpreting the message of a text*	Evaluation Synopsis of text Reaffirmation
	critical response	*challenging the message of a text*	Evaluation Deconstruction Challenge

In a similar fashion, more extensive and detailed mapping of the genres of writing in higher education has since been carried out by Nesi and Gardner (2012) in England. These examples, then, show how the SFL model of language has proved to be appliable to all levels of education.

In the context of primary schooling, the early map of written genres and their staging formed the basis for designing an explicit writing pedagogy. The development of the

pedagogy was undertaken as an ongoing partnership between teachers and discourse linguists. In describing the context for this work, Martin asserts that the school system in Australia in 1980s had largely abandoned the explicit teaching of writing in favour of a progressivist ideology of personal development (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 3).

The 'new' genre-based pedagogy was designed to address the needs of second language learners who featured prominently in the group that was not achieving success beyond the primary years of schooling. In this context, the explicit nature of the new pedagogy proved to be controversial as it brought to the fore teachers' divergent underlying personal theories of action concerning the nature of language and literacy teaching.

Drawing on work about oral language development by Halliday (1975) and Painter (1986), a teaching/learning cycle was developed by Rothery in 1989 *(Figure 3*, below).
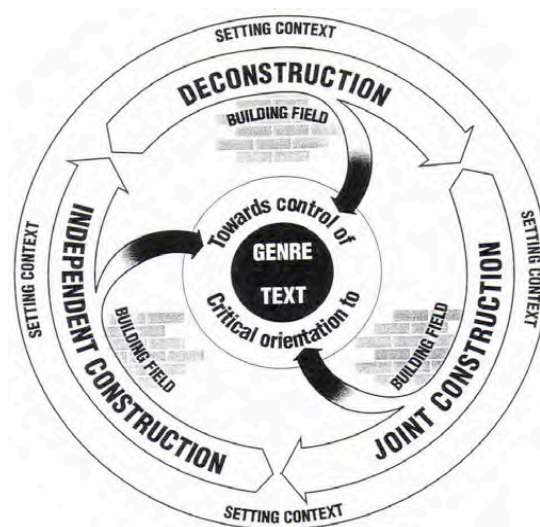
Figure 3 Teaching/learning cycle (Rothery, 1994) [32]

The Teaching and Learning Cycle (described in section 1.4), features three main stages: *Deconstruction, Joint Construction* and *Individual Construction (Figure 3* above*)*.

All three stages of the pedagogy involve building *field* (so that students are familiar with the content of the texts they are reading and writing) and setting *context* (so that students understand the social purpose of the genre). The ultimate goal of the cycle is for students to take control of the genre, both in terms of being able to write it and also reflect critically on

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[32] This is the version of the diagram (originally developed by Rothery), that was used in the *Write it Right* materials (during the 1990s). It has been reproduced with permission from D. Rose and J.R. Martin from Rose and Martin, 2012, p. 308.

its role. The underlying pedagogical principle that guided the development of the pedagogy, 'guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience' (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 58), has subsequently been aligned with the notion of scaffolding (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976) based on Vygotsky's ZPD.

During the 1980s, I was a secondary English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher in Australia, struggling to support recently arrived students from south-east Asia with the demands of secondary schooling. The development of genre-based pedagogy offered new knowledge about language, as well as a more explicit pedagogical approach to use in the classroom and to share with my subject specialist colleagues in my role as ESL coordinator. This led me to become an avid consumer of all the 'updated' information about genre that emerged from the second phase of research in the 1990s. The collaborative work undertaken by linguists with secondary teachers resulted in a refinement and expansion of the writing pedagogy. Later, teaching materials were developed that aimed to provide teachers with support in text analysis and with pedagogy.

Many of the critiques of genre pedagogy (see section 1.4) that emerged in the 1990s were made in response to the initial mapping of the genres in the primary school. This early work was not designed to address questions concerning a broad range of texts that are relevant to reading and writing in the later stages of schooling. However, the critiques of the early work, coupled with the negative associations of an adapted genre pedagogy in the NLS, led to much of the later work on the genre-based pedagogy being largely overlooked in the UK context.

The next major step forward in the application of SFL to education has been the development of the reading pedagogy that grew out of work in the context of Indigenous education in Australia. The difficulties in learning *to* read, and to learn *from* reading that many children experience are magnified in the context of the multiple layers of disadvantage often encountered in Indigenous education particularly when the learners come from an oral language tradition. Despite the positive outcomes attributed to the writing pedagogy; writing is essentially developed from experience with reading, so the next step for the SFL linguists was to find a complementary way to teach reading so that it would not only be a resource for learning but also for writing. To enable the development of the reading pedagogy, now known as *Reading to Learn*, an additional theoretical perspective drawn from the work of the British sociologist Basil Bernstein (1996/2000) has

been used. The relationship of Bernstein's work to the *Reading to Learn* genre-based pedagogy is discussed in the next section.

2.5.1 Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse

Bernstein and Halliday were contemporaries in the UK during the 1960s and they initiated a dialogue between sociology and systemic functional linguistics that continues today between linguists and sociologists working on the ongoing elaboration of Bernstein's work as Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) (Martin & Maton, 2017). Bernstein's preoccupation with the underachievement of working-class children in Britain in the post-war period led him to pursue his work from a linguistic perspective. He is widely known for his early work on code theory[33] but it is his later work on pedagogic discourse (1996/2000) that informs the design of the classroom interaction pattern in the *Reading to Learn* pedagogy.

Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse is highly elaborate but essentially, he analyses education as a social institution in which knowledge is produced and exchanged. So, his view of learning is as an exchange of knowledge between the teacher and the learner. However, he sees pedagogic discourse as problematic. He analyses it as including two types of discourse; 'instructional discourse' which is concerned with the development of skills and knowledge, and 'regulative discourse' which is concerned with the creation of social order, relations and identity. He views the regulative discourse as the dominant discourse and asserts that failure in education is essentially a failure of the system to distribute knowledge equally to all learners. The issue of *how* knowledge might be exchanged so that *all* learners gain equal knowledge from reading has been a central concern of Rose (2017) in designing the discourse pattern in the *Reading to Learn* pedagogy.

For Martin and Rose (2013), their reading of Bernstein points to the often-discussed *initiation-response-evaluation* (I-R-E)[34] classroom discourse pattern as a powerful element in Bernstein's dominant 'regulatory' discourse. Based on his experiences with Indigenous learners, Rose (2004; 2005) argues that it is the unconscious, deeply ingrained questioning techniques used by teachers in everyday classroom interactions that prevent marginalised

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[33] Bernstein (1975), asserts that the language of working-class children is context specific calling it a "restricted code"; while the language of middle-class children contains more abstract meanings and is more universal. He called this an "elaborated code". He argues that having access only to the restricted code disadvantaged working class children.
[34] Described in this research as the *initiation-response-feedback (I-R-F)* pattern (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

students from participating equitably in the classroom, leading to unequal educational outcomes. Martin and Rose (2013) not only assert that this discourse pattern plays a key role in distributing the 'instructional' discourse to students unequally but that it also creates learner identities, as more or less successful. They argue that the differentiation in learner identities is a product of, 1) continual evaluation, which positions them on a hierarchy of success and failure, 2) varying degrees of engagement in lesson activities and classroom interactions, and 3) varying control over modalities of learning, particularly reading and writing. By these means, pedagogic discourse creates an unequal social order and asymmetric social relations (Martin & Rose, 2013).

Rose's work with Indigenous learners in Australia in the 1990s (Rose, 2004; Rose & Martin, 2012), most of whom had been diagnosed with learning difficulties (Rose, 2011a; Rose, 2017), led him and other researchers (Rose, Gray & Cowey, 1999) to develop a pedagogy designed to focus on a *system* for distributing knowledge from reading to all learners, rather than focusing on the remediation of what had been diagnosed as individual learning deficits. Rose (2017) asserts that much of the inequality in educational outcomes can be addressed by more explicit and visible reading and writing pedagogy emanating from SFL with a re-designed classroom discourse pattern at its centre.

Using data showing improvements in whole cohorts where teachers have used the *Reading to Learn* pedagogy (Culican, 2005; Rose, 2011a; Rose, 2011b; Coffin, Acevedo & Lövstedt, 2013; Rose, 2014; Lucas et al., 2014), Rose (2017) continues to challenge the predominant response to educational underachievement of seeking solutions through individual student remediation:

> Remedial interventions have minimal effects on the inequality of learning and outcomes in schools. Students who are evaluated in the failing range at the start of school are likely to remain in this group through each stage of primary and secondary. Taking a wider view, this continual failure appears as an endemic pattern of the school, which 'necessarily produces a hierarchy based on success and failure of students' (Bernstein, 2000, p. xxiv). As the problem lies with the school, the solution cannot be found by focusing on the difficulties of individual students. Rather we must look to teaching practices of the school that create and maintain these inequalities, and re-design these practices. (p. 178)

Using the lens of Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse, Rose not only echoed many of the long-held claims about the 'restrictive nature' of the IRE/F[35] discourse pattern (discussed below) but additionally focused his critique on the issue of learner identity. Always conscious of issues of underachievement and marginalisation of Indigenous learners, he highlighted the important issue of inclusion in the classroom discourse which led him not only to problematise the moves in the IRE/F, as other scholars have, but to propose an alternative to the whole pattern. The next section discusses classroom discourse and different views concerning the IRE/F as it relates to pedagogy and finally describes the nature of the *Reading to Learn* discourse pattern in relation to genre pedagogy.

2.6 The role of classroom discourse in pedagogy

There are a variety of traditions and definitions of classroom discourse that range from 'talk-in-interaction' (associated with the Conversational Analysis perspective) to the critical post structural view of discourse as 'ways of understanding and constituting the social world' (Martin-Jones et al. 2008, p. xiii). The view of classroom discourse that underpins my research, on developing print-based literacy to support students in accessing the academic-literate discourses of schooling, is based on a socio-cultural view of discourse. This perspective sees classroom discourse as a particular way of thinking, acting, interacting, talking, and valuing, connected with a particular social identity or role (Gee, 1991) that gives expression to the meanings and value of social groups and institutions (Kress, 1985). The following section focuses on the basic classroom interaction pattern, identified by Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) early work in discourse analysis, the IRF pattern. This provides the background to the presentation of the rationale and structure of the *Reading to Learn* interaction pattern.

2.6.1 The IRF pattern in classroom interaction

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) initially described the exchange pattern by naming its three elements and classifying each move as follows: *Initiation (I),* opening; *Response (R),* answering and *Feedback (F),* follow-up (1975, p. 26). The model is hierarchical, with the 'moves' made up of smaller units called 'acts', one of which is 'evaluation'. In some

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[35] Often called the default classroom discourse pattern, this pattern is characterised by three moves: Initiation (I), Response (R) and Evaluation (E) also referred to as Feedback (F).

descriptions of this classroom discourse pattern, the 'act' of *evaluation* has come to name the third move (Mehan, 1979), just as the description of the move, *follow-up* may also be used to name the 'F' move (e.g. Miao & Heining-Boynton, 2010). The importance of the pattern was highlighted some years later when Cazden (1988) named it: 'the most common sequence in teacher-led speech events. [...] the "unmarked" pattern, [...] the "default" pattern – what happens unless deliberate action is taken to achieve some alternative' (1988, p. 53). And with respect to the amount of classroom time it organises, Wells (1993, p. 1) reports this to be as much as 70% in secondary classrooms.

The issue of the prevalence and effectiveness of this pattern has been the subject of quite vigorous debate in the area of classroom discourse for some time. Numerous critiques of the discourse pattern have emerged, including Lemke (1990) who urged teachers to make less use of the pattern and Wood (1992) who advocated a less controlling type of discourse to allow students to also take an initiating role. In fact, some researchers in the area of language teaching and learning, such as Walsh (2006), have seen change, maintaining that the 'more formal, ritualised interactions between teachers and students are not as prevalent' (2006, p. 47). However, later studies argue that the IRE/F pattern continues to be pervasive.

This pattern has its function in relation to the overall sequence of learning activities as Christie (2002, p. 5) points out, since it often has 'an essential role to play in pursuing the pedagogic goals of schooling.' At the same time, she supports 'research into ways to generate what might be considered more open and exploratory patterns of talk, in which students would have greater opportunity to initiate and take the talk where they willed it.' (Christie, 2002, p. 5). Alexander (2017) has also argued that the IRF can be valuable in particular cultural contexts and as a step towards promoting more exploratory talk. Some of the initiatives to improve classroom interaction by modifying the IRF/E pattern are discussed below.

2.6.2 Re-designing patterns of classroom interaction

A number of studies have focused on 'opening up' classroom interaction, to 'free' it from what many consider the narrowing influence of the IRE/F pattern. One proposal has been to increase 'wait time' (Hashim, 2014; Ingram & Elliot, 2016) by extending the pauses between teachers' and students' turns in the IRE/F pattern. However, more attention has

been given to proposals concerning modifications of the 'third move'.

Many researchers (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Mercer, 2003; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; van Lier, 2000) have variously investigated different options for the third move to open up classroom discourse in ways that lead to what they regard as more 'dialogic' sequences of exchanges. Interpretations of dialogic, however, vary. Hammond and Gibbons (2001; 2005) draw on Vygtosky and the notion of scaffolding in the ZPD to develop their idea of dialogic exchange, while Alexander (2006) (cited in Davies and Sinclair, 2014, p. 21) looks to Socratic[36] notions of dialogue as a way forward. However, the idea of varying the 'third move' is in line with communicative approaches in language learning classrooms (Walsh, 2006; Hosoda & Aline, 2013).

Of course, the purpose of the interaction is key to choices of discourse patterns. Though this is not explicit, it is most likely that the literature refers more generally to *learning through talk*. The next section discusses how the purpose for interaction - talking or reading - has led theoretically aligned researchers from the SFL tradition to arrive at different conclusions concerning the efficacy of the IRE/F discourse pattern.

2.6.3 Differences in interaction patterns for learning through *talk* and *reading*

The issue of the context for learning and the purpose for interaction have not always been well foregrounded in the different discussions on discourse patterns. This section will briefly demonstrate the significance of this issue by comparing the work of educators who are theoretically aligned, Hammond and Gibbons (2005) and Rose and Martin (2012) but whose differing purposes, 'talking to learn' and 'reading to learn', have led them to use different discourse patterns to achieve their purposes.

The research of Hammond and Gibbons (2005) on the IRF pattern prevalent in English language classrooms in Australia showed how teachers used it to provide *cued elicitation* and to increase *prospectiveness* in the 'third move' (Feedback), in ways that lead to more dialogic sequences of exchanges (2005, p. 23). They thus see the IRF, with a more varied exploitation of the third move, as an effective form of scaffolding. Hammond and Gibbons

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[36] Socratic dialogue (and teaching) developed from Plato's Socratic Dialogues, is a student-centred approach that challenges learners to develop their critical thinking skills and engage in analytic discussion.

(2005) propose two types of scaffolding, 'designed-in', comprising carefully sequenced and structured sub-tasks leading to the completion of the major task, and unplanned 'contingent' scaffolding, which occurs in the moment-to-moment interaction between teacher and student. The notion of contingent scaffolding, within a broader, planned framework, lends itself well to a focus on classroom talk where meaning is being constructed in the moment through the various contributions of the participants. While students' contributions may be anticipated, they cannot be accurately predicted so the *contingent* approach, guided by the bigger picture planning, has the potential to offer beneficial support to the learners.

The situation is different, however, when a written text in a reading lesson is the focus of interaction. A reading lesson creates an opportunity for *designed-in* scaffolding to be more detailed as the purpose of the text and how its meaning unfolds in paragraphs, sentences, and words is available to the teacher in advance. Rose's redesigned, scaffolding discourse pattern for *detailed reading*, *(prepare-task-elaborate)*, (section 2.6.4) enables the 'designed-in' component of scaffolding to be planned in more detail than just at the level of the lesson or series of lessons. Each move of the discourse pattern can be planned (as discussed below), while providing the option for the teacher to open up the final move with more 'contingent' scaffolding and thus aligning it more with some interpretations of dialogic possibilities.

Even though both pairs of researchers, Hammond and Gibbons (2005) and Rose and Martin (2012), see learning as an interactive teacher-led pedagogical process to jointly construct meaning with students in their ZPD, the focus on *talk* leads Hammond and Gibbons to exploit the IRF pattern; while the focus on *reading* causes Rose and Martin to reject it. For Rose, even when the reading pedagogy moves into the writing cycle, the reading text remains the focus and source for constructing a written text (Rose, 2005). In this situation, the teacher uses spoken language to guide students to understand textual meanings, expressed in challenging, written grammar, often well beyond their independent comprehension levels.

Rose (2014) found that the IRF pattern when used to pose comprehension questions during classroom reading, was experienced by struggling readers as continuous assessment and contributed towards them developing identities as unsuccessful learners:

There are wide disparities in students' degree of inclusion in classroom conversations. By far the most common way of initiating a classroom exchange is when the teacher asks a question of the class. Teachers typically report that a minority of students consistently respond to their questions, and these are usually the more successful students (Rose 2014, p. 9)

The inefficacy that Rose saw in the use of the IRE/F pattern for teaching both *to read* and to *learn from* reading led him to design a different pattern of interaction for reading which is outlined in the following section.

2.6.4 The *Reading to learn* discourse pattern

In the context of Indigenous education and inspired by Bernstein's ideas, Rose, worked with his colleagues (Rose, Gray & Cowey, 1999) to begin to devise what they called a scaffolding cycle for teaching reading. They drew on the research of Halliday (1975) and Painter (1986) on parent scaffolding of child language learning in the home to develop a supportive cycle that prepared learners to read and understand texts. This initial work was later further refined as it was used beyond Indigenous education and is now articulated as the R2L interaction pattern or cycle involving three key stages: *prepare - task – elaborate* (Rose & Martin, 2012). When learning from reading a text, rather than learning from talk itself, the classroom context for interaction is highly explicit. There is less *contingent* scaffolding, as much of the scaffolding around the meaning-making, is *planned-in*.

When reading a challenging text jointly with a class, sentence-by-sentence[37], the teacher firstly *prepares* each sentence by summarising it in everyday terms before reading it aloud to orient students to the meaning. Then the teacher uses the interaction pattern to guide students to identify key meanings in each word group in the sentence by *preparing* each word group with a meaning cue; the students' *task* is to reason from the general meaning provided by the cue to identify the specific wordings. The teacher then affirms the identification and students highlight the wording which the teacher then *elaborates* according to the goals of the lesson. The cycle has been designed so that the teachers' *preparation* cues provide the opportunity for all students in the class to identify and engage with the wordings. The *elaboration* move reinforces the meaning of the wordings and

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[37] This strategy is known as *Detailed reading* – explained in section 2.7.

teachers can use this move to develop understanding further. The elaboration move may be *planned-in* or used *contingently* with open ended questions. Teachers can use the elaborations to give students further information about meaning by: linking the meanings on the page to higher level meanings about the context or 'beyond the text'; making connections with previous learning; explaining and exploring linguistic features; exploring meanings 'between the lines' or relating the text to students' personal experience. The purpose of this explicit process is both to support meaning-making and to orient students to the patterns in the sentences so that they can use similar patterns to write their own sentences and paragraphs (Rose and Martin, 2012). My research aims to contribute to the discussion about the role of classroom discourse in the under-researched area of teaching reading for discipline-based curriculum learning.

The *Reading to Learn* classroom pedagogy is explained in the next section to provide the context for the teacher lesson planning, text preparation and classroom implementation that is the focus of my study.

2.7 The *Reading to Learn* classroom pedagogy

The *Reading to Learn* classroom pedagogy is modelled below *(Figure 4)* as a set of three concentric circles that are designed to mirror the notion of the strata in the functional model of language (*Figure 7*, section 4.4.5).
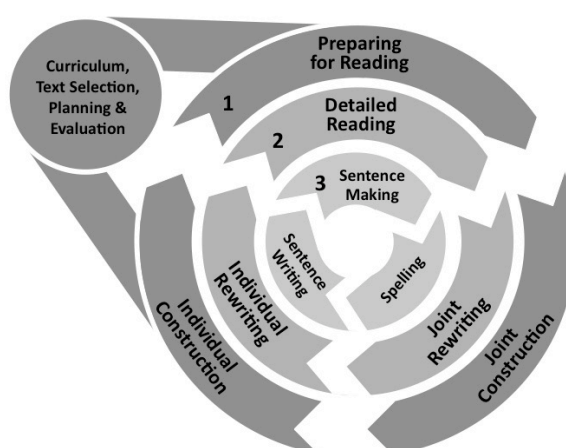
Figure 4 Three levels of strategies in *Reading to Learn* (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 147 [38])

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[38] Reproduced with permission from D. Rose and J. R. Martin.

The support provided by the scaffolding strategies increases as the circles in the model diminish in size and the strategies successively focus on smaller units of meaning. The strategies in the outer circle are designed to provide support for reading and writing whole texts and focus on the structural features of the genre of a text and its constituent stages and phases.

The strategies in the middle circle are designed for reading and writing challenging excerpts of a paragraph or two, working sentence-by-sentence using the R2L discourse pattern (described in section 2.6.4). The inner circle focuses on reading and writing just a sentence or two from a text or passage that is challenging for the group of learners. It provides opportunities to also practise spelling and handwriting and letter formation if necessary.

The nine sets of strategies from the pedagogy model (*Figure 4,* above) are displayed for greater clarity in *Table 3* below. Looking at the strategies by level (*Table 3*), the first strategy in **Level 1** is ***Preparing for Reading***, and while it appears in the model as the first strategy only for Level 1, it is in fact the first strategy for all levels in the pedagogy cycle as it is designed to provide the context for the reading text.

Table 3 Nine *Reading to Learn* strategies (adapted from Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 147)

	Reading together	**Writing together**	**Guided practice**
Level 1	*Preparing for Reading*	*Joint Construction*	*Individual Construction*
Level 2	*Detailed Reading*	*Joint Rewriting*	*Individual Rewriting*
Level 3	*Sentence Making*	*Spelling*	*Sentence Writing*

In order to prepare the students for reading in the classroom, however, it necessarily involves the teacher in *preparing* before the lesson by carefully reading the text and using knowledge about language drawn from SFL to decide on the purpose of the text, or its *genre*, and then how its meaning unfolds in *stages* and *phases*.[39]

In the classroom, the teacher then enacts the *preparing for reading* strategy by summarising *what* a text will be about – its *field* – as well as *how* the meaning unfolds

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[39] Texts with the same purpose are classified as belonging to the same *genre* and unfold in predictable steps known as *stages*. *Phases* are smaller steps of meaning within the *stages* (often at the level of the paragraph) that unfold in less predictable ways.

through the *genre* before reading the text aloud to the class. The purpose of such a summary is two-fold; to provide students with a general understanding of the *field* before it is read, making it much easier to follow, and providing an understanding of how the text unfolds to achieve its purpose by providing 'linguistic signposts' that are later used to guide the writing. Through repeated exposure to different instances of texts, the teacher builds an understanding of *how* meaning unfolds in predictable ways in all texts that have the same purpose or *genre*. After reading, the specific stages and phases of the text may be named, and students can annotate their copies of the text with this terminology so that it can be used as a metalanguage to discuss how to write a new whole-class text.

The second strategy in **Level 1** is ***Joint construction***. It builds on the reading of a *curriculum* text, but the strategy involves different pre-writing strategies according to the *genre* as shown in *Table 4* below. If the reading text is an ***informative genre***, then the *field* for re-writing remains the same but the *discourse patterns* are altered.

Table 4 Strategy choices for reading and *Joint construction* according to *genre*

	Paragraph-by-paragraph and Detailed reading	*Preparing for writing*	*Joint construction*
Informative genres ➔	• Highlight key information	• Whole class note-making of key information	• Use key information to write a text with new wordings
Story, argument & text response genres ➔	• Highlight literary or argument patterns	• Brainstorm new plot setting & characters or new arguments	• Use literary and argument patterns to write a text with new content

To prepare for *Joint construction*, students are guided to re-read the text *paragraph-by-paragraph* and to identify and highlight some key information from each paragraph. The teacher will then guide students to write the highlighted information on the board as notes to be used for the *field* of the joint construction. The reading text provides a guide for the structure (*stages* and *phases*) of the new text.

This enables students, directed by classmates, to scribe a new text from the notes on the board with teacher guidance. The result is a new summary text that uses the key information from the original text. This process models important study skills that teachers expect students to acquire (even though they are rarely taught); note-taking and re-writing 'in your own words'.

There is an important difference if the reading text is a ***story, argument or text response genre*** *(Table 4* above*)*, then a new *field* will be developed but it will be written with similar genre *stages*, *phases* and discourse patterns to the original text. To prepare for the joint construction, students will be guided to re-read the text and annotate the *stages* and *phases* on their copies and to highlight some literary or argument patterns. Then the class brainstorms a new *field* to be used in the joint construction of a new text. The reading text will be repeatedly referred to as the source of guidance for the new class text which is scribed by the teacher using ideas from the students.

The *joint construction* strategy in *R2L* was developed from the strategy with the same name from the Teaching/learning cycle (Rothery, 1994) in genre writing pedagogy (displayed in section 2.5). A key difference, however, is that the Teaching/learning cycle begins with the *Deconstruction* of a model of a target text for *writing*. Consequently, the focus for both the *deconstruction* and the *joint construction* in the T&L cycle, is the *genre* (structural and grammatical features) of the target text rather than the *field* which will be different in the new text. One outcome of this focus has been a type of 'impoverished' scaffolding of writing, in the name of *joint construction*, which is sometimes characterised by the use of formulaic student worksheets, similar to the Lewis and Wray (1998) 'writing frames' in the NLS (section 1.4), which led to the critique of genre writing that views it merely as a formulaic process (Rosen, 2013, section 1.4). While the connection between reading and writing remains implicit in the T&L cycle, R2L foregrounds the explicit connection between reading and writing.

The final stage of **Level 1,** *Individual construction,* is enacted when students are given similar tasks to complete individually or in groups. It allows them to use their experience of the modelled and guided learning to imitate the process and apply the knowledge about language that they have acquired to a new topic.

Level 2 of the pedagogy model *(Table 3* above*)*, ***Detailed reading,*** is considered to be the most supportive strategy and is used with short but challenging texts. The highly scaffolded *sentence-by-sentence* reading process uses the specially designed discourse interaction pattern to guide students to highlight word groups in each sentence which the teacher then elaborates (described in section 2.6.4). Then the appropriate pre-writing strategies are used according to the genre of the reading text (as outlined in *Table 4* above): note-taking for informative texts and brainstorming new content for other genres. *Joint re-writing* focuses attention on developing knowledge about language at the level of the sentence and it may use patterns that are closer to those of the original text than in the *joint construction* of longer texts. As a result, even when a new field is involved, students can usually scribe on the board with teacher guidance, irrespective of the genre, as the sentence patterns are close to those of the reading text and the ideas from the brainstorm are usually listed on the board to support spelling.

Individual re-writing at **Level 2**, provides an additional layer of support before students move to completing tasks independently. The strategy involves asking students to individually write the text produced by the class in *joint re-writing* once again, but without referring to the finished class text. They are, however, given access to the prompts from the pre-writing; the notes or the brainstorm. This makes the removal of support more gradual in contexts where it is deemed appropriate. Teachers can use the strategies flexibly by drawing on different levels to meet their needs so that after *Individual re-writing* students might be given a new task to complete as an *Individual construction* from Level 1.

Level 3 consisting of ***Sentence Making, Sentence Writing*** and ***Spelling*** (*Table 3*) is referred to as the intensive strategies. They provide a high level of support for students to manipulate language patterns in selected sentences, and to practise spelling, letter-sound correspondences and fluent writing. They can be used daily in early years to upper primary classes, and for additional support where required for primary and secondary students. One or two selected sentences (usually from a story that has been read to the class) are written on strips of paper or card for cutting into successively smaller linguistic units.

There are essentially three steps in *Sentence Making*: cutting sentences into clauses; cutting clauses into word groups; and cutting word groups into words. In each step, the teacher guides the class to cut the sentence using meaning cues (like those in *detailed reading*) and discusses the meanings. Students read the sentences aloud and then jumble the parts before

reassembling the sentence like a game. Grammatical terms and names for parts of speech may also be introduced once the meanings have been understood[40].

2.8 Conclusion

As can be seen from the brief explanation of the pedagogy above, the role of the teacher is paramount in this pedagogy and it is not something that can be learnt in a one-day workshop or merely from reading a book. Experience has shown that it is best learnt via cycles of workshops and classroom enactment, in the 'context of shared experience' with students and other teachers and importantly with support and expert guidance. The teacher learning process needs to be scaffolded, just as genre pedagogy proposes that student learning needs to be scaffolded with the gradual removal of support as independence is achieved. Thus, the purpose of my research is to determine the impact of the teacher learning experience with regard to the development of knowledge about language and pedagogy as it is enacted in the classroom.

Many of the individual teaching strategies that form part of the R2L pedagogy can seem aligned with many other practices designed to enact different theories of learning and familiar teaching practices. This can lead teachers to believe that new approaches to teaching are 'the same' as their current or previous practice. Some of the differing and often conflicting underlying views about teaching and learning and the nature of language and its role in learning have been discussed here in order to foreground the complexity of the theoretical landscape teachers navigate. This enables an appreciation of the challenges facing the teachers in my research project who are perhaps being asked to give up long standing practices that are linked to views about teaching and learning that they have not previously articulated.

The next chapter discusses the issue of teacher professional learning with an emphasis on the factors that have led to the development of the current PL climate in schools in England.

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[40] See www.readinglearn.com.au for detailed information about *Sentence Making.*

Chapter 3 - Teacher professional development and learning

3.1 Introduction

This chapter on teacher professional learning is the final stage in the development of the overall educational context for my study of teacher uptake of professional learning in response to research Question 1: *What are the contextual factors that impact on a teacher's uptake of the professional learning in terms of knowledge about language and classroom practice?*

The policy context outlined in Chapter 1 shows how there has been little focus on the issues of classroom pedagogy and teacher professional learning in education policy which still leaves the century old call for every teacher to be a teacher of language and literacy unanswered. Various positions concerning a variety of theoretical perspectives on teaching, learning and literacy pedagogy were discussed in Chapter 2 and the genre-based pedagogy used in this study has been positioned in relation to some key theories. The second chapter also provided an understanding of the complexity teachers face in implementing a new pedagogy which may be in conflict with their own tacit theoretical position.

In this chapter, I discuss the development of the results-driven classroom climate that the teachers in this study are working in while simultaneously undertaking professional learning and enacting a new pedagogy in the classroom. In order to provide an understanding of the factors that impact on professional development and learning initiatives in schools, an overview of the school effectiveness movement, that uses data to analyse school performance and its associated school improvement process will be provided. This focus on the use of data to analyse school performance is linked to relevant policy and pedagogy issues in England mentioned in the previous chapters. After this, the research into professional learning is reviewed in relation to the nature of the design, implementation and outcomes of the typical *Reading to Learn* literacy professional learning projects which were influenced by the school improvement process. Finally, the elements of the professional learning sequence that forms the basis of the current study are presented and discussed.

3.2 The impact of school effectiveness and school improvement

The context for teacher professional learning and development is examined by positioning it in relation to research on school effectiveness and the work on school improvement which have been significant in shaping the current education environment.

A little more than 50 years ago the sociologist James S. Coleman and his research team from Johns Hopkins University undertook research into *Equality of educational opportunity* (1966) in response to a request under the Civil Rights Act of 1964 in the United States and published the ground-breaking report which concluded that schools bring little influence to bear on a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social context (Coleman et al.,1966, p. 325). A reaction to the deterministic interpretation of the Coleman findings and their pessimistic view of the potential influence of schools, teachers and education on students' achievement (Sammons, Hillman & Mortimore, 1995) led to a surge in school effectiveness research in the US and the UK. Since then, much of the school effectiveness research has tried to refute the Coleman findings to show that, in spite of the influence of background factors, schools can and do make a difference to student outcomes. The research in this tradition essentially aims to describe the characteristics of effective schools by exploring the differences within and between schools and it necessarily focuses on student achievement giving particular consideration to the 'valued added' by a school over and above what might be expected after socio-economic factors have been accounted for (Sammons, Hillman & Mortimore, 1995). The trend is for researchers to use quantitative techniques in order to investigate the various factors that might influence student performance (Reynolds, 1994).

During the 80s and 90s school effectiveness research resulted in a plethora of publications listing characteristics of effective schools that were generally clustered under headings such as: teachers and teaching, curriculum, leadership and management, students, community and staff development (Fullan, 1992; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Mortimore et al., 1988). The research, combined with a political agenda for reform, led to an imperative for schools to undertake change processes (Stoll & Fink, 1996). These initiatives referred to as 'school improvement' introduced new ways of perceiving the role of schooling by drawing on research and literature from the field of business study known

as organisational behaviour[41] as well as the 'evidence-based' scientific research paradigm. While a number of the school effectiveness authors became internationally renowned school improvement 'gurus' promoting their lists of features of effective schools together with guidelines, processes and plans for emulating the success of effective schools, no recipe for a 'quick fix' for dealing with the complexities entailed in improving school culture and student performance emerged (Stoll & Myers, 1998).

School improvement has proven to be a complex, ongoing and controversial process where the measuring, codifying and quantifying of educational outcomes has been seen by some to merely politicise the education agenda even further while delivering little in terms of benefits to the most educationally disadvantaged. Critics of the resulting standardised testing regimes point to the use by some governments of emotive, 'progressive' policy nomenclature such as *Every child matters[42]* in the UK and *No child left behind* [43] in the US (Apple, 2006) in order to cast a positive 'spin' on these policies and de-emphasise the underlying accountability agenda with a façade of care and concern (Groundwater-Smith & Mockler, 2009, p. 5).

However, in spite of the critique of the data-driven approach to accountability, school effectiveness research and its resulting school improvement processes have operated synergistically with other social and political factors to effect lasting changes in the nature and processes of schooling nationally and globally in the 21st century. School improvement models drawing on paradigms from the business and science sectors initially provided new terminology to describe schooling but over time as they were taken up as government policy, the new education paradigms came to redefine roles and relationships between individuals and groups within and beyond school communities. Schools were recast as 'learning organisations' (Senge, 1990), head teachers became 'leaders of learning organisations' and an increasing emphasis came to be placed on the role of leadership in schools as the key to improvement, and professional development for school leaders came to take centre stage in the process. The focus on leadership has also resulted in an ever-increasing number and variety of leadership positions in schools (Reid, Brain, &

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[41] Organisational behaviour is the study of human behaviour in organisational settings, the interface between human behaviour and the organisation itself.
[42] *Every child matters* (2003) was introduced in the UK to protect the well-being of all children following a number of social services failures. It aims to integrate all aspects of children's services: hospitals, schools, police and voluntary groups through teaming and sharing information to protect children and young people from harm.
[43] The *No child left behind* Act of 2001 (NCLB) greatly increased the US federal government's role in education, especially in terms of holding schools accountable for the academic performance of their students. The law's requirements for testing, accountability, and school improvement have been controversial.

Comerford Boyes, 2007). Teachers on the other hand have been positioned somewhat less prominently in the improvement paradigm, as they have become 'the workforce' in the 'business' of 'delivering the curriculum' (Pring, 2012).

This positioning reflects an underlying objectivist epistemology inherent in the business model view of teaching and learning, likening it to a production process of 'input/output'. From this perspective, curriculum knowledge is reduced to a commodity to be 'delivered' by the teacher workforce to the students, who have been recast into the roles of 'customers or clients'. It is in essence a return to the all too pervasive 'transmission' view of teaching and learning (described in section 2.2.2) where the role of the teacher is more akin to that of a technician than a professional. Thus, as part of the school improvement process, the role of school leaders has been amplified while the role of teachers has been diminished. According to a business model, it then follows that there must be 'accountability' and 'quality control' procedures put in place to determine if the curriculum knowledge has been 'delivered' to the 'consumer'. These measures can also be used to indicate how effective the teacher has been in the delivery process. Auditing of both teaching and learning are integral parts of this model and go hand-in-hand with tests to measure the 'output' to determine if the final outcome of 'value added' has been achieved.

In England, policies introduced by successive governments since the late 1980s have not only upheld the business model of school organisation in England but enshrined it by introducing elements of a free-market approach to education and embedding outcomes-focused and standards-based testing, together with school inspection, to drive accountability and school improvement. Along with the introduction of the National Curriculum and Key Stage testing at age 7, 11 and 16 years, the Education Reform Act in the UK (1988) (Chapter 1) also introduced a funding model where 'money followed the pupil' so that schools who failed to attract pupils effectively suffered funding cuts thereby introducing the concept of competition between schools vying for 'customers' in the education 'market' (West, Mattei & Roberts, 2011).

One of the key elements of this market model is its accountability measures and the government consolidated school accountability in England in 1992 with the establishment of the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) creating a centralised body to carry out standardised school inspection replacing previous locally organised inspection arrangements. The publication of inspection reports which parents may use to assist in

choosing schools, makes inspection a high-stakes activity placing pressure on teachers and school leaders to comply with the accountability criteria to ensure a positive rating. Schools that receive a poor inspection rating not only risk a subsequent 'market induced' decline in enrolments but sanctions from Ofsted that can even lead to a school effectively being closed down. In this environment, teachers often feel they have little control over the curriculum and that their professional judgement is not valued as the accountability pressures oblige them to teach the mandated National Curriculum and to comply with its accompanying *Grade descriptors for the quality of teaching, learning and assessment* (Ofsted, 2017).

Testing is also used to ensure accountability and compliance by schools. The results from national tests and achievement in the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) exams (at age 16) are also used to measure school performance and since 1992 these results have been published in performance tables which are used by the press and the public to rank schools in what has become known in England as 'league tables'. This is another pressure on schools to comply with those elements of the national curriculum that will be tested. Schools then advertise good examination results and inspection ratings on their websites and on banners outside their schools in order to attract more students.

The criticism of this high-stakes testing is that it narrows the curriculum as teachers feel pressured to 'teach to the test' rather than to the broader curriculum as not only is the school rated on test and exam performance but their own effectiveness as teachers can also be correlated to student results. There is an almost global consensus surrounding the culture of performance testing which is reflected in the growing number of international studies that compare the performance of students and education systems in different countries around the world, the most well-known being the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) for 15 year olds in maths, science and reading conducted by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) every three years[44].

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[44] Other international comparisons include two studies by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA): the Progress in International Reading Study (PIRLS) in primary schools in 40 countries; and, Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) a series of international assessments of the mathematics and science knowledge of students around the world. England also participates in the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) which conducts the Survey of Adult Skills to measure adults' proficiency in key information-processing skills - literacy, numeracy and problem solving in technology-rich environments.

The growth in the use of technology and sophisticated quantitative methods for data analysis has contributed to the scientific paradigm of 'evidence-based' research becoming the norm in education, nationally and internationally, to create an education climate focused on quantification of performance and results. This trend focuses on the range of performance indicators that lend themselves easily to measurement. Consequently, it has resulted in an unprecedented emphasis on what *can* be measured being understood as the definitive 'evidence' of the broader, complex educational endeavour. In these circumstances, teachers may simply comply with the pressure for improved test scores and focus predominantly on producing the 'evidence' required by delivering standardised curricula, using prescribed teaching and assessment practices as students' 'learning' is reduced to that which can be measured (Groundwater-Smith & Mockler, 2009).

This emphasis on educational measurement puts examinations at the forefront of the school agenda leaving the issue of *how* to achieve the desired high standards (i.e. quality teaching and learning) at the margin of ongoing debates about more testing. This is exemplified by the justification given by Lord Bew (2011) for the introduction of the SPaG test in Year 6 in (see section 1.4.1): 'the more technical aspects of English – such as spelling, punctuation, grammar and vocabulary …can be assessed effectively via an externally marked test' (Bew, 2011).

It can be argued that all of the data now available provides information about the groups of students who require more support to perform better on these measures, and thereby assists education agencies to target resources to these groups. Nonetheless, the collection and analysis of quantitative data tends to overshadow the importance of the qualitative aspects of education that do not lend themselves so readily to this type of measurement. These aspects of education are nevertheless still highly valued by school communities as can be seen by reading the mission statement of any school in England[45] or around the world. Alongside the 'globally valued' skills and performance measures, schools also seek to promote a range of values and attitudes that almost defy measurement: spiritual, social and cultural development; values such as trust, tolerance, responsibility, respect for self and others; attitudes to learning such as confidence, engagement, innovation and a love of

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[45] E.g. An excerpt from the mission statement from the London secondary school where this study was undertaken: 'Our High School enables all in our school community to achieve their highest potential and prepares our students to become compassionate and caring citizens, aware of their global responsibilities. We achieve this by maintaining high expectations of the individual, appreciating that we are all members of a diverse community. We are each unique individuals, created in the image of God and relationships are formed through mutual respect between all members of our community.'

learning; relationships in school communities with and between teachers and students as well as physical and personal well-being.

My study of the implementation of professional learning by the teacher selected for focus from the group I worked with in London, takes place in a classroom situated at the intersection of the pressure of the performance and standards push, during the 'high-stakes' GCSE years and the less prominent, yet equally important, aspects of learning that the school promotes.

The next section considers the role of teacher professional development and learning in the current school accountability climate outlined above.

3.3 Professional development and learning

Teacher professional development and professional learning have been understood, defined and variously named from different perspectives in different contexts around the world. An extensive range of activities can currently be considered as professional development. Often a suite of activities is designed to achieve teacher-learning goals that are ultimately aimed at bringing about an improvement in student learning. Given this broad range of activities, any discussion of professional development and learning must be prefaced with at least some general definitions of terms and explanations of interpretations. In my study, the terms Professional Development (PD) and Continuing Professional Development (CPD) are used synonymously to mean the delivering of some kind of information to teachers in order to *influence* practice. The term 'professional learning' (PL), however, is used to refer to a process internal to the individual in which they *create professional knowledge* (Timperley et al., 2007, p. 3). The ultimate aim of all teacher learning is of course to improve student learning so the idea of professional learning will be used as an umbrella term under which professional development workshops are just one part. For professional development to have an impact, professional learning must take place so the two concepts are intertwined, and any well-constructed professional development experience should be designed to promote professional learning (Timperley et al., 2007, p. 3).

There is a range of organised activities that have traditionally been considered as professional development such as conferences, courses, workshops, meetings and networks

designed to update teachers with new ideas, knowledge and skills. More recent notions of professional development and learning include both planned and unplanned opportunities for 'embedded' workplace learning that is directly related to teaching. These may include professional discussions in the staff room, team-teaching, coaching or mentoring, reflecting on lessons and group discussions surrounding selected authentic materials such as student work or instructional tasks (Desimone, 2009). School-based professional learning groups and communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) who work collaboratively on a self-help basis to improve practice and build learning capacity in line with local needs have emerged under the umbrella of professional development in forms such as Professional Learning Teams (PLTs) and Learning Communities (LCs) (Stoll et al., 2006) which can include more than one school. Inquiry-based teacher professional learning has a growing number of proponents (Groundwater-Smith & Mockler, 2009) and may include teacher Action Research (Edwards-Groves & Kemmis, 2016) and notions of 'action learning'. And of course, information and communication technologies have created many more PL opportunities

Given that such an array of activities can be considered as professional development, it is not surprising that where there is insufficient planning and direction, the process has been criticised as little more than a '…patchwork of opportunities – formal and informal, mandatory and voluntary, serendipitous and planned…' (Wilson & Berne, 1999, p. 174) rather than part of an improvement process. Policy makers, schools and teachers are increasingly aware of the need to be cognizant of how different types of activities might serve different learning needs and goals so that the scarce resources of teacher time, effort and the financial resources of schools can be channelled into learning that will effectively meet the aims of the teachers and schools and ideally result in an impact on student learning. To achieve the right balance between these factors, policy makers and schools are increasingly using the findings of research into effective professional development and learning to guide their decision-making concerning what type of offerings will be made available to teachers.

The next section will outline a shift in the responsibility for PL and school improvement in England from central authorities to schools.

3.4 Professional development and learning as part of school improvement

Invariably the professional development of teachers, designed to result in improvement in both teacher and student learning, is a feature identified in the school improvement process in England and internationally. The nature of any teacher professional development undertaken in the current environment is usually linked to school improvement priorities which may be new initiatives, changes in practices or enhancing existing good practice in order to continue to improve (OECD, 2014).

Prior to the Education Reform Act of 1988 in England, however, Continuing Professional Development (CPD) was largely individually targeted to the personal professional development of individual teachers or their institutions but the introduction of the National Literacy Strategy (NLS) marked a change in the purpose of CPD to a system to support schools in achieving government determined improvement priorities (see Chapter 1). The case of the CPD devised to implement the NLS represented a watershed for many teachers in England. Over the previous thirty years, standards in literacy in England had not increased in line with the hopes and expectations of policy makers and appeared to be out of line with the practices suggested by school effectiveness research (Beard, 2000). So, in 2001 the first national strategy for teachers' CPD was centrally devised and locally delivered as a mechanism for implementing the National Strategies for Literacy, Numeracy and Key Stage 3 (Pedder, Storey & Opfer, 2008). A scripted training model was regionally disseminated to local authority consultants, who were centrally funded. Using a 'cascade' training model, they then delivered the PD to teachers in schools.

As Hudson and Walmsley (2005) commented (Chapter 1), the one-day courses and printed materials were insufficient to prepare teachers for what was expected in the classroom and while this model did result in some improvement in standards, it was a very controversial professional development strategy. Not only did many teachers feel that it did not prepare them sufficiently for the classroom (as was confirmed by the *Final Report* [2003] on the initiative) but that it was a 'prescriptive, one-size fits all', deficit model of CPD (Ingvarson, 1998) designed as a control measure rather than focusing on developing the personal capacity and understanding of individual teachers according to their needs (Ridley, 2011).

Within a decade, however, the publication of *The Importance of Teaching: The Schools' White Paper 2010* (DfE, 2010) revealed a dramatic shift in the stance adopted by the government in England to teacher professional development. While the focus of the paper

was still clearly on school improvement and accountability measures involving testing and a range of data collection; it nonetheless drew extensively on the recommendations from the report commissioned by the Training and Development Agency for Schools, *Schools and continuing professional development (CPD) in England - State of the Nation research project* (Pedder, Storey, & Opfer, 2008) and stated explicitly that it had stepped back from its previous policy of using centrally devised, traditional 'passive learning' style workshops to try and ensure compliance with national goals for school improvement. The government was no longer in favour of micro-managing school policies and teaching practices centrally ('from Whitehall') but in supporting the school system to become more effectively self-improving (DfE, 2010, p. 13).

The main thrust of the report was to strengthen the underlying business model for the structure of schools, particularly by increasing the free market nature of education to promote the conversion of more schools to 'academies'[46] and to enable the establishment of more 'free schools'[47] both of which operate outside of the remit of local education authorities. In terms of professional development, the emphasis in the report continued to be placed on leadership, consistent with the business model approach. The notion of Learning Communities was expanded to introduce school-to-school support communities to enable leaders of 'high performing' schools to mentor leaders of 'low performing' schools and thereby facilitate improvement[48].

The trend towards self-managing schools has continued to gain momentum and is a key driver of the 2016 *White paper* (DfE, 2016) *Educational excellence everywhere*. The Department for Education adopted a 'supported autonomy approach' to building capacity in schools and proposed legislation to make all schools convert to academy status by 2020 (DfE, 2016, p. 53)[49].

The approach to teacher professional development adopted in the 2010 *white paper* also focused on the schools as sites for learning via teacher-to-teacher support; just as schools

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[46] Academies are independent schools funded directly from central government rather than local authorities and they have more freedom over their finances, the curriculum, and teachers' pay and conditions.

[47] Free schools are schools set up by groups of parents, teachers, charities, trusts, religious and voluntary groups. They are set up as academies and are funded in the same way - directly from central government.

[48] There are 4 categories of system leadership roles: professional partners; local leaders of education (LLEs); national leaders of education and national support schools (NLEs/NSSs). School improvement partners (SIPs) were phased out in 2010.

[49] The proposal, however, proved to be highly controversial resulting in the government later announcing a change to the move requiring that only 'underperforming' local authority schools would be forced to convert to academies in order to bring about the improvements that have been attributed to this type of school restructure.

would learn from each other, so would teachers. Learning on the job emerged as the key strategy: 'open classroom' culture is vital: observing teaching and being observed, having the opportunity to plan, prepare, reflect and teach with other teachers (DfE, 2010, p. 19). The paper also proposed the introduction of a national network of teaching schools, based on the idea of teaching hospitals, that would work with other schools to deliver and quality assure initial teacher training, provide professional development for teachers, offer leadership development for emerging and established leaders and provide school improvement (DfE, 2010, p. 9).

This policy stance represented a reversal of the highly centralised approach to professional development taken by the national strategy for teachers' CPD to implement the NLS. The Department for Education was in fact forgoing responsibility for teacher professional development, relying on the strengthening of the structures and features of the business model of schooling to enable schools to become self-improving and self-sufficient on all levels including their own teacher learning.

The policy notion was that outstanding teachers and school leaders would learn from each other and take responsibility for the improvement and development of other schools and teachers by working in clusters. While these initiatives appear to open up possibilities for teachers and schools to take charge of their own learning, they are ultimately dependent on the resources schools allocate to them such as time and a budget to enable the necessary pool of expert teachers to be prepared and available to lead their peers. I was to find these resources limited in my research (see Chapter 4)[50].

The next section outlines the findings of research into the attributes of successful PL that have influenced policy in England.

3.5 Features of successful teacher professional development and learning

Most teacher professional learning initiatives are accompanied by some form of evaluation and this section will discuss some of the purposes and findings of large scale evaluations and research into teacher professional development that have been undertaken to explain

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[50] Austerity measures between 2010 and 2019 led to cuts in public spending resulting in limited spending by schools in non-frontline areas such as teacher professional development. The Institute of Fiscal Studies reports that there was an 8% reduction in per-pupil spending between 2010 and 2018: https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/education-44794205.

the trend towards school-based professional development and to inform the discussion of the professional learning undertaken as part of this research.

The OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (*TALIS*), undertaken in 2008 and 2013 (OECD, 2009 & 2014), is an international, large-scale survey that focuses on the working conditions of teachers and the learning environment in schools. A brief overview of some of its findings offers some insights into the current issues for teachers and schools in relation to professional development.

Some of the findings from *TALIS* (2009 & 2014) can be linked to a number of factors also found in school effectiveness research that influence the current policy trends in England and the uptake of professional development in the schools involved in my study. The *TALIS* report on the 2008 survey (OECD, 2009) found that teachers who received more professional development and/or recognition for good performance from their peers or their principal felt that they were more effective than those who did not receive PD or such recognition. It also identified that teachers who worked collaboratively with colleagues and had positive relationships with students reported higher levels of effectiveness. These findings align with the *CPD in England - State of the nation* report (Pedder, Storey, & Opfer, 2008), which also identified the role of school leaders and teacher collaboration as significant features in effective professional development processes.

The *TALIS* 2013 findings (OECD, 2014) emphasised the importance of providing more opportunities for professional development and that non-school embedded professional development should be limited to situations where teachers need to develop new knowledge. Nonetheless, comparing England to the other 33 countries in the survey, teachers spent an average of only 10 days per year on professional development, which is far less than the average of 22 days per year across the survey. Furthermore, teachers in England spent far more of that time in courses and workshops and in-service training in outside organisations (75%) than in more in-depth activities, such as research or formal qualifications (OECD, 2014).

Against the background of the *TALIS* findings the Teacher Development Trust[51]

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[51] The Teacher Development Trust is a UK charity which works to raise awareness of the importance of professional development for teachers and other education professionals.

commissioned an 'umbrella' review of evidence about effective teacher professional development, *Developing Great Teaching* (Cordingley, et al., 2015) to inform policy development in England. This meta-review only looked at reviews from 2000 onwards, but the list of effective design principles it identified are very similar to those identified over 20 years ago in the often-cited meta-analysis of research into professional development conducted by Hawley and Valli (1999) covering the period of the late 1980s and the 1990s which were used to inform the design of the R2L professional learning (PL)[52] in Australia. Thus, over a period of almost 30 years very little has changed in terms of findings about effective PL. Both of these reviews focus on: the need for PL to be carefully designed and aligned with teacher needs; the importance of ongoing support from experts; opportunities for teachers to work collaboratively in the school environment; the importance of focusing on student learning; and, for teachers to engage in problem solving in order to have an impact on student achievement.

The synthesis of research findings that list the effective design principles for PL are akin to the lists of features for school improvement (mentioned in section 3.2) in that they are to be used flexibly in different contexts to guide the design of PL initiatives. However, in the face of the *TALIS* findings about the actual state of PL, many of the features for effective teacher learning still remain aspirational aims for the future in a variety of international contexts. This is seen in England by the pervasive tradition of teachers attending external training workshops and a lack of ongoing, school-based professional learning for many teachers. So, it seems that the list of design features for PL set out in the Hawley and Valli (1999) meta-analysis continue to remain largely aspirational two decades later.

The issues around moves for school improvement, together with the lack of implementation of the recommendations in England demonstrates that there is no quick-fix. Change only comes about slowly, perhaps reflecting the entrenched nature of many of the underlying beliefs about learning (described in Chapter 2) that apply not only to student learning but equally to teacher learning. This echoes the disappointment expressed by Hawley and Valli (1999) when they were initially able to identify the features of effective PL but simultaneously recognised that there were few cases of actual implementation: 'the bad news is that few of these principles are common to professional

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[52] *Continuous professional development* (CPD) is the commonly used term for teacher learning in the UK but the umbrella term of *professional learning* (PL) is used in relation to the teacher learning in this study.

development programmes in schools and colleges, and the cases where most, much less all, of the principles are being implemented simultaneously are rare indeed (1999, p. 145)'.

Nonetheless, all of this research still leaves open the issue of *how* teachers take up learning from professional development and enact it in the classroom in order to have the desired impact on student learning that PL aims to facilitate. This underexplored issue is the focus of my research project. To support my investigation, I am drawing on an innovative body of research which moves beyond the previous trend of producing lists of effective design features and exploring teacher attitudes to PL. The next section discusses meta-research which has a more pragmatic focus and investigates *how* teachers respond to PL in terms of the key issue of classroom implementation.

3.6 Teacher responses to professional development and the role of dissonance

The New Zealand Ministry of Education's international meta-research project *Teacher professional learning and development: Best evidence synthesis iteration [BES]* (Timperley et al., 2007) offers some new insights into *how* teacher professional learning can occur that are relevant to my study. While the *BES* research upholds many of the features identified in other meta-analyses (described above), it also focuses on the processes by which teachers take up new learning and embed it in their practice for the benefit of their students. Where research into professional learning goes beyond producing lists of successful design features, it usually focuses on understanding the links between teaching and learning (sometimes referred to as the 'black box'[53]). The *Best evidence synthesis*, however, goes even further to focus on what it calls the 'second black box', the relationship between professional learning opportunities and their impact on teaching practice, which is the focus of my research (*Figure 5* below).
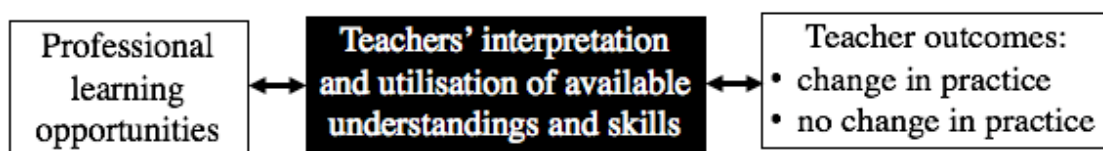
Figure 5 The 'black box' of teacher learning (adapted from Timperley et al, 2007, p. 7)

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[53] In science, computing, and engineering, a 'black box' is a device, system or object which can be viewed in terms of its inputs and outputs (or transfer characteristics), without any knowledge of its internal workings. Its implementation is 'opaque' (black).

The findings of the *BES* research synthesis provide an account of teacher learning that offers some important guidelines for determining to what extent the teacher in my study takes up the learning provided in the PD as evidenced in classroom interactions. The *BES* meta-research explores the relationship between PL and classroom teaching, asserting that:

> Little is known about how teachers interpret the available understandings and utilise the particular skills offered during professional learning opportunities, or the consequent impact of these on teaching practice and student outcomes. What is known is that the relationship is far from simple. This synthesis begins to unpack the contents of that black box (Timperley et al., 2007, p. xxiii).

The *BES* makes an assumption about how students learn, and it further assumes that teacher learning occurs in a similar way. It describes teacher learning in terms of three iterative processes: cueing and retrieving prior knowledge, developing an awareness of new information and creating 'dissonance' with a current position. These processes should occur within the context of extended opportunities to learn and are dependent on the teachers engaging with both the new information and their existing understandings (Timperley et al., 2007, p. xv).

The role of dissonance in promoting new teacher learning is fundamental to the teacher uptake of new PL in this research. It refers to the sense of disequilibrium that is created when a learner is confronted with dissonant information that challenges their existing ideas, theories, values or beliefs. The *BES* research has shown that learners are keen to resolve dissonance either by rejecting the new learning or by making substantial changes to their previous beliefs and understandings (Timperley, et al., 2007, p. xv)

In the forward to the *BES*, Earl's (2007) reflection about the teacher professional learning process captures a major concern for any provider of professional learning who introduces new learning that presents a significant challenge for teachers and is very relevant to my study:

> Professional learning can ask a lot of teachers in the interest of their students. Even those who are confident in their professional role can feel profoundly uncomfortable when what they hold to be true is challenged and they have to rethink their beliefs and practices. This is particularly so because teachers are adults

who have well-defined and defended schema about the way the world works (Earl, in Timperley et al., 2017, p. viii)

An important finding of the *BES* research is that new and profound teacher learning based on theories that are not aligned with teachers pre-existing beliefs and understandings needs to be introduced via a careful combination of strategies that enable both an enactment of the pedagogy that will provide evidence of its efficacy and a validation of the new theory thus enabling a 'letting go' of pre-existing tacit theories in a non-threatening manner. The *BES* research claims that insufficient attention to either of these elements runs the risk of complete rejection or only partial adoption of the new learning.

The most significant new areas that the *BES* meta-research has explored are firstly, the interpersonal and emotional nature of teacher learning and the associated acknowledgement that asking teachers to change practices may touch a 'raw nerve' that confronts their professional identity. Secondly, the notion of creating 'dissonance' for teachers between pre-existing and new concepts, knowledge and practices has been identified as important step in effective teacher learning. This is based on the idea that many theories and routines are often held and adhered to tacitly and are based on unarticulated beliefs and values which must be brought to consciousness to be re-examined and reconstructed as part of the professional development process if professional learning is to take place.

The *BES* research has identified a range of nuanced responses that individuals or groups of teacher learners have to teacher professional development that go beyond merely acceptance or rejection:

Following assessment and interpretation of the relevance, usefulness, and cost/benefit of PL, teacher learners/communities do one or more of the following:

- reject/ignore new theory and practice and continue with prior practice;
- continue with prior practice, believing that it is new practice;
- select parts of new theory and practice and adapt to current practice;
- implement as required;
- actively engage with, own, and apply new theory and practice and change practice substantively (Timperley et al., 2007, p. 14).

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The findings of the *BES* research are very relevant to my research project as the notion of bringing knowledge about language to consciousness underpins the literacy professional learning that forms the basis of my study into how a teacher uses the new learning from the PL in her classroom practice.

The next section explains the design of the *Reading to Learn* professional learning which provides the basis for my research into teacher classroom implementation.

3.7 *Reading to Learn (R2L)* literacy professional learning

After providing some background information about the development of the *Reading to Learn*[54] *(R2L)* PL, this section will explain the design of a 'typical' R2L teacher learning project in relation to the effective design principles for PL discussed in section 3.5 above. This will provide a backdrop to explain the design of the PL component of my study (in Chapter 4) which is a 'bespoke' version of the typical R2L design to take into account the school context in London and the empirical research focus of this study.

In 2002, the developer of the R2L classroom pedagogy, David Rose, was invited by the Catholic Education Office (CEOM), in Melbourne, Australia, to provide some workshops for teachers who were working with struggling readers beyond the early years of schooling. The interest from teachers in the pedagogy led to the CEOM establishing a two-year literacy intervention research project (2003-2005) using R2L as part of a broader literacy project focused on learners in the middle years of schooling (Acevedo, 2005; Rose & Acevedo, 2006a). Prior to this, the work on *Reading to Learn* had focused principally on the development of the classroom teaching methodology so, as part of the research project, a model for teacher professional learning was developed (Rose & Acevedo, 2006b).

While research into PL design that was current at the time was consulted (Hawley and Valli, 1999; McRae, et al., 2001; DE&T, 2005) the focus on design principles alone did not address the equally important issue of *how* the principles could be implemented systematically with teachers to facilitate classroom implementation of the pedagogy. To enable this, it was necessary to recast teachers into the role of learners and put their needs at the centre of the PL

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[54] D. Rose, University of Sydney, Australia, has led the development of *Reading to Learn.*

process in a parallel fashion to the positioning of students at the centre of the classroom learning.

The Australian R2L project thus adopted the model of scaffolding that underpins student learning in genre-based approaches (described in Chapter 2) as the basis for the model of teacher professional learning.

The model for teacher PL (*Figure 6* below) that was developed for the R2L teacher learning research project is multi-layered; it consists of three phases of learning for teachers conducted at two different sites following the notion of scaffolding proposed by Bruner (1986) after Vygotsky (1978) (Acevedo, 2005).

As illustrated in *Figure 6* (below), the professional learning in this model begins in off-site, expert led workshops and continues on-site in school teams with support through visits from outside experts. Once teacher expertise in the classroom pedagogy is achieved and school capacity develops over time, the project model provides for experienced R2L classroom teachers to receive ongoing professional development and support to later become on-site mentors or coaches for their colleagues.
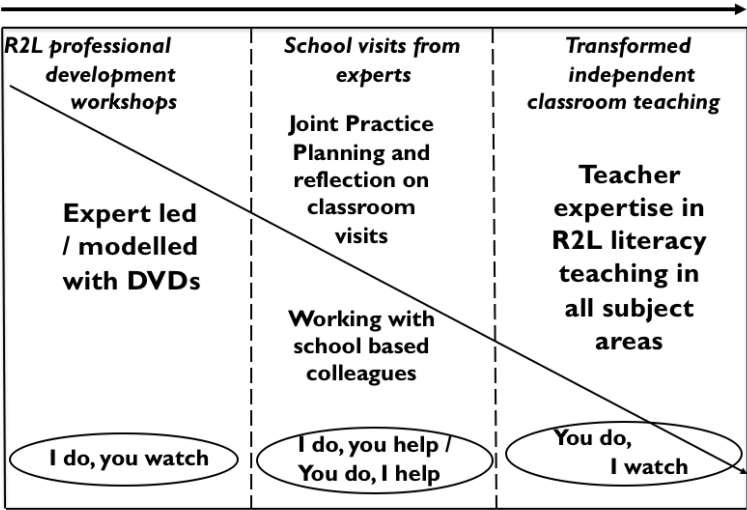
Figure 6 Scaffolding *Reading to Learn* PL (adapted from Wilhelm et al., 2001, p. 91)

The model was used as part of a large-scale action research project in Australia (Rose & Acevedo, 2006a) that was designed to progressively build independent school-based literacy experts over several years as they learnt to collect, reflect and act on evidence of the learning taking place in their classrooms. Recursive cycles of teacher reflection on

practice, designed to promote discussion with colleagues in learning teams about future action to improve student learning, developed a culture of teacher learning that contributed to the process of whole school improvement (Acevedo, 2005).

The model of scaffolding teacher learning provided a means of implementing the key design principles for effective PL in terms of aligning with teacher needs; providing ongoing support from experts; opportunities for teachers to work collaboratively in the school environment; focusing on student learning; and problem-solving in order to have an impact on student achievement. The research carried out on the R2L teacher learning using this design showed it to be successful (Culican, 2005) in terms of both teacher and student learning outcomes. This has led to the same project model, with local adaptations, being used as the basis for the design of many iterations of R2L teacher PL over the past 15 years as it provides a guided model of learning for teachers that is congruent with the classroom teaching methodology, while also actualising key elements for successful PL identified initially in the 1990s that are still current today.

The professional learning process in my doctoral research is also designed around the notion of scaffolding teacher learning about language, literacy and pedagogy. While certain key components of the PL model developed for the research in Australia have been included in my study, there have been a number of modifications made to the 'typical' PL model in order to respond to the current PL context in England and to the requirements of empirical research (see Chapter 4). Each of the key components illustrated in *Figure 6* (above) is described in the following section in terms of a 'typical' professional learning programme while indicating some of the modifications that were made for this study.

3.7.1 Professional development workshops

The expert led, off-site *Reading to Learn* professional development workshops are the first step in the PL process. As outlined in Chapter 2 the R2L classroom pedagogy is text-based, so it uses texts that are appropriate for different subjects, ages and stages of schooling but essentially it employs the same range of strategies (see section 2.7). This enables the text-based content of professional development workshops to be adjusted to cater for different groupings of teachers. The professional development is typically conducted as series of four, two-day 'expert-led' workshops spaced throughout the school year. Each participating school is required to enrol at least two teachers into the programme so that

they can support each other with on-site, school-based implementation. The professional learning materials used in the workshops are course booklets and DVDs that demonstrate the pedagogy in the classroom. The workshop activities include presentation, classroom simulations, text analysis and lesson preparation activities with opportunities for reflective discussion and examination of classroom writing samples.

As explained, a shorter version of this 'typical' professional learning was designed for the participants in my doctoral study due to institutional constraints in the participating London schools (see Chapter 4).

3.7.2 School-based professional development

One of the most important aspects of the PL process in this project model is the mentoring support or scaffolding for teachers in between the workshops provided by experts in the pedagogy, such as the workshop leaders. This support, which is highlighted as significant in Timperley et al.'s (2007) PL meta-research, has repeatedly been identified as contributing to embedding classroom implementation of the pedagogy in schools (Culican, 2005; Rose, & Acevedo, 2006a; Acevedo, 2010; Acevedo, 2014; Coffin, Acevedo & Lövstedt, 2013; Whittaker & Acevedo, 2016; Hipkiss & Andersson Varga, 2018).

The process of mentoring teachers during school visits is informed by research on mentoring and coaching in three key areas identified by Swafford, et al., (1997): procedural (technical) support, affective (emotional) support and reflective support. The mentoring role is modelled initially by the experts on school visits but can be taken over by school-based mentors in subsequent years. Long-term R2L projects have an additional layer of workshops for on-going teachers to become mentors and to lead school-based Professional Action Learning Teams (Johnson, 2003).

Following each workshop teachers are asked to study the workshop materials and films of classroom practice and prepare a lesson to teach or use one of the pre-prepared lesson plans for their initial lessons. Teacher concerns and questions then steer the agenda of the school visits although concerns typically fall into one of the key areas identified in the research on mentoring.

Discussion around procedural issues may involve answering questions and providing

feedback to teachers on films of classroom teaching episodes. The feedback on teaching aims to highlight teachers' strengths and also suggest improvements to particular practices. It may emphasise important teaching points, facilitate problem solving, help teachers select materials, and suggest improvements to classroom management and organisational strategies. The coaching for affective (emotional) support can involve reassuring teachers when they have doubts about the effectiveness of their teaching and confirming their teaching strengths and areas in which they can improve. The affective support also encourages teachers to take risks in the classroom and not to give up when they experience difficulty implementing the new pedagogy. Reflective support can include conversations after viewing the films of lesson segments that move teachers beyond discussions of procedures to clarifying issues, by verbalising their teaching objectives and reflecting on their strengths and on how the new teaching practices may differ from their previous practices. The discussions also help teachers to think about future lessons and changes they would make. Probing questions are progressively used to promote teacher self-reflection as iteratively developing understandings via the theory-practice relationship between workshops and classroom implementation is an essential part of teacher learning. Discussion and assessment of student work using the *Reading to Learn* writing analysis can contribute to the development of a shared metalanguage to discuss student literacy development as has been evidenced by research into this process (Culican, 2005; Acevedo, 2010).

School visits were an especially important PL opportunity for the teachers participating in my doctoral study and Chapter 5 details the nature of the scaffolding process that took place during a series of school visits with one teacher to exemplify this process.

3.7.3 Independent classroom implementation and mentoring of colleagues

In a typical R2L project, teachers become more confident with the classroom pedagogy over the year as long as they implement it as often as possible in the classroom. Thus, encouraging frequent implementation is key to developing independence with the classroom teaching. The school visits not only provide support for teachers and an opportunity to problem solve any issues that may impede implementation, but they also provide some impetus or pressure to enact the pedagogy especially when a visit from an expert is imminent. Classroom films for self-reflection and opportunities to share experiences with other teachers at their schools and in the workshops operate to build a

shared community of practice in the group which promotes ongoing implementation. Teachers are able to gauge the success in the classroom through student reaction and by carefully analysing student writing in the workshops as part of the data collection process for the project which provides motivation for implementation.

In long-term R2L projects teachers who experience success with the classroom pedagogy can begin to support new teachers from their schools to develop a professional learning forum and take on the role of providing support to others at the school level in subsequent years and additional professional learning opportunities are provided to facilitate this process.

3.7.4 Student learning data

A typical *Reading to Learn* project is carried out as action research into student literacy learning and requires teachers to collect a range of data on literacy achievement from six focus students: two high performing students, two middle range students and two low performing students. Pre-programme achievement data is compared with post-programme data to measure growth in student achievement over the course of the school year. Data on teacher learning is collected in the off-site professional development workshops and during on-site school visits.

Following the first workshop, teachers are required to decide on one class to be their 'research class' for data collection throughout the year. In a typical project, they begin by collecting and analysing base-line data on the pre-programme levels of reading and writing for a representative sample of students. Teachers are also asked to try and film themselves teaching a lesson segment in preparation for the visit from a workshop leader who will support them with any early implementation concerns.

A major difference between a typical teacher learning project and my empirical study, however, is that the focus of the data collection is the teacher not the students. Furthermore, as the researcher, it is my responsibility to analyse the data on student learning and to film the lessons (see Chapter 4).

3.7.5 Teacher learning data

Following the first workshop, teachers are asked to discuss their classroom implementation of *Reading to Learn* at the start of each off-site workshop session. They recount their experiences and key teaching moments in groups and make notes, they are then invited to reflect on their teaching in terms of successes and ongoing challenges. The key points from the small group discussions are recorded as they are reported orally to the whole group. During this reporting process the points are responded to and elaborated on by the workshop leader and other group members. Any resulting new points from this discussion are also recorded. The recorded responses are used again at the start of each subsequent workshop for reflection in the light of further classroom experience and/or as a stimulus for discussion on new issues arising. The teachers' responses, together with written responses to an online survey after workshop four are tabulated and analysed as part of the data collection to provide an overall picture of growth in the teachers' thinking about their own learning as well as about student learning.

While in my empirical research this same process was implemented as part of the research design, the data from just one focus teacher is analysed in this study (section 4.4.2). This in-depth focus on a single teacher allows for the data to be analysed in detail to gain a more precise understanding of a teacher's perception about her own learning and to determine more precisely the areas of professional learning that have had more and less impact on classroom practice.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of some of the national and international issues that have an ongoing influence on the current professional learning climate in England and thus impact on the London schools in my study. The professional learning that forms the basis of this study has been shaped by the design features for effective PL that grew out of the school effectiveness research and the school improvement movement. The professional learning also has a specific focus on *how* practising teachers can continue to learn via workshops and their classroom teaching. This issue is addressed by designing the PL process based on the same Vygotskian notion of scaffolding for teacher learning as the R2L classroom pedagogy promotes for student learning.

The discussions contained in the first three chapters of this dissertation are designed to provide a pathway through the complexity of the multi-layered, overlapping and mutually

influencing issues of education policy for language and literacy, teaching and learning theory and pedagogy that ultimately influence the sometimes less prominent issue of teacher professional learning for literacy education.

The next chapter explains and justifies the choice of my research methodology and the design of the study.

Chapter 4 - Research methodology and design

4.1 Introduction

This study of teacher professional learning, focusing on literacy in the secondary school classroom, is underpinned by a social view of literacy and learning (as outlined in Chapters 2 and 3). This same sociolinguistic view (section 2.4.1) of teacher and student learning also underpins my research methodology and gives rise to the design of the study. This chapter firstly describes and justifies the choice of methodology. Secondly, it explains how the methodology has been applied to answer the research questions via the component parts of the research design: the research sites and the participant in focus; the data collected; the approach to data analysis and the tools for analysis. The next section will explicate the view of literacy teaching and learning underlying this study to later situate it within the field of qualitative research.

4.2 View of literacy and learning

In brief, Chapter 1 outlined the policy context for this research showing the gap between the aspirations for literacy teaching and learning in secondary schools expressed in official education policy documents and the actual situation in schools. The classroom implementation of the genre-based literacy pedagogy in my research aligns with the call, repeated in policy documents for almost a century, for *all* teachers in England to also be teachers of English (Sampson, 1922). This call was later echoed as *language across the curriculum* in the Bullock Report (DES, 1975). Subsequently, the notion of literacy education came to be used almost synonymously with the skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening in many teaching and learning contexts in England via the National Literacy Strategy (DfEE, 1998).

Nonetheless, definitions of literacy are diverse, ranging from narrowly focused notions of basic and functional literacy (Gray, 1956) often associated with phonics, decoding and spelling (Ehri, 1995; Dixon, Stuart, & Masterson, 2002; Rose, 2006) to broad understandings such as multiliteracies (New London Group, 1996; Cope, Kalantzis & Smith, 2018). Such broad definitions take into account cultural diversity and new communications technologies and can include critical literacy (Lankshear & McLaren, 1993; Cleovoulou, 2018) involving the analysis and critique of the relationships among

texts, language, power, social groups and social practices. Definitions of literacy can also have discipline specific meanings (e.g. computer literacy or scientific literacy) or refer to more universal skill sets.

The approach to language and literacy that is the basis of my research sees learning essentially as a linguistic process which is social in nature (after Vygotsky, 1978; Bruner, 1986), so language, literacy and learning are regarded as being inextricably linked. This is based on Halliday's view of language as a social semiotic (section 2.4.1) and his description of learning language as a process of learning how to mean (Halliday, 1975). As such, reading and writing are seen as context specific activities requiring the interpretation of a range of texts in different subjects and at different stages of schooling. This view differs from psycholinguistic approaches to reading that consider it to be a unitary text processing activity used by readers irrespective of the social context and purpose of the text (Goodman, 1976; Graves, 1983; Cambourne, 1988).

As explained, the central role of texts in the social semiotic approach to literacy learning requires teachers to read and analyse curriculum texts and use their analyses as a resource for the teaching of reading and writing. In class, the interactive role of the teacher is paramount in guiding students to explore a range of texts in different genres to learn how the language system operates to make meaning in different ways, on different levels: whole text, paragraph, sentence and word, in all subject areas. Accordingly, teacher-student interaction, or classroom discourse, in combination with other semiotic systems is understood to construct the social reality of the classroom (Christie, 2002). As such, pedagogy is enacted via the ongoing discourse and multimodal classroom practices that create meaning in an unfolding series of interactive 'curriculum genres'[55]. These complementary views of literacy and pedagogy underpin my choice of a qualitative mode of inquiry for this doctoral research, as explained in the next section.

4.2.1 Teacher learning as a mirror of the student learning process

Halliday's assertion that we all possess a vast unconscious knowledge about language (in Martin, 2013, p.78), and that this knowledge must become conscious when learning to read and write (in Martin, 2013, p.138), resonates with the approach to teacher learning that is

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[55] Christie (2002) coined the term "curriculum genre" for the patterned ways in which lessons unfold.

used in the *Reading to Learn* professional development (Rose, 2014). While Halliday's assertion referred to student learning, the same notion of developing teachers' tacit knowledge about language (KAL), through a series of staged encounters with a range of curriculum texts and a classroom pedagogy to make KAL visible in the classroom is what guided the development of my research questions and likewise the design of the inquiry.

The research questions (section 1.7) are designed to explore the context and then to probe each step one teacher has taken in the implementation of the pedagogy cycle (based on the *Reading to Learn* teacher professional learning) to delicately discern to what extent the teacher is becoming conscious of how she uses language as a meaning-making resource by carefully studying her practices, language use and meta-language in lesson preparation, teaching and in her reflections on the process.

The sociolinguistic perspective on student and teacher learning informed the selection of the methodology and methods for the research design. While the teachers involved in the London schools (section 4.4.1) have been provided with the genre-based professional development in a similar fashion to those in previous *Reading to Learn* projects in other countries (Culican, 2005; Acevedo, 2010; Coffin, Acevedo & Lövstedt 2013); those projects were designed as action research (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988), to evaluate the impact of the PL on student, not teacher, outcomes.

Furthermore, the previous large-scale impact studies have only been able to make assumptions about teacher learning based on anecdotal teacher self-reporting in online surveys and workshop discussions. There has been little classroom data collected to contrast with the anecdotal teacher reports in an attempt to understand more fully the nature and extent of the reported teacher learning about language and literacy thought to underlie the improved student outcomes. As highlighted previously (in section 3.6), much educational research has been focused on understanding the links between teaching and student learning, but little has been focused on the relationship between professional learning opportunities and their impact on teaching practice (Timperley et al., 2007, p. xxiii).

This doctoral research is thus designed as a qualitative inquiry to probe the previously under-researched issue of *teacher learning* with regard to the genre-based literacy professional learning (section 3.7). According to Leavy (2014):

the essence of qualitative inquiry as a way of understanding, describing, explaining, unravelling, illuminating, chronicling, and documenting social life… can involve the study of others, but also the self and the complex relationships between, within, and among people and groups, including our own entanglements (2014, p. 2).

As such, this methodology offers the flexibility to accommodate my role as both provider of the professional learning and researcher as well as the ability to allow for explanations of the complexity of the 'teacher case' in focus.

This study entails collecting qualitative data about teaching rather than student learning data. The methods of qualitative inquiry that are appropriate for this study in the school environment are to observe and interview a teacher about planning and teaching, to collect documents and to film episodes of classroom teaching. These modes of inquiry are designed to investigate *how* a teacher brings knowledge about language to consciousness and applies it through the lens of SFL to 'scaffold' students' meaning-making in reading and writing in a secondary school. The next section will link the views of literacy, pedagogy and the process of teacher learning used in this doctoral research to the choice of a qualitative mode of inquiry.

4.3 Research Methodology

This qualitative linguistic inquiry is in keeping with the social view of language and literacy learning that has been adopted in the professional learning and the classroom pedagogy with its inherent emphasis on teacher-student interaction. Moreover, from a theoretical perspective, qualitative methodology is the congruent approach for this study which views language as a social semiotic (section 2.4.1) as it is able to capture the interactive nature of classroom teaching. The role of genre in the social construction of experience has been elaborated by numerous scholars (Halliday, 1973; Christie, 1990 & 1999; Christie & Martin, 1997; Christie & Simpson 2010). The social nature of classroom learning includes its dynamic role in responding to and constructing recurring educational experience and processes. The social aspect of learning underscores the suitability of a methodology that is able to capture elements of the complex educational environment, even those that extend beyond the classroom as outlined in the preceding chapters (1, 2 & 3). Freebody (2003) notes that:

Educational activities are inherently complex and dynamic, both in the local settings in which they occur and, beyond those sites, as part of a society's publicly co-ordinated activities (2003, p. 1).

Qualitative inquiry includes a variety of methods that have the potential to contribute to understanding the nature of the complex and dynamic activities involved in education. This methodology has been described as:

A situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to self. At this level, qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 3).

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) further assert that qualitative research involves using and collecting multiple data to 'describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in individual's lives' (2000, pp. 3-4). That is to say, qualitative research attempts to understand people's behaviours, intentions, and processes behind behaviours. To commit to such an endeavour, I have employed a range of qualitative data collection methods including surveys, classroom observations and filming, interviews and a review of curriculum and classroom documents described in section 4.4.6.

Despite the aptness of qualitative methods for my study (see 4.4 below), it is not simply the compatibility of the practical aspects of classroom research that underpin the methodological choice for this study. It is the embodiment of the theory-practice relationship that motivates the methodological choice; a sociolinguistic approach to inquiry is used to study the teaching and learning of a pedagogy that enacts a sociolinguistic approach in the classroom. This type of theoretical motivation is highlighted by Silverman (2001) as one of the central concerns that should drive qualitative research rather than preferences for certain methods.

In comparing the choice of qualitative modes of inquiry over quantitative inquiry, Silverman emphasises that in qualitative social inquiry the 'objects' of inquiry are

members of society who already have their own theories of social action and social order which encourages researchers to examine practices as procedural issues, asking 'how' questions about social activities that may be routine and apparently seem unremarkable (Silverman, 1993 in Freebody, 2003, p. 39).

In terms of my inquiry into teacher learning, the key concerns of qualitative inquiry highlighted by Silverman (above) are highly relevant to my choice of methodology. Firstly, this research focuses on the social nature of teachers and teaching, as opposed to viewing teachers more impersonally as 'objects' of study that perform as 'instruments' for the transmission of knowledge in order to achieve improved student outcomes. My focus on the social role of teaching naturally leads to a focus on modes of interaction, particularly on language and other semiotic modes (described in section 4.5). The issue of teachers' own theories of action, that Silverman specifically refers to, has been highlighted from the outset in this dissertation (section 1.3) due to the influence these theories might have on the uptake of professional learning.

In sum, a qualitative methodology enables the issue of a teacher's own theories of action to be problematised and explored through language in an effort to determine the extent of the impact on teacher uptake of new learning. Secondly, the focus on the social nature of teaching and classroom procedures has led me to pursue the type of 'how' question about classroom practice proposed by Silverman (2001) in an effort to understand more about the impact of scaffolded literacy professional learning on a secondary teacher's knowledge about language and her use of it as part of classroom literacy pedagogy.

The next section addresses the issue of internal validity. This is related to the 'trustworthiness' of my research and focuses on the procedures I have undertaken to address the *credibility* of the study, particularly in relation to my own role as both the provider of the professional learning and the researcher.

4.3.1 Internal validity and the role of the researcher

Qualitative research has been defined in many ways (Richards, 2009) which has led to the development of many often-overlapping terms that can be used to describe the concepts and procedures available to qualitative researchers to establish the validity of an inquiry. In this section, while I outline some of the commonly agreed upon criteria for establishing

validity in qualitative research, the key focus is on the criteria that are relevant to educational research and have been accounted for in my study.

Validity is often referred to in qualitative research by the term *trustworthiness* or truth value (Maxwell, 1996) as it refers to the transparency of the conduct of the study which is crucial to the usefulness and integrity of the findings. Establishing the trustworthiness and rigor of a study means there is a high degree of confidence in data, interpretation, and methods used thereby ensuring the quality of a study. To achieve this, researchers need to be explicit about the research procedures undertaken so that a study can be considered worthy of consideration by readers. However, there is much debate in the literature as to what actually constitutes validity or trustworthiness in qualitative research (Leung, 2015).

Qualitative studies undertaken in an educational setting produce a proliferation of different perspectives on research and the role of the researcher due to the embedded layers of social context that create profoundly complex interactions among people, knowledge, institutions and policies (see Chapters 1, 2 and 3). According to Freebody (2003), educational research is a practical activity which he asserts is an intervention into ongoing activities in the world, not a passive portrait of them. '… Researchers are necessarily, and therefore should self-consciously be, agents of social and educational change…' (p.67). He consequently urges a reconsideration of the role of the qualitative researcher as simultaneously being a commentator, a collaborator, and an educational activist (p.67). This view is upheld by others in the qualitative field who also position the researcher as a 'visible player' in the research process which aligns with the frequent depiction of the 'researcher as instrument' (Miller, 2008, p.754).

Freebody's (2003) stance of openly acknowledging and welcoming the impact of the researcher is in keeping with the position I have adopted in this research as both the provider of the professional learning and the researcher. This contrasts with the approach of quantitative research that is concerned to minimise researcher intervention to avoid 'contaminating' the inquiry by compromising 'objectivity' and thereby the validity of the research (Gerber 1994; Kvale, 1996).

The acknowledgement of the multiple roles of the education researcher also addresses some of the major difficulties posed by scholars who are preoccupied with positioning the researcher as either an 'insider' or an 'outsider' in the research process (Hammersley,

1993; Herod, 1999), or on a 'series of insider-outsider researcher continua' (Hellawell, 2006, p. 483). These insider-outsider perspectives can lead to constant redefinitions of the researcher position 'as situations involving different values arise, different statuses are activated and the lines of separation shift' (Merton, 1972, p. 28). Freebody's (2003) viewpoint of the multiple roles of the educational researcher supports my position in relation to this study and affirms my role as an agent of change which is ultimately the aim of the provider of professional learning.

Notwithstanding, all such views of the qualitative educational researcher highlight the complexity of the role and the influence a researcher has in relation to the internal validity, or credibility of the inquiry process. Creswell and Miller (2000) discuss a range of procedures that are available to researchers to establish credibility; however, the choice made depends on 'the lens researchers choose to validate their studies and the researchers' paradigm assumptions' (p. 125). Accordingly, procedures for validity are the strategies that are based on *who* assesses the credibility of the study and their *own position* towards qualitative inquiry.

A typical procedure to support claims of internal validity, or credibility, in qualitative inquiry is a requirement for researchers to be 'reflexive' (Denzin, 1986; Hellawell, 2006). This involves a process of clearly articulating and reflecting on their position and subjectivities (world view, perspectives, biases etc.). These reflections are declared in an 'up-front' manner by the researchers to acknowledge their presence as 'filters' that are used in selecting information, devising questions and gathering and analysing data in order to lend validity to the research process by making it more transparent for the ultimate audience.

Consequently, to address this credibility issue in my study, I have declared how some of my own assumptions, beliefs and biases have shaped the inquiry. I acknowledged my own subjectivities with regard to my motivation for undertaking this study of teacher professional learning in the first chapter (section 1.2). The second chapter disclosed how I was influenced by my participation in genre-based PL when I was a classroom teacher and how that experience has led to my continued interest in this field (section 2.5). I have been transparent about the possible influence on the research process of my dual role as both the provider of the PL and the researcher in this study (section 4.2.1). Additionally, I have

been clear about the influence all these factors have had on my choice of the SFL-based approach to discourse analysis in this study (section 4.5.1).

Freebody (2003), however, has a subtly different perspective on the process of establishing validity with regard to the role of the researcher. He emphasises the need for the research process to be 'self-conscious' (2003, p. 31) which places greater emphasis on the role of the research processes themselves rather than researcher. He proposes that a self-conscious research process focuses on the issue of *explanatory devices* to minimise the tension in qualitative educational research between the demands of internal and external validity. With regard to internal validity, this view highlights the need for the research to be true to its own logic and to the features of the events it draws on to produce findings (2003, p.30). My study addresses the issue of being faithful to the logic of the inquiry by the use of the SFL-based approach to discourse analysis in order to produce findings in response to questions concerning the uptake of a pedagogy that enacts an SFL-based methodology in the classroom (section 4.3).

When considering validity procedures, there is much agreement among qualitative researchers (e.g. Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Maxwell, 1996; Merriam, 1998; Freebody, 2003) with regard to the need for detailed or 'thick description' of the environment, the activities and the researcher roles in order to establish creditability. According to Denzin (1986), thick descriptions are deep, dense detailed accounts (p. 83). By providing as much detail as possible these accounts create verisimilitude which enables the reader to feel as though they have experienced or could experience the events being described in the research. This type of vivid detail helps readers to understand that the account is credible (Creswell & Miller, 2000). My research addresses this internal validity criterion which is consistent with the nature of my up-close inquiry of a single teacher. I therefore provide a very detailed description of the focus teacher's, context and her experience of the professional learning process over the period of a whole school year. Chapter 4 introduces Carolyn and provides information about her school, her students and the history course. Chapter 5 uses a selection of the data collected to take the reader through four teacher learning episodes that detail her experiences of learning new knowledge about language and pedagogy in the PL workshops, during one-to-one mentoring sessions, while she implements the pedagogy in the classroom and as she reflects on her learning experiences during a post-programme interview. The description highlights some of the contextual barriers to implementing the learning from the PL and some of Carolyn's moments of doubt and confusion, or

dissonance (e.g. sections 3.6 and 5.2.8) as well as breakthrough moments in her learning (e.g. 5.3.1; 5.3.4; 5.4.6 and 5.5.1). This detailed description gives the reader a sense of the time and effort that was required for the teacher learning to take place.

While Freebody (2003) is in agreement with the notion of thick description, he does not regard this as necessarily being self-conscious because it is essentially a selective process. He argues that any description is *spatially* selective in terms of the environment, as not all information can be recorded. It is *temporally* selective as the historical significance of all the features in the setting environment cannot be known and as a researcher experiences events as *researchable,* there is *interpretive* selectivity. Consequently, Freebody's notion of self-conscious research, which is the approach that is adopted in this study, requires the researcher to also be explicit about how *relevance* is determined at each stage of the research in the various recording and analytic processes (2003, p. 30).

The ability of the researcher to identify and manage these various *relevances* in the research process, is what Freebody sees as critical to the development of the relationship between the researcher, the participants, and the imagined audience for the research (2003, p. 30). He enumerates sources for determining what is relevant to a particular project beginning with the researcher's theories about culture, society, education and learning. In my doctoral research the relevant theories have been articulated in the opening chapters: Chapter 1, in relation to education policy; in Chapter 2, in relation to literacy pedagogy and its underpinning theoretical basis; and, in Chapter 3, in relation to professional learning.

The second source of relevance identified by Freebody is the researcher's understanding of other empirical research in the area. Although there is a paucity of research on my specific topic of the uptake of literacy professional learning by secondary subject teachers, in Chapter 3 I focus on the topic of teacher professional learning and in particular on the meta-research into PL carried out by Timperley, et al., (2007). The *BES* framework of typical teacher responses to PL that resulted from this meta-research is used to provide a five-stage guide (see section 3.6) which is used as a framework to interpret the data to determine the level of teacher response to the literacy PL and thus supports Freebody's notion of relevance in terms of understanding other relevant research in the area.

Other sources of relevance identified by Freebody are the researcher's understanding of what the audiences of the report might think is relevant, what the researcher thinks the

participants may take as relevant and what the participants showed to be relevant during the research events (2003, pp. 24 -31). To address the issue of understanding what the audiences for this research in teacher professional learning may consider as relevant, I draw on the guidance and feedback provided by my doctoral supervision team, as well as my previous experience in education as a teacher, school leader, provider of professional development, and action-researcher. To determine what the participating teachers may think is relevant, I use the design of the research process (section 4.4). Particular methods such as the teacher interviews, the collection of reflective data during workshops, discussions during school visits, the classroom films and of course the PL workshops have enabled me to gain some valuable insights into what the teachers may take as relevant.

This section has discussed a number of procedures from the literature on qualitative research that are designed to enhance internal validity, or *credibility*. I have argued for the credibility and overall trustworthiness of my study by explaining how these procedures have been applied to my study. The next section discusses the related issue of external validity.

4.3.2 External validity

External validity largely concerns the issue of generalisability which is also connected to the qualitative term *transferability* of findings to other situations. In this regard, my study focusing on the uptake of professional learning by a single teacher presents certain challenges that are taken up quite extensively in the literature dealing with qualitative research methodology. While intensive qualitative research is praised for its descriptive accuracy, Firestone (1993) asserts that even though there are actions researchers can take to amplify the external validity and replicability of studies of a single case, '[g]eneralizability is clearly not the strength of qualitative research' (p. 16).

Nonetheless, I argue here that the 'thick' detailed description I provide in my study is a research procedure that enables a reader to determine if my findings are transferable to their own setting. The description provided in the teacher learning episodes (Chapter 5) reveals the complexity of the curriculum context for teacher learning and provides the reader with a sense of the reality of the classroom situation by using excerpts of curriculum documents, classroom discourse, images and teacher reflections. In addition to the 'thick description' enabling the *transferability* of findings and lending external validity to my

study, it also enables some context specific issues to be brought to the fore (see Chapter 7) which is a highly valued attribute of qualitative research.

Some scholars also point to a further contribution that qualitative studies of single cases like mine can make to research. Kennedy (1979) states that distinctive case studies will never find a conclusive answer, but they will instead find confirming or disconfirming answers. This notion in fact provided much of the motivation for undertaking this inquiry and for its design which focuses on analysing empirical classroom data. One of the aims of the study has been to confirm or disconfirm the previous inferential findings about R2L PL from large-scale action research projects (section 4.2.1). The subsequent congruence of my empirical findings with the previous inferential findings from action research, based on teacher self-reports and student achievement data, is an example of the confirmatory role of a single study. This additionally provides a degree of external validity to the inquiry.

Yin (2012) argues that while statistical findings are mainly generalised to populations, with the help of in-depth analytic investigation cases have a tendency to generalise to other circumstances and situations. According to Yin, case studies are not intended to generalise "from samples to universes" (p.18). So, while claims made when generalising from cases cannot be considered as "proof" in a statistical sense, he posits that they build theoretical premises which function as tools to make assertions about situations akin to the one studied. Similarly, if further case studies show resembling outcomes, they can be said to support the hypotheses and therefore be a part of constructing the theory (Yin, 2012). This phenomenon is known as 'analytic generalisation' (Lincoln & Guba, 2000, p. 112; Yin, 2012, p. 18).

Specifically referring to educational research, Freebody (2003) also proposes a way of overcoming difficulties associated with the singularity of a situation. He refers to the need for a principled and articulable way of 'coming to terms with' the rich, variable and detailed data collected in particular instances of classroom teaching. His proposal is for the researcher to make explicit to the reader *how* the units of analysis have been derived and their significance has been estimated (2003, p. 24). So again, in my research the use of the *Best Evidence Synthesis (BES)* framework (Timperley et al., 2007) enables my findings to be explained in terms of the findings from the meta-research analysis of 97 other international PL projects thus providing a measure of external validity. Additionally, the use of SFL guided discourse and multimodal analysis addresses the issue of explicating

how the units of analysis have been derived with reference to linguistic theory (section 4.5 below) in order to produce the findings. So, while the contextual factors may create a singular study, the *BES* framework of teacher responses to PL and SFL-guided discourse analysis enable Yin's (2012) type of analytic generalisability to be made to other educational settings. In Freebody's (2003) terms, this analytic framework also provides the means to 'come to terms with' the rich, variable and detailed data in the principled and articulable way via explicating how the units of analysis have been derived.

Furthermore, while there is a lack of comparable research on my specific topic, I can draw on some well-researched, explanatory frameworks from aspects of earlier research into classroom discourse, casual conversation and exchange structure undertaken by linguists working in the SFL tradition to lend external validity to my approach and findings. Firstly, I have drawn on Christie's (2002) ground-breaking research on classroom discourse in the SFL tradition. While it did not specifically focus on the implementation of pedagogy, her findings revealed the patterned ways in which teachers enact their lessons. She identified a 'curriculum genre' as a lesson or more that is enacted to achieve certain learning goals and that this genre can be incorporated, over an extended period of time, as part of a series of interconnected lesson sequences which she identified as a '*curriculum macrogenre*'. In keeping with Yin's (2012) notion of analytic generalisability, Christie's (2002) models of *curriculum genres* thus provide an established SFL pedagogic framework that parallels the analysis of the written genres of schooling. This has enabled a principled selection of individual lessons for filming that can be recognised beyond my research setting as particular 'moments' in a predictable pattern of teaching and learning and aligns with Freebody's (2003) proposal for classroom researchers to come to terms with their data by making explicit to the reader *how* the units of analysis have been derived.

I also draw on the work of Eggins and Slade (1997) as their analysis of the interpersonal aspects of casual conversation can be used in a classroom setting to gain insights into the social nature of the interactions. Using a combination of the notion of *interpersonal role relations* (Eggins & Slade, 1997) and the *ideational metafunction* (Martin, 1992) with its associated register variable of *field*, (*Figure 1*, section 2.4.1) to determine *what* the interactions are about and applying them to the analysis of teacher-student interactions during a lesson, enables the different *stages* of a *curriculum genre* to be viewed as comprising a number of more nuanced *phases* of meaning-making at the level of an individual lesson. By drawing on these SFL concepts I am able to develop an explanatory

framework (section 4.5.2) with layers of analysis to understand the unfolding of the lesson and the shifts in social relations and the subject matter as unfolding phases of shifting meaning to achieve the learning goals. This enables specific moments of a lesson to be selected for even closer analysis which again is a procedure that supports both Yin's (2012) analytic generalisability and Freebody's (2003) requirement for an explication of how the units of analysis have been derived and their significance estimated. In terms of the qualitative research paradigm, these rigorous and transparent procedures further enhance the notion of *transferability* for readers of the research.

Additional aspects of the discourse and multimodal analysis have similarly been dealt with in my research to provide analytic generalisability via even more detailed explanatory frameworks. A further layer of analysis is used in my study to examine the *dynamic* nature of the micro classroom interactions as unfolding pedagogic *exchanges* with their own constituent parts known as *moves* (see section 2.6.3). In a classroom situation, *speech roles* such as *giving* or *demanding* information or action give rise to the *speech functions* of *statement, question* or *command* associated with each *move* which in turn marks the boundary of an *exchange*. To this end, the work of other systemic functional linguists is drawn on (Berry, 1981; Ventola, 1987; Martin, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012). The framework is explained in detail as part of the approach to data analysis later in this chapter (section 4.5).

As classroom teaching is enacted multimodally, in spite of combining various SFL 'tools' to develop a layered model for analysing classroom discourse, some account must also be taken of the other semiotic modes of meaning-making that are used to enact the *curriculum genre*. Salient elements of multimodal analysis have been selected from the classroom films and used to enable a more *dynamic* analysis of the interactions that the linguistic discourse analysis alone is unable to capture. They will be explained further in section 4.5 below.

The design of my study has the potential to be replicated in a range of teacher learning contexts thus providing for analytic generalisation which contributes to external validity. Whether the same conclusions would be drawn of course would depend on a range of contextual factors in and beyond the school (discussed in Chapters, 1, 2, & 3). Teachers' underlying personal theories of action would also play an important role in the uptake of learning from PL. So, while the combination of contextual factors in my study create a

singularity that may cause difficulty with generalisability, the design has the ability to be replicated so that situations akin to mine can be studied.

The notion of reliability which is essential to establish external validity in quantitative research is often referred to as *dependability* in qualitative research (e.g. Nunan, 1992). It typically refers to whether reanalysis of the data by another researcher, or by the same researcher at another point in time, would produce the same results. In my study both the *BES* meta-research framework (Timperley, et al., 2007) for teacher PL and the set of analytical tools from SFL-guided discourse analysis and multimodal analysis (as described below) support the dependability of my study. The use of these frameworks lends both rigour and transparency to the conduct of the data analysis enabling it to be explained and reanalysed with reference to the same theoretical concepts from research into PL and linguistics (introduced in Chapter 2 and outlined in further detail below) which allows for similar results to be obtained.

In this section I have explained how the design of my study, the research methods, the explanatory PL meta-research framework and the linguistic approach to the data analysis have all contributed to the *transferability* and *dependability* of the study. While this study of a single teacher case does not provide the type of generalisability expected of quantitative research, I argue that external validity is achieved via analytic generalizability (Yin, 2012). Furthermore, the research procedures adopted in this study provide a principled way of 'coming to terms' with the large amount of qualitative data collected for analysis via rigorous explanatory frameworks (Freebody, 2003). The following section introduces the design of the research which explains in detail how the methodology was applied to the inquiry process.

4.4 The research design

In terms of designing the inquiry process, the methods used to undertake the research must be consistent with the qualitative methodology. Freebody sees methods as the 'bridge' between the questions and the findings that ultimately distinguish a project as research (2003, p 68). As qualitative research involves using and collecting multiple data to 'describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in individuals' lives' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, pp. 3-4) it is also consistent with the approach to data collection in this study as described in section 4.4.4 below. Collection and analysis of this type of data is

consistent with the aims of qualitative research since it attempts to understand people's behaviours, their intentions, and processes behind their behaviours. My inquiry has been designed to be consistent with the qualitative methodology described above and uses a range of appropriate methods to collect a range of data that capture the richness of the pedagogical environment in which the research has been conducted. I next explain the research design and the steps involved in the research process.

4.4.1 Recruitment of participants

Following seminar presentations reporting positive outcomes for student learning from genre-based projects in other countries (Culican, 2005; Acevedo & Rose, 2007b; Acevedo, 2010; Coffin, Acevedo & Lövstedt, 2013; Acevedo, 2014; Acevedo et al., 2016; Whittaker & Acevedo, 2016), a number of schools in London expressed interest in participating in a professional learning project. Subsequently, I was able to offer the option of participating in the professional learning as part of my doctoral research to the interested schools in London.

Schools participated in the research through a process of self-selection. I provided information to the interested schools explaining the aims of my research and how teachers would be involved in the PL and the data collection process (see Appendix I). As a result, four secondary schools in inner London described as disadvantaged (see 4.4.3 below) asked to participate.

During 2015-2016, seven teachers participated in the PL, each selecting one class as their 'research class' for data collection. A total of around 171[56] students were represented in the classes as summarised in the *Table 5* below. Three of the four secondary schools (Nos. 1, 2 & 4) are co-educational and one is a girls' school (No. 3). Three of the schools are state funded Catholic schools (Nos. 1, 2 & 3) and three of the schools also have 'academy' status (Nos. 1, 2 & 4).

Table 5 Schools and teachers participating in the research 2015 -2016

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[56] Student numbers in each class are approximate (~) as they could vary during the year due to the practice of 'setting' that was in place in all of the schools in this study. In secondary schools, students can be placed in classes according to 'ability' in some subjects, especially English and Maths, rather than mixed ability groups which are the norm for other subjects. Students can also be moved to higher or lower 'sets' during the year based on term by term test results which called into question the initial plans for collection of student data.

School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4
Teacher 1, Year 7 English ~ 26 students	Teacher 1, Year 7 English ~ 24 students	Teacher 1, Year 10 history ~ 27 students	Teacher 1, Year 7 English ~ 28 students
Teacher 2, Year 7 English ~ 25 students	Teacher 2, Year 10 English ~ 22 students	Teacher 2, Year 9 English ~ 26 students	

The next section explains my motivation for choosing to exemplify only the data from the history teacher for analysis and interpretation (in Chapter 5).

4.4.2 Selection of the focus teacher

From the seven participating teachers, I have selected to present and analyse the data from the history teacher (Teacher 1, School 3 above) who will be known by the pseudonym of Carolyn. She was the only teacher of a subject other than English to participate in the PL. Carolyn teaches history exclusively and unlike the other participants, had not previously been involved in any language and literacy PL. This made me particularly interested to explore how this teacher, with no previous background in language and literacy education, working in the high-stakes GCSE (Year 10) environment, teaching a subject with heavy reliance on reading and writing 'academic' texts would experience the literacy PL. In this respect, as explained, my research aims to respond to Sampson's (1922) call that 'Every teacher is a teacher of English because every teacher is a teacher in English' (p. 25), with a study of the process by which a discipline-based teacher uses new knowledge about language in the teaching of her subject, history. The opportunity to focus on a teacher who might tacitly hold a very different view of language to the one the PL seeks to foster was an appealing challenge in the light of the *BES* meta-research framework and the potential offered by the analytical tools of SFL and multimodal perspectives to probe the issue further.

Importantly, Carolyn also fulfilled other essential criteria, she participated in the data collection process and provided a rich range of evidence on which to draw for the data

analysis[57]. As outlined in section 3.1, GCSE results are used as a key measure of school performance and often used by parents to choose schools. Thus, endeavouring to implement a new pedagogy in an environment with such high accountability was considered by most of the participating teachers to be too 'risky'[58]. For my research, evidence from a teacher working at this key stage was especially valuable.

The history teacher, Carolyn, is thus the focus of the data analysis in Chapter 5. The following section describes the characteristics of Carolyn's school (School No 3 *Table 5*, section 4.4.1 above) which builds the context for the data analysis.

4.4.3 The school context for the history teacher

The inner London school at which Carolyn works is a state-funded Catholic girls' secondary school. It was rated as a 'Good'[59] school by Ofsted in 2012 and again in 2016. The Ofsted inspectors' report provides the following background information about the school:

> The school is smaller than most secondary schools [~ 700]. The largest group of students are of Black African heritage, followed by any Other White and Black Caribbean. The proportion of students who are from minority ethnic heritages is high. An above average proportion of students speak English as an additional language [EAL, 64%][60], although few are at the early stages of language acquisition. The proportion of students known to be eligible for free school meals[61] is above average [25.6%]. The proportion of disabled students and those who have special educational needs is slightly below average; most special needs involve behavioural, emotional and social difficulties as well as moderate learning difficulties (Ofsted, 2017).

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[57] Although Carolyn suffered health problems during the summer term leading to absences from school which impacted on the data collection, her willingness and enthusiasm for participating in the research continued. So, although in terms of quantity, the data collected was less than expected, the range and quality of data enabled me to exemplify her in the research.

[58] Six teachers participating in the research taught GCSE classes but only Carolyn and one other teacher chose GCSE classes as their 'research classes'.

[59] The Ofsted ratings are: Grade 1: Outstanding, Grade 2: Good, Grade 3: Requires improvement, Grade 4: Inadequate

[60] Proportion of speakers of English as an additional language (EAL) is a common indicator of disadvantage in school profiling.

[61] Proportion of students eligible for free school meals is a commonly used indicator of socioeconomic disadvantage in educational settings in England.

The background information about the school from the Ofsted report provides a profile of what is characterised as a 'disadvantaged school' according to the statistical indicators commonly used in school performance profiling. The profile of this school is in keeping with the broader profile of schools in inner London:

> Schools in London have a higher proportion of pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds than the average for England: across the city, just under a fifth of pupils are eligible for free school meals. (Greater London Authority, 2017, p. 24)

The proportion of 25.6% of students eligible for free school meals at this school is significantly higher than the national average for secondary schools (14%), indicating that a significant proportion of students come from socially and economically disadvantaged backgrounds and statistically 'pupils from low income backgrounds achieve lower results than their peers in all stages of education.' (Greater London Authority, 2017, p. 27).

With regard to the ethnic backgrounds of the students highlighted in the Ofsted report, the *Annual London Education Report* (2017) states that:

> Black pupils are the lowest attaining major ethnic group nationally at all three stages[62]. At the end of primary school, black pupils perform 6 percentage points behind the next lowest ethnic group (54 per cent compared with 60 per cent for white or mixed pupils). (p. 28).

So, the high proportion of students at the school with this particular ethnic characteristic is also considered as an indicator of disadvantage. This school also has 64% of students from EAL backgrounds which is 4 times the national average (16 %) for secondary students and is also considerably higher than the 50% average for inner London schools. This characteristic can have a significant impact on teaching text-based subjects such as history.

While Carolyn does not emphasise the impact of the background characteristics of her students on teaching and learning in her history class, it is implicit in her motivation for undertaking the course as is shown in the data analysis in the next chapter (section 5.2.1).

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[62] This report does not include data about Key Stage 4, Years 10 & 11, GCSE. The 3 previous Stages of schooling in England are: Key Stage 1, Primary, Years 1,2 & 3; Key Stage 2, Primary Years 4, 5 & 6; Key Stage 3, Secondary, Years 7, 8 & 9.

The next section discusses the ethical considerations involved in undertaking classroom research and describes the processes that were undertaken to ensure that the appropriate guidelines were followed and implemented throughout the research process.

4.4.4 Ethics and consent

To ensure that teachers and students understood the nature of their involvement in the research and to obtain consent from teachers and the parents of their students to undertake the inquiry, I drew on the Open University ethics approval process which referred me to the best practice guidelines set by the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2011) and subsequently to the good practice recommendations of the British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL, 2012/16). I also outline the procedures followed to ensure anonymity, confidentiality and ongoing protection of data.

To gain 'voluntary informed consent' (BERA, 2011, p. 5.) from the teachers prior to conducting the research, pre-programme school visits were organised with the volunteers for the PL and associated research. During the meetings the previously approved OU consent form (see Appendix II) was used to explain the aims of the professional learning and the role it played in the research process. The types of data to be collected were explained and teachers were invited to ask questions. The teachers were informed that they could withdraw from the process at any time and that any data they had provided would not be used and destroyed if they withdrew before the commencement of the data analysis period. The processes of anonymity to ensure confidentiality was explained.

The data security issue was outlined: storage on my personal computer, use exclusively for research (prior consent would be requested for other use) and data destruction after five years. The issue of publication of the research on the world-wide web was explained, so that it was understood that this might include anonymised samples of student work, analysed curriculum texts, and lesson plans. Publications could also contain transcribed and analysed excerpts of teacher classroom talk and comments from surveys could be quoted directly in publications. Importantly, it was explained that classroom films would not be used for any purposes other than transcription unless prior consent was obtained. A summary of the research findings would be supplied on request. A decision not to participate in the research process, would not exclude any volunteers from participation in

the professional development workshops. Following the meeting, teachers were given time to make their decision. The result was that all the teachers who had attended a meeting with me agreed to the conditions.

Although the focus of my research is teacher learning, filming teachers implementing the pedagogy in the classroom necessitates student voices being recorded for transcription. This required gaining the consent of the students in teachers' nominated research classes. Legally children are not able to provide consent to be participants in research until the age of 16, and while some of the Year 10 students were aged 16, it was decided to follow the guidelines for children under 16 for all students in the research classes to ensure a highly ethical approach was taken in this regard. Accordingly, following Articles 3 and 12 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations1989 cited in BERA, 2011, p. 6), I sought consent from the students' parents or guardians concerning their participation in the research (see Appendix III).

Before sending the consent forms home, I visited each research class to introduce myself and explain in terms appropriate for each age group the implications for the students of their teachers' participation in the research. The process of seeking parental permission was explained and a permission form was distributed. I emphasised that students would not be filmed, and that permission was only being sought for transcription of their talk with the teacher. Where teachers persisted in collecting the forms, a good rate of collection was achieved. However, one teacher (in school No. 1) was excluded from the filming due to the low rate of consent forms collected. A teacher in another school (school No. 4) reported that the school used a general parental consent form for filming which would suffice. So, while this class was filmed on the understanding that a copy of the form would be provided to me, it did not eventuate, so the films from that class were not transcribed[63].

In classes where some students had not returned forms or parents had denied consent[64], a system was devised to identify those students so that their utterances would not be transcribed. A paper marker was placed on the desks of the students who had not given consent as a visual reminder of their seating position. They were assured prior to the lesson that they could feel free to speak as usual in the class. I made a note of the time they spoke

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[63] The teacher left the school at the end of the year and subsequently there remained no clear line of communication with the school to pursue this issue further.
[64] There were only 2 cases where parents had specifically denied permission.

and did not to transcribe their words. The teachers helped me to identify those students.

The study was approved by The Open University (OU) Ethics Committee (Appendix IV) and in compliance with the Data Protection Act, it has been registered with the Open University data protection management system. At the commencement of the study I obtained an Enhanced Certificate from the Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS) which has been updated each year since (see Appendix V). All of the above procedures were followed to ensure as far as possible that the research process was conducted with an ethic of respect for all of the participants involved. The next section describes the professional learning processes and the data collection

4.4.5 Researching the professional learning process

Prior to commencing the professional learning sequence, a preparatory phase of contact with school leaders and teachers was undertaken for administrative and recruitment purposes and for pre-programme classroom observations.

Table 6 Chronological summary of the research process

PL Workshop dates	School visits	Data Collection
	Pre-programme visits - October	Teacher consent forms
	Classroom visits - November	Lesson observations
Workshop 1 (Days 1 & 2) 19-20 November, 2015		Pre-programme online survey
	Mentoring visits – Nov -Dec	Discussion notes
		Pre-program student writing
Workshop 2 (Day 3) 6 January, 2016		Workshop reflections
	Mentoring visits - January	Curriculum texts, lesson plans
Workshop 3 (Day 4) 19 January, 2016	Mentoring visits – Jan - Feb	Workshop reflections
	Student consent visits - Feb	Student consent forms
Workshop 4 (Day 5) 27 April, 2016	Mentoring visits – March - April	Workshop reflections
	Mentoring visits – May - June	Discussion notes
	Classroom filming June - July	Films, curriculum texts, lesson plans
	Interviews June - July	Final interview
		Post-program online survey
2016 - 2017 School year	Discussion of films	Collection of missing data

The research sequence then followed the shorter five-day 'bespoke' version of the *Reading to Learn* professional learning process. It was organised in three stages carried out at two sites as illustrated previously in *Figure 6,* section 3.7. The first stage was the off-site, professional development workshops carried out in the training facility attached to school No. 1. The second stage was the on-site school visits, in both the staffrooms and classrooms, which continued throughout the year and into the next school year for some teachers. The final stage of the PL process, independent classroom implementation, was the focus of the films. The majority of the data collection was done during school visits, between and after the conclusion of the workshops. The chronological sequence of the workshops, school visits and the data collection are tabulated in *Table 6* above.

The R2L professional learning workshops begin by foregrounding the classroom pedagogy, initially drawing on teachers' tacit knowledge about language which is developed during cycles of workshops, school visits and classroom implementation over the course of a year.

In the workshops, teachers are provided with sample curriculum texts which they use with the functional model of language (*Figure 7* below) to progressively develop skills in text analysis. This experience is designed to build confidence and skills to repeat the process at school with their own texts. Skills in classroom pedagogy are developed by using the R2L pedagogy cycle (*Figure 4*, section 2.7) to guide teachers' choice of strategies. Different possible teaching sequences are modelled using films and classroom simulation during the workshops.
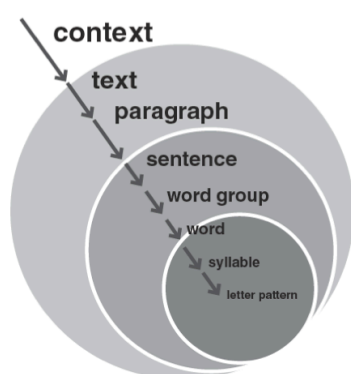
Figure 7 Reading to Learn teaching sequence (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 215)[65]

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[65] Reproduced with permission from D. Rose and J.R. Martin.

The essential step is for teachers to begin their own classroom implementation as soon as possible after the first workshop. As teachers are guided to focus in more detail on their texts at the paragraph and sentence levels, the pedagogy, the lesson preparation work and the steps in the pedagogy also become more detailed.

The aim is for teachers to be able to work with all of their curriculum texts in greater or lesser detail as necessary and to be able to guide their students to read and write at the appropriate standard for their age and stage of schooling.

The content of the workshops for the London teachers is summarised in *Table 7* below. The data was collected progressively throughout the school year as it became available during the professional learning process.

Table 7 Summary of the *Reading to Learn* workshop content

Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5
Introductions, Background to R2L– principles and theory	Reflection on Day 1, Introduction to the pedagogy cycles	Reflection on implementation, R2L interaction pattern	Reflection on implementation, Review Detailed: reading factual text	Reflection, Patterns in sentences: word groups & clauses
Working with texts: Overview of the Genres of schooling, Stages and Phases	Level 1: Preparing before reading: factual text, Note-making, Joint construction from notes	Level 2: Detailed reading and writing: factual texts, video: Revolutionary days	Revision factual lesson planning. Detailed reading & writing fiction text, video: Earthquake	Patterns in texts, beyond the clause: Information flows Reference and conjunction lexis & appraisal
Text analysis exercises: Engaging, Informing and Evaluating texts	Preparing for reading: story/ argument texts, Brainstorm new field, Model joint construction	Lesson planning for detailed reading *(*some teachers absent)*	Analysis of fiction text; appraisal resources, lesson plan, analysis of argument text	Developing class metalanguage Assessment of student writing *(* some teachers absent)*
Reading to Learn pedagogy Stage 1 – Preparing before reading	Research: data collection, online survey, student writing samples, homework, school visits	Research: consent forms, dates for school visits and filming. Homework tasks.	R2L assessment criteria. Research: surveys, student texts, signed forms, school visit dates	Concluding discussion Timetable for school visits, filming and interviews

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The next section describes the data collected and explains the purpose of the different types of data in relation to research questions.

4.4.6. Methods and types of data collected

In order to determine the impact a scaffolded literacy professional learning programme grounded in SFL might have on secondary subject teachers' knowledge about language (KAL) and their classroom literacy pedagogy, I have used a range of methods to collect different types of qualitative data.

The data collection methods used are: surveys, field notes, photographs, classroom observations, audio recording, filming of classroom teaching, documentation of workshop and mentoring discussions, interviews and a review of curriculum and classroom documents. All of these methods produced a range of different types of data that contribute to the qualitative notion of developing a 'thick description' of the environment and the educational activities.

The surveys, pre- and post-programme online questionnaires (see questions in Appendices VI & VII) contained both open and closed questions as well questions that allowed for multiple choice and frequency rating scales. Teacher Survey No 1 was designed to be completed prior to the professional learning programme. Its purpose was to collect background information about the teachers, their motivation for participating in the PL, their approaches to teaching reading and writing prior to the programme, and the types of texts read and written in their classes. It also aimed to collect information on the broad characteristics of the students in their chosen 'research class'. Teacher Survey No 2 was given to teachers close to the end of the school year in 2016 and was designed to collect information about their classroom implementation of the pedagogy and their perceptions of its impact on their understanding about language, literacy and their teaching.

Field notes were taken, particularly during the preliminary visits to the schools, to document information about the different school contexts for the study. Notes on the different working environments of the teachers and the student learning environments were taken. The notes were complemented where possible with photographs of wall displays in

classrooms and corridors as they have a quite specific role in shaping and defining the nature of the subject being taught in a particular context (Kress et al., 2005).

Observation, audio recording and filming of classroom teaching were used before and during the professional learning process to collect evidence of how teachers used the pedagogy in the classroom. The observations produced data in the form of notes, while the audio and film recordings captured the classroom interactions, producing data for transcription which was used, along with the notes, for analysis and interpretation. The filming of the classroom teaching was a key method of data collection used to produce not only transcripts for linguistic analysis but it also operated as an 'estrangement device' (van Lier, 1988, pp. 37-38) to revisit the classroom interactions with more detachment and for analysis of other semiotic modes of communication (section 4.5.2). This facilitated the research process by providing a 'thick description' of multiple modes of meaning-making and also enabled my role as researcher to be more like the self-conscious commentator that Freebody (2003, p.67) refers to (section 4.3.1).

Documentation included teachers' reflective comments about the pedagogy and its impact on their own and student learning which they recorded on group discussion sheets at the start of workshops 2, 3 & 4 in 2016. These comments, as well as notes from individual mentoring discussions between workshops and follow-up emails, were used to shape the content of subsequent workshops and to identify emerging themes in the research process. This information contributed to the development of questions for interviews with teachers in the Summer term 2016 to gauge their perceptions of their own learning and its influence on their classroom teaching.

Semi-structured interviews took place after the classroom implementation to elicit teacher perceptions about their own learning and use of the pedagogy in their classroom teaching (Appendix VIII). The audio recordings of the interviews provided data for transcription, analysis and for comparative interpretation with the classroom data.

Table 8 (below) summarises the data collected from the focus teacher in relation to each of the research questions:

Table 8 Summary of focus teacher's data in relation to the research questions

Research Question 1: What are the contextual factors that impact on the teacher's uptake of the professional learning in terms of knowledge about language and classroom practice?	
Data collection methods	**Type of data**
Pre-programme online teacher survey (10 questions) about; the teacher, the research class, reasons for participating in the PD.	Written contextual information about school, teacher and students. Information about teacher's classroom practice prior to the PD.
Post-programme survey (10 questions) about; lesson preparation, number of R2L lessons, which R2L strategies used, how frequently, which genres were studied.	Information about the type and frequency of the classroom implementation.
Field notes and photographs	Written and visual documentation of the school environment.
Curriculum & syllabus document review	History textbooks History syllabus and GCSE examination specifications
Research Question 2: How does the professional learning (PL) impact on the teacher's classroom practice as evidenced in lesson planning and classroom interactions?	
Data collection methods	**Type of data**
Observations of classroom teaching	Teacher lesson plans Photos of class texts and student texts
Audio recording and filming of classroom lessons	Audio visual data for transcription, analysis and interpretation Teacher lesson plans Photos of class texts and student texts
Documentation of workshop and mentoring discussions	Teacher and researcher notes from learning conversations
Review of curriculum and classroom documents	Curriculum texts from lessons, teacher developed lesson plans and PowerPoints

Research Question 3. What are the teacher's perceptions of the professional learning and its influence on classroom practice?	
Data collection methods	**Type of data**
Semi-structured post-programme interview. Teacher's perceptions of own learning & classroom pedagogy, teacher's use of metalanguage to describe the pedagogy, teacher's perceptions of student learning.	Observation notes Audio recordings for transcription, analysis and interpretation

The review of curriculum and classroom documents comprised: samples of curriculum texts from textbooks and other sources, course specifications and examination guidelines, teacher devised lesson notes and plans, PowerPoint slides and worksheets.

While not all of the data collected was analysed and ultimately only a selection of data is utilised to illustrate the learning journey of the teacher, the process of collecting the data was a necessary part of the research process to enable a 'thick description' of the school and classroom environment that is an essential part of qualitative methodology.

The next section explains the linguistic and multimodal approaches to data analysis that I have adopted.

4.5 Approach to data analysis

As introduced previously in section 4.3.2, I have chosen a linguistic approach based on Systemic Functional Linguistics for the analysis of written documents, the transcripts of filmed classroom discourse and the audio-taped interview. The analysis of the curriculum and classroom documents are exemplified in section 5.2.5 and in Appendix IX. Appendix X provides an example of *Appraisal* analysis from the focus teacher's interview. This type of analysis is used throughout Chapter 5 to interpret the teacher's perceptions of the PL (e.g. section 5.4.7). The analysis of classroom discourse is exemplified throughout Chapter 5 in sections 5.4.6; 5.5.1; 5.5.4; 5.5.6; 5.5.9 and in Appendix XII. To better capture the dynamic nature of classroom interaction, the discourse analysis is accompanied by a light-touch multimodal analysis of some salient features of the classroom setting and teacher-student interactions in sections 4.5.2; 4.4.2; 5.4.3; 5.4.4; 5.4.6 and in Appendix XI.

My approach to discourse analysis is guided by Christie's (2002) work on SFL based classroom discourse in terms of the *curriculum genre* as a framework. In order to discern how the curriculum genre unfolds during the course of a lesson, I draw on the analytical resources of SFL to use as tools for discourse analysis to answer my specific research question of *how* teachers employ new learning about language and literacy. As SFL guided discourse analysis is predominantly used for synoptic analysis of written texts, multimodal analysis (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001) was drawn on to understand some of the more dynamic aspects of classroom interaction that have been captured on the films. The next section will provide a brief justification for my choice of a linguistic approach to classroom discourse analysis in the SFL tradition.

4.5.1 SFL-guided discourse analysis

The linguistic approach to classroom discourse that I have chosen to use for my data analysis can be traced back to the foundational work of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in Britain who according to Christie, 'borrowing from Halliday's theory of scale and category grammar as it was then conceived, developed a model of classroom discourse involving a series of ranks and levels arranged in hierarchical order…' (2002, p. 4).

Notwithstanding, in deciding to take up a linguistic approach to the analysis of classroom discourse in the tradition of SFL, I am aware that my orientation excludes other interpretations of discourse and discourse analysis. So, in an effort to be self-conscious about my choice of an approach to analysis, I acknowledge that I have been guided by my subjectivities but also by my previous experience and interest in this mode of analysis. My choice of SFL-guided discourse analysis, however, offers an analytical approach that enables me to focus on *how* language is being used to make meaning in the classroom which is in keeping with the focus of my study, as supported by Gibbons (2006):

> If the intuitive practices of effective teachers can be exemplified through instances
> in the classroom and analysed linguistically, then what constitutes these practices
> can be articulated more precisely (2006, p. 41).

At the same time, the SFL approach to classroom discourse analysis means taking a typically *synoptic* approach to analysis into the *dynamic* field of classroom research. Even

though the linguistic approach focuses on the interpersonal nature of teacher-student interaction, any purely linguistic approach is limited by its ability to study classroom discourse only as a static written text. To overcome this limitation, my approach to data analysis includes the use of tools to analyse other semiotic modes to better capture the *dynamic* nature of classroom meaning-making. Therefore, the classroom discourse analysis is carried out in conjunction with selected tools of multimodal analysis (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001; Kress et al., 2005).

A multimodal approach to data analysis complements the SFL-based discourse analysis as it considers a range of signifying, or semiotic, practices including language. In a classroom situation, it means not only analysing and describing the full range of meaning-making resources such as: gesture, posture, dress, writing, speech, sound, photography and film etc., it also means developing a way of demonstrating how these resources are organised and interact to make meaning (Jewitt, 2008).

Despite the 'social semiotic approach' to multimodal meaning-making being eclectic and still at an early stage of development, with much yet to be established, in terms of both theory and practices (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2010), it is appropriate for my research which views the curriculum genre as a multimodal semiotic artefact. Therefore, the data analysis also considers additional meaning-making resources together with the linguistic analysis in an attempt to provide as comprehensive an understanding of the pedagogic activity as possible. The next section will explain the SFL tools selected for the data analysis and how they have been used with selected multimodal tools as an analytical framework to 'distil' findings from the data collected.

4.5.2 SFL tools for discourse analysis

SFL offers a wide range of analytic resources (Martin & Rose, 2007) and I have selected a range of 'tools' to develop an analytical framework comprising two layers of analysis that enable me to closely examine *how* the focus teacher in the study enacts meaning-making in the dynamic classroom environment. This in turn enables the classroom data to provide empirical evidence to contribute towards answering the research questions. This section presents the selected tools, explains why they have been chosen and how they are used to analyse the classroom discourse.

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The *stratified* model of language introduced in Chapter 2, (section 2.4.1) allows for undertaking layers of analysis at varying levels of detail, in linguistic units of all sizes; word, phrase, clause, sentence and text at different levels of strata in the functional model of language. The linguistic units of different sizes can be related to one another via part-whole relations referred to as the notion of *constituency*, or how bigger units of language are made out of smaller ones. This of course establishes a two-way relationship between the larger and smaller units of language allowing for bidirectional analysis which is an underlying principle used also to analyse written texts and the classroom discourse in my research.

Christie's (2002) approach to the analysis of transcripts of classroom discourse is underpinned by the notion of *constituency*. Her purpose was to identify generic patterns of meaning-making in classroom discourse over the course of a lesson and over several connected lessons. By analysing the transcripts at the level of the clause, she was able to identify shifts in the discourse pattern during a lesson. By studying many hours of transcribed discourse, she identified recurrent patterns of meaning which she labelled as the *stages* through which lessons began, developed and concluded in what she called the *curriculum genre*. Where several curriculum genres operated in a sequence to develop meaning over a number of lessons Christie (2002) called these lesson sequences a *curriculum macrogenre*. This approach enables the two-way relationship between language and context to be identified and described at differing levels of detail. As the stages of the lesson are realised by the classroom discourse, the discourse instantiates the stages of the genre.

My approach to analysis draws on the same principles as Christie's (2002) research by using the multifunctional and multi-stratal SFL model of language (*Figure 1*, section 2.4.1) as a type of 'matrix' to relate not only the smaller linguistic units of meaning in the classroom discourse to the meanings they realise at 'higher' levels in the model but also in relation to each of the *metafunctions* and their related *register variables* as previously described (section 2.4.1). A lesson can thus be mapped in terms of its constituent *stages* and the more nuanced *phases*, by shifts of *field* and *tenor* that are revealed by the discourse analysis which not only allows for the principled selection of data for exemplification but enables a systematic understanding of how specific instances of language contribute to different types of meaning-making over the course of a lesson.

The focus of my data analysis is to understand, *how* a teacher interacts with students around texts to implement the pedagogy. This leads me to examine the classroom discourse via the *interpersonal metafunction* and its *register variable* of *tenor* (see *Table 9* below) to gain an insight into the teacher-student relationship at different points in a lesson. The stages of a lesson unfold in smaller more nuanced *phases* of meaning, so stretches of discourse are selected at the level of a lesson *phase* to exemplify *how* the teacher interacts with students to achieve the pedagogical purpose at different points in the lesson. To better understand the teacher-student relationship in each phase of the lesson, I draw on the notion of the *role relations* constituent of *tenor* developed in the context of studies into casual conversation (Eggins & Slade, 1997) which offers four additional foci for the analysis:

1. **Status relations** – in the case of secondary school classroom discourse, the status relation teacher/student is one of legitimate inequality in terms of the functionally differentiated role of the teacher's authority and expertise;

2. **Affective involvement** – describes the degree to which the participants 'matter' to each other. This would vary on a continuum from distant or unattached to very high. The involvement can be positive, neutral or negative and could be a permanent feature of a relationship or a transient feature (i.e. a short negatively charged interaction in the classroom in what is typically a neutral or even positive relationship);

3. **Contact** – frequency of contact which develops familiarity, whether it is voluntary or involuntary and if it is to achieve pragmatic purposes which is the case in schools;

4. **Orientation to affiliation** – the inclination or disinclination to seek to identify with the values and beliefs of those we interact with (1997, pp. 51-53).

The tools of SFL guided discourse analysis allow the pedagogic relationship between teachers and students to be made visible as it is instantiated in the discourse via the *speech roles* of *giving* and *demanding* information; which are in turn instantiated via the *speech functions* of *statements*, *questions* and *commands*, often through the use of *interpersonal metaphors* (see section 5.4.2). This delicate layer of analysis enables nuanced shifts in *role relations* to be discerned over the course of the lesson. The SFL system of *appraisal* is also employed as a tool to discern the kinds of evaluations in the discourse: attitudes that are expressed by speakers, the strength of the feelings involved and the ways in which values

are sourced and listeners are aligned to the views of the speaker. This system, in conjunction with the *role relations* constituent of *tenor*, is used to identify the *prosody* of attitude that that swells and diminishes, in the manner of a musical prosody (Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 59) as it runs through the discourse constructing the stance of the interactants.

Additionally, the *ideational metafunction* and its associated register variable of *field*, or topic, are also key to this research as *what* the interactions are about is central to teaching and learning. As such *lexical relations*,[66] from the system of *ideation* that build the field will be another important tool used in the analysis.

As mentioned in section 4.5.1, a multimodal perspective is also used in the analysis (Jewitt, 2008) during some key moments in the pedagogic activity. This is designed to lend validity to the *synoptic* approach that the linguistic analysis affords. Thus, the use of classroom film enables aspects of the *dynamic* nature of the interactions to be captured, analysed and interpreted in relation to the spoken discourse.

To exemplify and explain how these tools have been combined and used for this first layer of discourse analysis, *Table 9* (below) contains an excerpt of the classroom discourse from a history lesson (discussed in Chapter 5) which is tabulated with the categories of analysis.

The more abstract, higher level features in the functional model of language appear in the first two columns (reading from the left), the more concrete features instantiated in the discourse are represented to the right. The final column shows the multimodal resources for meaning-making that were captured on film adjacent to the corresponding discourse. The first column in the table indicates the *stage* and *phase* of the curriculum genre that is instantiated in the discourse via the constituency relationships and maps shifts in stages and phases as the genre progressively achieves its goals over the course of the lesson.

In the example below, the first stage in the design of the R2L curriculum genre is *Preparing for reading* and its purpose is to give information to students about the text to be read (in this case it is a model history essay).

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[66] *Lexis* includes the words, and relations between words, that construct the field of a text as it unfolds. Lexical words are often known as 'content' words. They represent people, things, processes, places and qualities. Relations between lexical words are known as *lexical relations*. There are five types of *lexical relations*, including: repetitions, contrasts, whole-part relations, class-member relations (Rose & Martin, 2012).

Table 9 Discourse analysis framework

GENRE/ Stage/ (phase)	Foregrounded register variable & metafunction	Speech role: demand/ giving	Speech function: command/ offer, or question/ statement	Scene: *The essay question is projected onto a large screen and Carolyn stands in front of it, facing the class:* Teacher monologue:	Multimodal perspectives
Preparing for reading Stage: Phase 3: Task deconstruction Pedagogic purpose: to orient students to the purpose and genre of the target text and to find the key information in the essay question (48 seconds)	SFL Registers: Fields: (KAL) & History Tenor (Role relations: status, affect affiliation & expertise) Metafunctions Ideational & Interpersonal	Giving	Statement	So, this is the essay question *(placing hand on the question projected on the board and reading it out)* – 'To what extent did the most serious opposition to the Nazis in Germany during the war years come from young people?' So, it's asking you, sort of like a discussion-evaluation essay – it's asking you to make a judgement. I've highlighted in red the key wording in the question *(pointing to the words in the question written in red).*	Authoritative tone of voice Clear directive hand signals Directive emphatic pointing
		Demand	Command polite request for action	Please highlight it on your own copy if you wish, or underline it, *(making underlining gesture with hand under words on the board)* or circle it, *(making circling motion with hand)* so you can see that they are the key words: 'To what extent', 'most serious opposition', 'come from young people'. *(placing hand on the board under each word group while reading).*	Directive emphatic gestures
		Giving	Statement		
		Giving	Statement	And then in the exam it gives you a hint; it tells you what to do. 'In your answer, you should discuss the seriousness of opposition from a variety of groups, including young people.' *(pointing to the words as she reads them out)*	Directive emphatic gestures

The discourse analysis shows that this *stage* was enacted via five differing *phases*. Phase 3 (above) has the purpose of identifying the genre of the target text via an understanding of the key words in the essay question. The use of Christie's notion of the *curriculum genre* enables the selection of excerpts as the discourse reveals shifts in purpose. In the instance above, as the R2L pedagogy design has only two phases in its first stage of enactment, the five different phases I discerned were of interest in terms of my research question about *how* teachers take up a new pedagogy. I named this phase *task deconstruction* by borrowing the term *deconstruction* typically used for naming the first stage in the three-part genre writing cycle (section 2.4.1).

The second column in the table identifies the *register* variables (*field and/or tenor*) that are foregrounded via their realisation in the discourse and, in the case of *tenor*, the foregrounded role relations are also identified (*status relations, affective involvement, contact* and *affiliation*). In this same column, the prominence of the *metafunctions* (*ideational* or *interpersonal*) as revealed in the discourse can be indicated. The third column indicates the changing *speech roles*; either *giving* or *demanding* information or action. The fourth column indicates the constituent *speech functions* (*command, offer, question* or *statement*) that instantiate the *speech roles* of the participants as indicated in the adjacent discourse. The teachers accompanying actions are written in italics and the final column indicates the other semiotic resources, captured on the film, that the teacher draws on to make meaning. Chapter 5 provides the analysis resulting from the use of these tools.

A further layer of analysis is undertaken to determine to what extent the focus teacher in this study has implemented new knowledge about language (KAL) and pedagogy during the key stages of joint class reading and writing. The analysis focuses on the micro-interactions between the teacher and students which are viewed from an SFL perspective as *exchanges* of knowledge and action between the interactants (Berry, 1981; Ventola, 1987; Martin, 1992; 2006). The pedagogy for teaching reading that was modelled in the PL focused on the use of the specially designed scaffolding interaction cycle which is the hallmark of Reading to Learn (section 2.6.4). The focus teacher's uptake of this pedagogical design feature is one of the key indicators of the impact of the new knowledge about language and pedagogy on her teaching practice.

The Reading to Learn interaction cycle is introduced to teachers in the PL as consisting of three stages, *prepare – task – elaborate* (*Figure 8*, below).
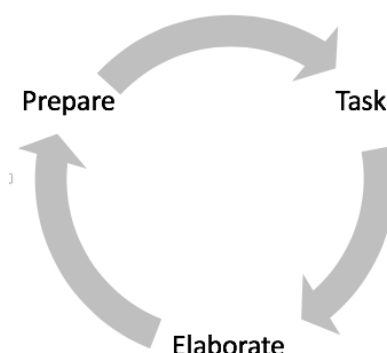
Figure 8 Reading to Learn interaction cycle (adapted from Rose, 2014, Book 1, p. 14)

While the cycle implies that it might be enacted in just three *moves*, from the perspective of linguistic analysis, it comprises a series of *exchanges,* which have the potential to involve multiple *moves* to achieve their goals (see *Table 11,* below).

In order to analyse classroom interactions Rose (2014) proposes a series of units of analysis in *Table 10* below that are named according to the purpose of the exchange. As my study is concerned with the implementation of the Reading to Learn pedagogy, I use Rose's units of analysis to understand the focus teacher's use of the cycle.

In order to understand each *exchange* in more detail, however, I additionally draw on the SFL discourse system of *negotiation*[67] which builds on the notions of *speech roles* and *functions* (*Table 9* above).

Table 10 Units of analysis for classroom interactions (Rose, 2014, Book 4, p. 3)

Query	teacher asks a question without preparing (or students ask)
Prepare	teacher gives information to enable successful responses
Focus	teacher focuses students on the text, usually with a question
Identify	students identify element in a text
Propose	students select elements from experience
Affirm	teacher affirms student responses (or students concur)
Reject	teacher rejects response by negating, ignoring or qualifying it
Elaborate	define new terms, explain new concepts or relate to experience (teacher or through discussion with students)
Direct	teacher directs an activity

Linguists in the SFL tradition have studied exchanges of both information and goods and services and systematised sequences of *moves* in what is known as *exchange structure* (Berry, 1981; Ventola, 1987). This model has been further developed by other linguists into the system of *negotiation* (Martin, 1992; Martin & Rose, 2007). This system has been used by SFL researchers to reveal how speakers adopt and assign roles to each other, as well as how *moves* and *move complexes* are organised in patterned ways in *exchanges* and *exchange complexes* (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 219). It has been applied to classroom discourse in numerous studies some of which are drawn on to inform my data analysis, for example Dreyfus (2007), Rose & Martin (2012), Macnaught (2015) and Rose (2018).

For the purposes of my research, the use of the system of *negotiation* offers a more fine-grained analysis which includes exchanges of both information and action in the classroom. Additionally, in relation to the writing stage of the pedagogy, the system of *negotiation* has been used by researchers studying the use of the related Teaching and Learning Cycle (section 2.5) in tertiary settings (Dreyfus et al. 2011; Macnaught, 2015). This enables me to draw on the results of their analyses of classroom discourse during the

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[67] *Negotiation* is concerned with interaction as an exchange between speakers: how speakers adopt and assign roles to each other in dialogue, and how moves are organised in relation to one another. See, Rose and Martin, 2007, pp. 219 - 254.

joint construction stage of the T&L cycle to inform my study. Due to the similarity in the pedagogies, it also allows for a comparative analysis of the classroom implementation using the same units of analysis which adds a measure of external validity to this component of my study (see section 4.3.2).

The system of *negotiation* distinguishes the roles of interactants in action and information exchanges as 'actors' and 'knowers' respectively. It further distinguishes between the role of the 'primary knower' (*K1*), the person who has authority with respect to the validity of the information exchanged (usually the teacher), and, the role of the 'secondary knower' (*K2*) who is seeking information (Martin, 2006). In classroom discourse, this model is particularly useful in identifying a 'test question' as a 'delayed' *K1* move (*dK1*) by the teacher. This type of question is like that of a 'quiz master' in that the teacher already knows the answer but uses the question in order for students to 'display' their knowledge. The system also provides for follow-up moves (*K1f and K2f)*, a tracking move *(tr)* by the teacher if clarification is sought after a student response and for student responses to tracking moves *(rtr)* (Rose and Martin, 2012, p. 297).

The use of *exchange structure* analysis makes visible the distinction between the teacher's use of the R2L interaction cycle of, *prepare – task – elaborate* (potentially *K1–dK1-K2–K1-K1*) and the more typical classroom interaction pattern of *initiate – response – feedback* (potentially *dK1 – K2 – K1*). Importantly for my research, this type of detailed analysis also allows the role of action exchanges between the teacher and students to be included. The 'actors' in these *exchanges* represent either, the role of 'primary actor' (*A1*), carrying out the action (giving goods or services), or the role of secondary actor (*A2*), demanding the action (or goods and services) (Martin, 2006).

Rose & Martin (2012) also systematise the exchanges in the R2L scaffolding interaction cycle (*Figure 8,* above) to form an exchange complex of five phases (*Figure 9*, below). The phases are named by the pedagogic purpose of the exchange using the units of analysis from *Table 10* (above). The exchange complex in the diagram (*Figure 9* below) begins with two exchanges, *prepare* and *focus,* which are designed to scaffold students to complete the learning *task* which is the nucleus of the *exchange complex*.
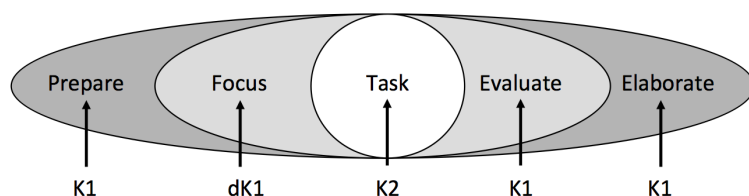
Figure 9 R2L cycle phases aligned with exchange structure roles (Rose, 2018, p. 22)[68]

The *task* is subsequently scaffolded by two additional exchanges to *evaluate (affirm)* and to *elaborate* the wordings identified in the *task* to provide further support for comprehension. The nucleus of the exchange complex, the *task* phase, is when cognition (reading) is to occur as students reason from the verbal cues provided by the teacher and physically *identify* and *highlight* the words that they have been guided to understand by the *prepare* and *focus* cues. The phases in this interaction cycle make it possible to identify a teacher's interactions during reading which facilitates the process of determining the extent to which the R2L interaction cycle is being implemented. These cycle phases can also be described in terms of the *exchange structure* roles (see *Figure 9 above)* which allows for action exchanges and individual moves within exchanges to become visible, and this facilitates comparative analysis with other bodies of research using the system of *negotiation*.

The excerpt of classroom discourse below (*Table 11*) from a GCSE English teacher's classroom[69] is provided to demonstrate how exchange structure analysis is used in this research (first-right-hand column) in conjunction with the R2L cycle phases (second right-hand column) to understand each *move* in an *exchange* during *detailed reading*. The use of the final column is inspired by Rose's (2018) recent work on a system of *matter*[70] and it is used here to identify *what* the moves in the exchange are about so that shifts in the *field* during the exchange can be identified.

In the excerpt in *Table 11* (below), the teacher leads the class to read an introduction to a model of an essay on their previous Shakespearean text, Romeo and Juliet, as preparation

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[68] Reproduced with permission from D. Rose.
[69] Teacher No. 2, School No. 2, see Table 5, section 4.4.1
[70] The system of *matter* is used to identify whether a cycle phase is concerned with the curriculum field, the pedagogic modality, or the pedagogic activity. See Rose, 2018, pp. 23-24.

for a *joint construction* of an introduction to a similar essay on their current class text, Macbeth.

Table 11 Example of an analysis of *detailed reading*

Speaker/ Exchange	**GCSE English – *Detailed reading* of a model essay:** The role of fate in Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet	**role**	**R2L cycle phase**	**matter**
Teacher	So, starting with the first sentence, the writer explicitly refers to the essay question which is about the role of fate in Romeo and Juliet	K1	prepare	sentence
	So, if you look at the very first sentence,	A2		
	...it says *(teacher reads): The concept of fate functions as a central theme in Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet.*	K1	prepare	
Students	*(Students read along silently with teacher)*	A1		
Teacher	OK, so what are the three words at the beginning of this sentence that mean the idea of prophecy?	dK1	focus	wording
Student	*concept of fate*	K2	identify	
Teacher	Yes, *concept of fate*, three words.	K1	affirm	
	Can you highlight *concept of fate?*	A2	direct	text marking
	because we're going to highlight the key words I want you to incorporate, the key phrases to incorporate in our joint one. (*referring to the next stage of the pedagogy, joint construction*)		elaborate	activity
Students	*(Students highlight the three words)*	A1		

The teacher begins by *preparing* students for understanding the first sentence by explaining its *purpose* in responding to the essay question and *what* it is about. Then she asks them to follow as she reads aloud. Next, she uses a specific meaning cue to ask a student to *identify* three words in the sentence that are linked synonymously to the meaning

in the verbal cue provided. Once the answer is given, she *affirms* the response and *directs* all students to highlight the identified words before *elaborating* on the purpose for highlighting in relation to the subsequent task of *joint construction*.

This example shows how this delicate layer of analysis is used on selected excerpts of discourse to make the nature of the micro classroom interactions visible in order to understand in detail *how* the focus teacher has taken up the pedagogy from the PL and applied it during different stages of her classroom teaching (see Appendix XI for further examples from the focus teacher's classroom data).

4.6 Conclusion to the research methodology and design

This chapter has situated my research within the qualitative research paradigm and explained why this methodology is appropriate to address the questions that drive this investigation. It has explained how issues of internal and external validity are addressed. The design of the study, the methods used and the steps in the research process have been described. The analytical tools from Systemic Functional Linguistics that are used for the discourse analysis have been described and their use for analysis in conjunction with multimodal analysis has been explained and exemplified. The next chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the selected data.

Chapter 5 - Data analysis: the teacher learning journey

5.1 Introduction to the data analysis

The selection, analysis and interpretation of data in this chapter are designed to answer the overall research question in this study: What impact does scaffolded literacy professional learning grounded in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) have on a secondary subject teacher's knowledge about language and its use as part of classroom pedagogy? In order to answer this question, I have selected four key learning 'episodes' from the year-long teacher learning journey. There are several reasons for the selection of these particular episodes. Firstly, they iteratively demonstrate the series of challenges the teacher faces when endeavouring to apply the new knowledge from the PL workshops to planning and implementing the pedagogy in her specialist subject area. The focus on these challenges also highlights the importance of the role of scaffolding teacher learning beyond the PL workshops to support the teacher to work through her initial challenges and implement the pedagogy in the classroom. In keeping with the qualitative mode of inquiry, the 'thick description' of each selected episode allows the reader to feel as though they have experienced each of the key stages that characterise the R2L pedagogy which enhances both the internal and external validity of the study (section 4.3). The analysis of this data is then used to determine the impact of the SFL-based professional learning (PL) by providing answers to the three specific research questions revisited below.

The first two learning episodes (sections 5.2 & 5.3) were selected because they present data that reveal what qualitative researchers would regard as two 'problematic moments' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, pp. 3-4) in Carolyn's learning journey as she grappled with applying new knowledge about language and pedagogy to the preparation and planning stages of the R2L curriculum *macrogenre*. However, when viewed through the lens of the *BES* meta-research into teacher PL (Timperley, et al., 2007), these moments are examples of the 'dissonance' (section 3.6) that Carolyn experienced between previous understandings and practices and the new genre-based pedagogy. The *BES* research asserts that it is essential for teachers to experience this type of disequilibrium if they are to reconstruct their current beliefs and develop new professional knowledge (Timperley, et al., 2007, p. xv). The data analysis reveals the aspects of the application of the new pedagogy that were most challenging, while also demonstrating how the dissonance led to a revised cycle of planning that provides evidence of a substantive change in practice.

The final two learning episodes are based on the analysis of the classroom data during the reading and writing stages of the lesson (sections 5.4 & 5.5) and are essential to answer the research questions concerning the uptake of the pedagogy from the PL. These episodes are what qualitative researchers might describe as 'routine moments' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, pp. 3-4) in the implementation of the new pedagogy also referred to in the *BES* framework of teacher responses to PL as implementing the pedagogy as 'as required' (Timperley et al., 2007, p. 14). The analysis of the routine classroom teaching episodes, however, transforms them into 'researchable events' (Freebody, 2003, p 30) that are analysed in detail with the tools of SFL based discourse analysis and multimodal analysis to reveal the aspects of the pedagogy that are taken up most readily and those that remain below the level of consciousness.

Question 1. What are the contextual factors that impact on a teacher's uptake of the professional learning in terms of knowledge about language and classroom practice?

This first research question concerning context is addressed in a broad sense, beyond the immediate school environment, by the discussion of: historical, political and policy issues in Chapter 1; the theoretical orientations to teaching and learning and theories of language discussed in Chapter 2 and the influences of the school improvement process and the professional learning climate in the UK in Chapter 3. The data analysis presented in this chapter reveals the ways in which these broad contextual factors are linked to factors in the immediate school environment that impact in different ways to both support and limit the teacher's uptake of the PL.

While certain data collection methods and types of data were designed to inform research Question 1 (see *Table 8,* section 4.4.3), as this question also contributes to answering the overall research question, it cannot be seen as an entirely discrete area of investigation. Nonetheless, the methods and types of data that are *most relevant* to the contextual factors that impact on the uptake of the PL are: the surveys, field notes, the history curriculum and syllabus documents, textbooks and photographs from classrooms and corridors.

A particular contextual factor in the school environment that had a significant impact on the teacher's learning was the nature of the history course and the textbooks (section 5.2.4). This influenced the selection of the first school visit as a key learning episode

which was used to consolidate data to enable an SFL-based discourse analysis of the textbooks and curriculum documents that constituted this key contextual factor impacting on the teacher's uptake of the PL.

Further contextual factors that became prominent in the analysis of data from other learning episodes have also been interpreted as they arose in terms of the extent to which they supported or limited the uptake of the genre-based PL.

Question 2. How does the professional learning (PL) impact on a teacher's classroom practice as evidenced in lesson planning and classroom interactions?

This question, concerning the impact of PL on lesson planning and classroom interactions, focuses on the analysis of lesson preparation documents and classroom teaching. In order to ensure that each component of this question can be answered, I have selected three teacher learning episodes to provide the necessary data for analysis (summarised in *Table 8,* section 4.4.3). A learning episode that focuses on lesson planning provides evidence of intended classroom practice while also reflecting the extent of the conscious adoption of ideas from the professional learning. The filming of a classroom lesson where the R2L pedagogy was planned to be implemented has enabled me to select two further teacher learning episodes for data analysis. One focuses on the teaching of reading using the R2L discourse pattern (prepare-task -elaborate), the other focuses on the teaching of writing via the R2L strategy of *joint construction*. The linguistic and multimodal analysis of the classroom discourse during these episodes reveals the extent to which the intended curriculum is enacted and thus provides empirical data concerning the impact of the PL on classroom practice.

The analysed data provides insights into the teacher's interpretation of the PL. The *BES* meta-research (Timperley et al., 2007) into teacher PL is used to guide the interpretation of the data by comparing it to typical teacher responses to PL from international studies and thus also lends external validity to the study (section 4.3.2).

Question 3. What are the teacher's perceptions of the professional learning and its influence on classroom practice?

The third research question concerning the teacher's perceptions of the PL and its influence on classroom practice is a central concern of this study. As the R2L PL seeks to develop *conscious* knowledge about language that will become a 'visible' tool for classroom teaching, the notion of teacher perception about PL and its influence on teaching is key in this research. This is emphasised by the title of this thesis which encapsulates the notion of teacher literacy learning as a process of *Bringing language to consciousness*. So, this question is not designed to elicit the teacher's opinion about the PL, but to determine her level of metacognition, with a particular focus on her metalinguistic awareness as a result of participating in the PL.

The data about the teacher's *perception* of PL and its influence on her classroom practice is derived principally from the analysis of her responses to the post-programme interview (Appendix VIII) combined with reflections documented during the PL workshops and discussions from school visits. To determine the nature of the links between the teacher's perceptions of her learning and her classroom practice, the perception data is analysed and interpreted in relation to the planning and classroom data to determine the extent to which her perceptions are upheld in practice.

The comparative analysis of the two sets of data from research Questions 2 and 3 is guided by the use of the *BES framework* of typical teacher responses to PL (section 3.6) (Timperley et al., 2007). This framework indicates that there can be a mismatch between teachers' *actual enactment* of a new pedagogy and their *perception* of the enactment. This finding points to the fact that if teachers are not sufficiently aware or *conscious* of how new practices are different from their previous practices, they may perceive that they are implementing a new pedagogy when in fact they are continuing with their previous practices. Another possible gap between *perception* and *enactment* identified in the *BES framework* can occur when teachers select and implement one or two strategies from a new pedagogy, also based on the *belief* that these small changes represent a new approach to teaching when in fact previous practice has continued with a little 'tweaking'.

As a researcher, I am particularly interested in exploring these phenomena as, in my role as a provider of professional development, I have observed the mismatch between teachers' perceptions of their practice and their actual practice. The issue of teacher *perception* about practice is worthy of further investigation as it raises significant issues about the impact of any new PL on classroom practice. Consequently, my study explores the notion of

perception to determine the level of *consciousness* that develops with regard to knowledge about language and pedagogy as according to Timperley et al, 'little research has focused on how teachers interpret understandings and utilise the particular skills offered during professional learning' (2007, p. xxiii). Accordingly, this study has the potential to contribute to an enhanced understanding of the process of literacy professional learning.

Nonetheless, the *BES framework* also finds that teachers may respond to new learning in keeping with its aims and implement new theories and practices as intended. However, it is asserted that in order for teachers to respond to PL by changing their practice substantively and to additionally influence the practice of others, they need to understand the theories of the new PL and how they might differ from their own, previously tacit, personal theories of action (Timperley et al, 2007). So, the use of the *BES framework* enables the learning of the single teacher in my study to be viewed comparatively in terms of general characteristics of learning uptake with large numbers of teachers who have participated in PL initiatives internationally.

This introduction to the data analysis has highlighted the relationship between the analysis, my research questions, previous research on PL and the broad contextual factors outlined in previous chapters. The issues outlined above that are most salient in the data analysis, in terms of the evidence they provide to answer the research questions, are discussed and interpreted as the basis for the findings in Chapter 6.

5.1.1 The organisation of the learning episodes

The data analysis is organised into four teacher learning episodes (*Table 12* below) to answer the research questions. The learning episodes have been ordered from 1 - 4, to reflect the process of scaffolding the teacher learning (see *Figure 6*, section 3.7) and the sequence of the R2L curriculum genre (see *Figure 4*, section 2.7) which involves teacher preparation of texts, lesson planning and implementing the R2L reading and writing pedagogy in the classroom.

The episodes have been selected to represent the teacher's interpretation of the knowledge about language and pedagogy that was provided by the year-long PL process.

Table 12 Summary of the teacher learning episodes

Foci of the learning episodes	Relevant Research Questions	Stages in scaffolding teacher learning for the implementation of the R2L curriculum genre
1. Analysis of curriculum documents and classroom texts	Question 1	Teacher preparation of texts
2. Planning the R2L curriculum *macrogenre*	Question 2	Planning of teaching sequence and lessons within the sequence
3. Classroom implementation of reading pedagogy	Questions 1, 2 and 3	*Preparing for reading* and *detailed reading*
4. Classroom implementation of writing pedagogy	Questions 1, 2 and 3	*Joint construction*

5.2 Teacher learning episode 1: the context - history curriculum and text genres

The data analysed in the eight sub-sections of this first learning episode has been compiled from the initial school visits November – December 2015 after the first PL workshop. The analysis demonstrates how the nature of Carolyn's history curriculum and the texts of her GCSE course quickly emerged as key contextual factors in her school environment that impacted on her uptake of the genre-based literacy PL. These factors had further implications for the PL process and are in turn linked to a number of influences in the prevailing education climate that have been outlined in Chapters 1, 2 and 3. While these factors had an ongoing impact on her learning throughout the year-long PL process, they are foregrounded in this first teacher learning episode specifically in response to research Question 1 as they impact on her uptake of knowledge about language and her classroom practice.

5.2.1 The social context: the history teacher and her students

The analysis section begins situating the subject in the context of school timetable and looking at Carolyn's motivation for undertaking the PL. When the data for this study was collected in 2015-2016, Carolyn was teaching a class of 27 Year 10 girls undertaking their first year of the two-year GCSE history course which was taught as a discrete, elective subject in her school. The class was allocated just three 60-minute lessons per week on the

timetable[71]. The limited amount of time for teaching meant that this scarce resource was not to be wasted and the lessons were conducted within this constraint which impacted in different ways on Carolyn's teaching and her uptake of the PL.

Carolyn has more than 20 years of teaching experience and has a *lead practitioner*[72] role in her school. As part of her teaching and leadership roles, she began researching how to improve students' writing and a recommendation from a colleague led her to become interested in genre-based pedagogies. She characterised her class as 'mixed ability' and in her pre-programme, online survey she also stated that:

> as history is a very text-heavy subject with lots of reading and writing, I am keen to learn about anything that will make a difference to my students' outcomes. I am hoping I may also be able to use some of the pedagogy in my leading practitioner role (Carolyn, October 2015).

While she did not refer specifically to the impact of her students' EAL backgrounds (outlined in section 4.4.3) on their learning, her comment concerning her motivation for undertaking the PL above, shows that she was aware of the ongoing challenges her students faced in terms of the reading and writing demands of history. She also sees that her own learning is linked to improved student learning and that she may be able to lead the learning of her peers.

Apart from the impact of the constraints of time on her uptake of the PL, Carolyn's commitment to improving student learning via her own PL were contextual factors that had a positive impact on her uptake of the PL and thus are relevant to research Question 1. These factors motivated her participation in the research and her perseverance with the implementation of the new pedagogy in the classroom even in the face of some recurring health issues that led to periods of absence during the year of the PL process and into the following year.

5.2.2 The curriculum context: the GCSE history course

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[71] Initially plans were made to follow this class into Year 11 and film them again the following year, however, Carolyn had recurring health problems which meant that these plans were not carried out.
[72] Lead practitioner is a leadership position (with financial remuneration) with a responsibility to model and lead improvement of teaching skills, develop curriculum materials and undertake research in and beyond the school.

A brief overview and discussion of some key elements of the GCSE history course being studied during the data collection period is provided here to establish the prevailing view of history teaching that is reflected the course documents which is associated with research Question 1. The discussion of the history course also builds the context for the focus on specific topics, texts, essay questions and issues that are taken up in the text analysis section and the planning and teaching in the subsequent sections (5.3, 5.4 and 5.5).

The GCSE (Key Stage 4) history curriculum document, *History GCSE subject content* (2014), provided by the Department for Education contains only four pages of general guidance:

> [It] sets out the knowledge, understanding, skills and assessment objectives common to all GCSE specifications in a given subject. Together with the assessment objectives it provides the framework within which awarding organisations create the detail of their specifications (2014, p. 3).

This curriculum document emphasises the 'historical content' of the course and the development of 'knowledge and understanding' of the historical periods and events selected for study. It provides the expectations of what would constitute an appropriately 'historical' way of expressing the content, but without making any specific reference to literacy skills. The requirements are: to use 'historical terms'; to create structured accounts; to select, organise and communicate knowledge and understanding in written narratives, descriptions and analyses reaching substantiated conclusions when appropriate (DfE, 2014, p.6). However, the key role of literacy in historical discourse is not visible, it is a 'hidden' curriculum. Thus, this key guiding document for teaching history in England reflects an essentially 'traditional' objectivist view of history that focuses on the teaching of content, while eliding the specific role of language and literacy in enabling the types of communication specified. Literacy is taken for granted, so it does little to support the notion of discipline-based teachers taking responsibility for literacy.

Nonetheless, it is the 'specification' documents created by the different GCSE examination boards[73] that are the detailed curriculum documents that teachers follow. The history

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[73] Awarding organisations include the 5 examination boards in England, Wales and Northern Ireland: Assessment and Qualifications Alliance (AQA), Council for Curriculum and Examinations Assessment (CCEA), Pearson Edexcel, Oxford, Cambridge and RSA Exams (OCR) and the Welsh Joint Education Committee (WJEC).

course at Carolyn's school was based on the Welsh Joint Education Committee (WJEC) examination board course. Her course followed *Route B: Themes and developments in world history* with a focus on 'social developments' (WJEC, 2013, p.12). The area being studied when data was collected during the Summer term 2016 was *Germany in Transition, c.1919-1947, Topic area 2: Changing life for the German people, 1933-1939* (2013, p. 52).

Key questions from the history specification that focused the classroom content during the data collection period were:

How was life affected during the war years?
- The treatment of Jews during the war years (development of ghettos; special action squads; the reasons for and implementation of the Final Solution)

How much opposition was there to the Nazis within Germany during the war years?
- Opposition from civilians (young people: the Edelweiss Pirates: the Swing Youth; the White Rose group; religious groups; actions of Niemöller, von Galen, Bonhoeffer) (2013, p. 53).

Assessment for this part of the course focused mainly on Assessment Objective 3:
- understanding, analysing and evaluating a range of appropriate source material and how aspects of the past have been interpreted and represented in different ways.

Marking schemes included the following specific criteria for the assessment of the quality of written communication:

- legibility of text; accuracy of spelling, punctuation and grammar; clarity of meaning;
- selection of a form and style of writing appropriate to purpose and to complexity of subject matter;
- organisation of information clearly and coherently; use of specialist vocabulary where appropriate (WJEC, 2013, p. 64).

The next section discusses the implications of the theoretical position reflected in the documents that guide Carolyn's GCSE history teaching.

5.2.3 Interpretation: the impact of the curriculum's theoretical perspective

The above excerpts from the history curriculum document and the examination board specification reflect the theoretical positioning of the history curriculum. The central focus on the content of the course as well as the 'hidden' or embedded notion of literacy in the Assessment Objectives and marking scheme give prominence to the objectivist view of knowledge as a commodity. The specific 'communication' criteria (introduced in 2013) reflect a 'traditional' view of language, being concerned with vocabulary, spelling, punctuation and grammar. The implication of this is that the role of language is that of a 'conduit' to transmit the knowledge like a commodity as discussed in Chapter 2 (section 2.2.2).

The course specifies that students are required to understand, analyse and interpret material from complex texts, and to write appropriate responses to project and examination questions requiring the evaluation and synthesis of material in order to produce texts that develop an evidence-based point of view. However, the specification only acknowledges traditional word and sentence level skills, which alone cannot be expected to account for the development of these advanced literacy skills. The important role that language and literacy play in the teaching and learning of history is invisible in the guiding curriculum documents.

Nonetheless, Carolyn's participation in the *Reading to Learn* PL process involved her in implementing an explicit pedagogy that views her subject from the perspective of language as social semiotic resource for meaning-making. As knowledge in the PL is viewed as a social construct, the focus of the PL is on the functions of language and how both meaning and function can shape its form.

This difference in the theoretical stance adopted in R2L, compared to 'traditional', conduit approaches to literacy and learning, is signalled to teachers in the PL workshops. However, the difference can remain just at the 'ideas' level unless teachers follow through with the classroom implementation between workshops during the year.

This difference in the theoretical perspectives underlying the prevailing curriculum and the PL is an important contextual factor that has the potential to impact on the substantive adoption of the new SFL-based literacy learning. The *BES* meta-research into teacher PL

emphasises the importance of examining and engaging the underlying personal theories of action that guide teachers' current practice. These theories are often derived from prevailing contextual influences and the *BES* meta-research found that when teachers understand the theoretical differences between old and new practice, their adoption of a new pedagogy is likely to be substantive. The meta-research further asserts that where theoretical differences are not addressed, only partial adoption of new learning is likely to result (Timperley et al., 2007).

The data analysed in the next section will highlight further contextual challenges for Carolyn's uptake of the PL due to the complex nature of the texts the students are required to read and write.

5.2.4 The genres of history in the GCSE course books

The key event that led to the development of this first teacher learning episode, built around the history curriculum and its texts (*Table 12*, section 5.2), was Carolyn's request for support with genre identification on the first school mentoring visit in November 2015. The request initiated a joint text analysis exercise to clarify her understandings about the purposes and genres of the texts she would use for her R2L classroom implementation. This section uses notes from the mentoring session to structure the episode in the style of a learning conversation that presents examples of the texts Carolyn had questions about on this school visit and analyses one text in detail to exemplify the initial contextual challenges that the nature of her texts raised for her. The data analysed in this section (see *Table 8*, section 4.4.6) responds to research Question 1 providing evidence to establish the initial challenge that the history texts created for Carolyn's uptake of the PL.

The identification of the genres in Carolyn's textbooks was paramount to her subsequent classroom implementation of the R2L pedagogy as it would impact on her ability to plan for the genre-based classroom teaching. The pedagogy requires teachers to identify the genre and the inherent structural features of any reading or writing text that they plan to use as part of a R2L lesson. So, it is in fact the first step in the genre-based lesson planning process.

In addition to administration, observation and filming visits (*Table 6*, section 4.4.5), I worked with Carolyn at her school on four occasions over the Autumn term, 2015, and the

Spring and Summer terms in 2016, to provide whatever mentoring support she needed to assist her classroom implementation of the new pedagogy. The visits took place during lunchtimes, after school and in free periods in spare offices or classrooms. The visits were predominantly used as opportunities for supported text selection and lesson planning.
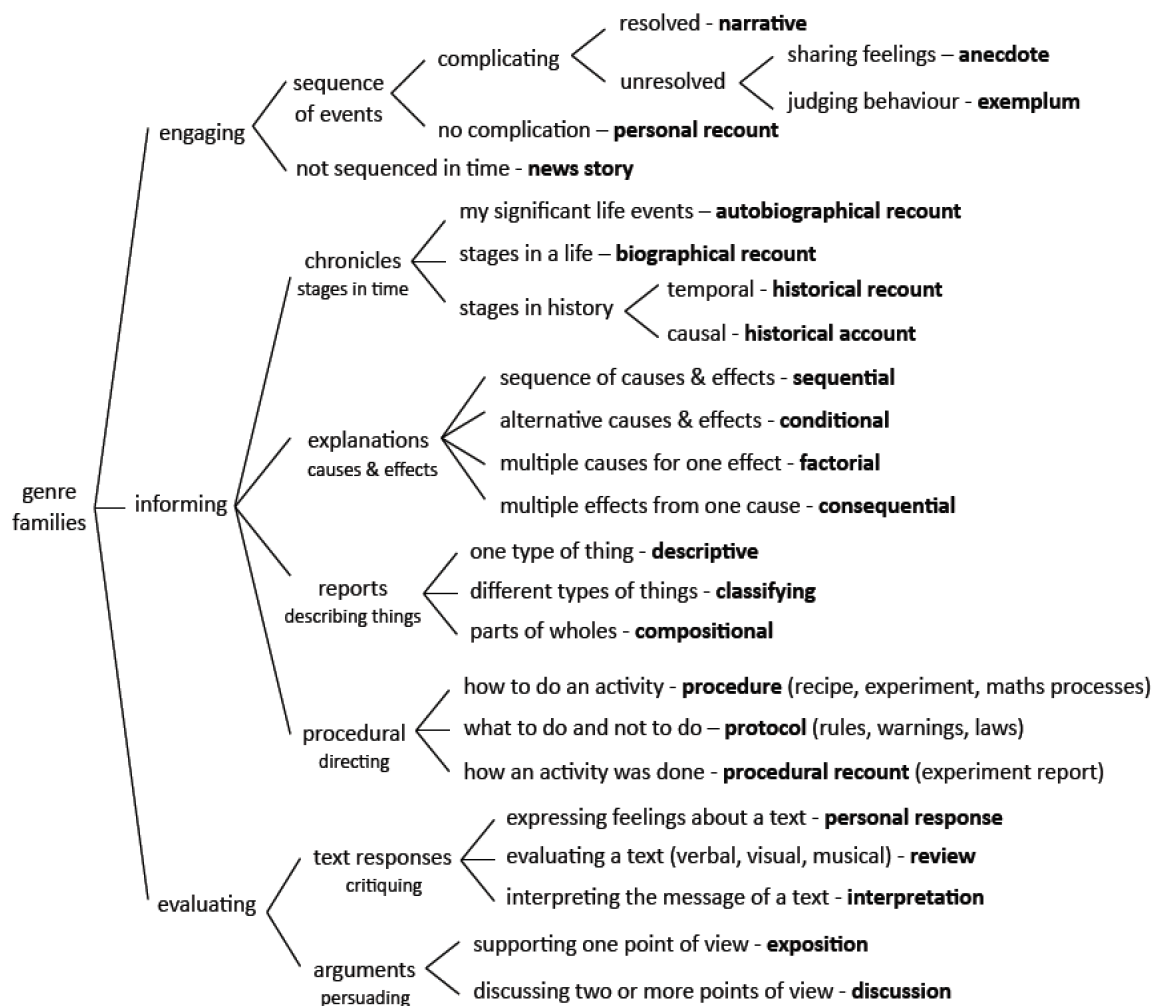
Figure 10 Map of the genres of schooling (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 312)[74]

The first school visit in November 2015, enabled me to work one-to-one with Carolyn on the issue of genre identification. I supported her to use new knowledge about language from the first PL workshop to identify the genres of texts in her history course books for Year 8 and her GCSE research class as they contained some difficult-to-identify texts which also challenged my knowledge about differences in texts that Coffin has identified as "fuzzy" (2006, p. 90).

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[74] Reproduced with permission from D. Rose and J.R. Martin.

Using the classifications from the map (*Figure 10* above) and the table of the genres of schooling (*Table 2*, section 2.5) provided in the PL materials as a guide, we read and discussed a number of texts in terms of their main purpose in order to allocate them to one of the three main groups or 'genre families'. We then considered them in terms of their genre using more specific criteria and the stages in which they unfolded to achieve their meaning.

The approach we worked through on the school visit, mirrored the process used for identifying genres in the first PL workshop. It begins by using what is known as a *typological* approach[75] of classifying genres in a taxonomy (*Figure 10* above). This involves using the differential criteria of the *main* purpose of a text which, in terms of the genres of schooling, offers three categories of choice, or 'family groupings', texts that have the overall social purpose of *engaging, informing* or *evaluating*.

Even though using the notion of *purpose* as a criterion for the classification of texts might have been new to the teachers in the workshop, once it was introduced and explained, they quickly applied the notion to successfully categorise sample texts into the three main family groupings shown in *Figure 10* above. In the workshop, Carolyn articulated that the predominate purpose of the texts her students were reading in their textbooks was *to inform*. However, the texts her students were frequently required to write for their GCSE examinations had the purpose of *evaluating*. The GCSE examinations required students to write *arguments* and the implication of this issue for teaching was discussed.

Once texts have been sorted according to the *typological* method, of 'in' or 'out' based on oppositional characteristics of purpose, the next stage is to further categorise them according to their genre by determining their specific purposes and naming them using the table of the genres of schooling for guidance (*Table 2*, section 2.5). This is where the process becomes more challenging for teachers however, as genres within the same family groupings share similar or overlapping purposes, stages and functional features. So, a more nuanced or *topological*[76] approach is adopted by providing teachers with a set of more

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[75] *Typology* involves setting up categorical distinctions as oppositions to factor out similarities and differences among genres. It can be used for simple sets of oppositions; more complex typologies can be represented on system networks, e.g. *Figure 8* above.
[76] *Topology* focuses on similarities or degrees of nearness in features that can be imagined along a continuum of functional parameters that represent degrees of similarity and difference.

specific functional features established by linguists (Martin & Rose, 2008) to further categorise texts by genre according to varying degrees of similarity between the related genres.

This activity requires teachers to read and think through each sample text, focusing specifically on what it is *doing* rather than just what it is *about* which is an important step in developing teacher knowledge about language from an SFL perspective. By using the functional labels given to the different genres, teachers also take the first step towards building a pedagogic *metalanguage*, to later share with students as part of the genre-based classroom pedagogy.

In Carolyn's case, by using the sample texts in the workshop identification exercise, together with the map (*Figure 10*) and table of genres (*Table 2*, section 2.5), she was able to postulate that many of her *informing* texts were organised by *time* and would thus be clustered in the *chronicling* group. She also thought that her students would be reading and writing *explanations* and *arguments,* but she would need to examine the texts in her course books at school carefully to decide on the range of texts she might encounter. While teachers working in groups may quickly identify different genres in the workshop setting, often more practice is required before they can confidently identify genres such as those that Carolyn was faced with in her GCSE textbook. The purpose of the school visits is to address issues such as these so that teachers feel confident enough to begin implementation of the pedagogy in the classroom as soon as possible. So, Carolyn's request for support with genre identification is one that might routinely be taken up on a school visit.

The next section focuses on difficulties that the interrelated nature of the coursebook texts created for identifying the genres of individual texts.

5.2.5 Analysing texts embedded in the *macrogenre* of the textbook

The task of genre identification had additional challenges for Carolyn. A common layout in the textbooks she was using was a single or double page spread on a topic with a collage style presentation of short written texts usually comprised of both primary and secondary sources in different genres, as well as material in other modes such as images, tables and diagrams. This is exemplified below (*Figure 11*) on two pages from Carolyn's GCSE

history textbook: *The USA 1910-1929 & Germany 1929-1947* (Wright, et al., 2010, pp.170-171).

This type of layout meant that identifying the purpose of each short text was often challenging as it was not always possible to read the texts discretely. The written texts not only needed to be read in conjunction with the co-texts on the page, often in different genres and modalities, but they were frequently linked in different ways to texts from preceding and subsequent pages and sections of the textbook. They formed part of a larger overall text spanning an entire section or a complete chapter of the textbook.
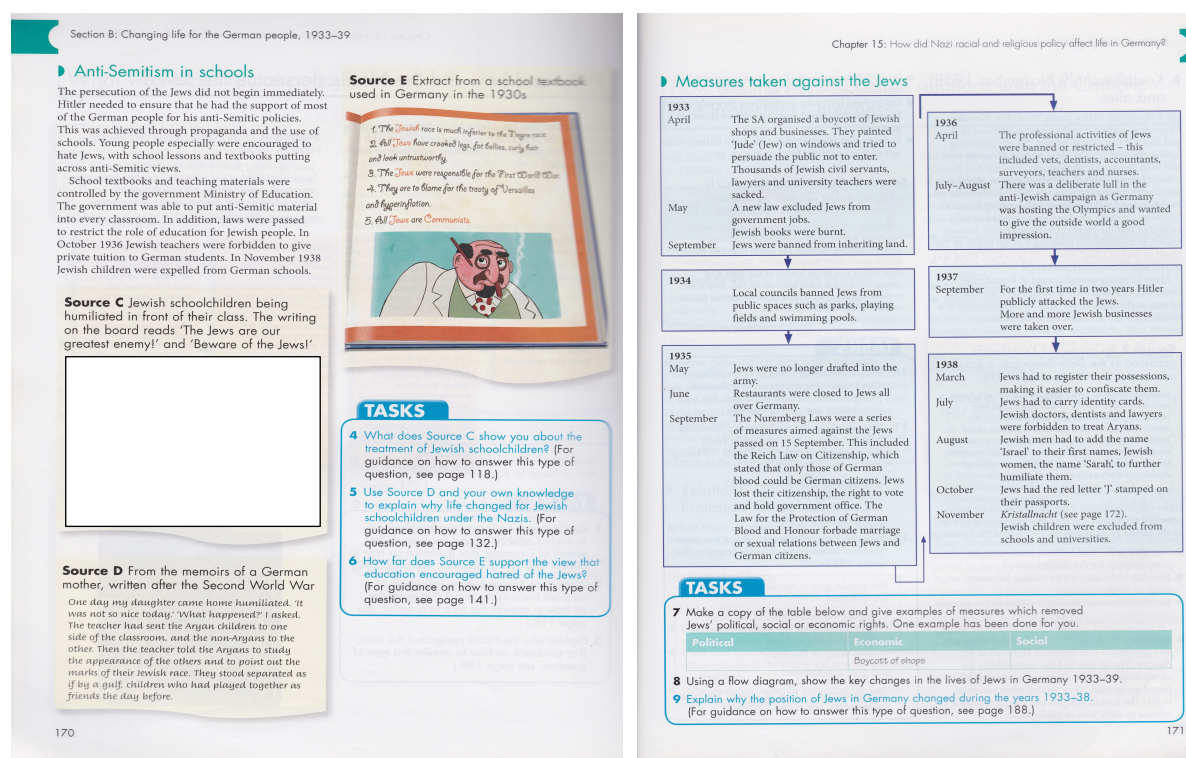
Figure 11 Double page spread from: *The USA 1910-1929 & Germany 1929-1947*[77]

A history textbook in this style, made up of many short texts of differing genres, can be considered as a *macrogenre*[78] (Martin & Rose, 2008) in that it has the overall purpose of chronologically ordering past events and their historical, social and political significance to form what might be called an overall 'narrative' or in genre terms an *historical account*.

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[77] Permission Granted from Hodder Education to use the image of these pages but without the photograph Source C (September 12, 2019).

[78] In SFL, a *macrogenre* is a text, which combines more fundamental elemental genres such as, recounts, narratives, and explanations. It encompasses the idea of "complex" or "secondary" genres that involve other multiple embedded genres. This notion parallels Christie's classroom curriculum *macrogenre* which includes, curriculum teaching, curriculum initiation, curriculum collaboration, and curriculum closure (Christie, 2002).

The overall purpose of the textbook is achieved via sections and chapters focused on specific periods of time and events of significance that are made up by shorter texts of differing genres in different modalities. Accordingly, the textbook is made up of smaller texts woven together or 'nested' within larger texts with a similar but not always identical overall purpose (see also Appendix IX).

Table 13 Genres of history adapted from Coffin (2006) and Rose & Martin (2012)

School history	Genre	Social purpose	Stages
Reporting history	Descriptive Report	To classify and describe one type of thing	Classification/definition Description
	Taxonomic Report	To classify & describe types of things in a taxonomy	Classification/definition Description
Chronicling history	Autobiographical Recount	To retell events of your own life	Orientation Life events
	Biographical Recount	To retell the stages of a person's life	Orientation Life stages
	Historical Recount	To retell events in the past	Background Historical stages
	Historical Account	To account for events in the past (cause and effect)	Background Historical stages
Explaining history	Factorial Explanation	To explain the reasons or factors for an outcome	Phenomenon: outcome Explanation: factors
	Consequential Explanation	To explain the effects or consequences of a situation	Phenomenon: situation Explanation: effects
Arguing history	Exposition	To argue for point of view	Thesis Arguments Restatement
	Discussion	To debate two or more points of view	Issue Sides Resolution
	Challenge	To argue against a view	Position challenged Arguments Anti-thesis

Texts that were part of a *macrogenre* were not used in the genre identification exercises in the PL so, although the notion was referred to, Carolyn had difficulties when faced with identifying such texts alone at school. All of the texts we examined during the first school visit were short texts that were part of textbook *macrogenres*.

After the first school visit, I prepared a summary (*Table 13* above) to assist Carolyn to focus on the genres that she might encounter in her textbooks. It is based on Coffin (2006), who identified the common written genres of history as being grouped around the three central purposes of *chronicling, explaining* and *arguing* history. The table above, however, also includes *reporting* genres as described in Rose & Martin's (2012) overall mapping of the genres of schooling (see *Table 2*, section 2.5) as these genres were also identified as salient from an examination of Carolyn's Year 8 textbooks.

To exemplify the challenges Carolyn faced in identifying the genres in her textbooks the secondary source text, explaining how Hitler gained support for anti-Semitic policies (*Figure 11* above, top left-hand corner of the textbook, p. 170 in), has been annotated according to *genre* and *stages* in *Figure 12*, below.

Historical account
Purpose: to account for events in the past
Structure: Events unfold in time through causal links
Stage 1: *Background: pre-persecution, why, gain support*
Stage 2: *Events explain how:*
    techniques…
    Events, explaining how…
    Link to sources C & D lessons
    Source E textbooks p.170

1930s textbook E, for evidence…

How *event 1 connected to*
        event 2 …

Culminating events…

Then, event…

Then, event…

▶ Anti-Semitism in schools

The persecution of the Jews did not begin immediately. Hitler needed to ensure that he had the support of most of the German people for his anti-Semitic policies. This was achieved through propaganda and the use of schools. Young people especially were encouraged to hate Jews, with school lessons and textbooks putting across anti-Semitic views.
    School textbooks and teaching materials were controlled by the government Ministry of Education. The government was able to put anti-Semitic material into every classroom. In addition, laws were passed to restrict the role of education for Jewish people. In October 1936 Jewish teachers were forbidden to give private tuition to German students. In November 1938 Jewish children were expelled from German schools.

Figure 12 Anti-Semitism text: *The USA 1910-1929 & Germany 1929-1947*, p. 170.

The process of genre identification is elaborated to illustrate the challenges of the task and the potential that working through the process had for developing Carolyn's knowledge about language.

Firstly, the text needs to be read in the context of the background knowledge that had been developed in preceding lessons through the reading of the earlier parts of the chapter: anti-Semitic propaganda, the Jews as scapegoats for many problems faced by Germany, the creation of the Aryan master race and the long history of persecution of the Jews by many nations. Secondly, the primary sources (*Figure 11*, p.170, sources: C, D & E) also need to be considered as evidence of the techniques that were used in schools to influence students to adopt negative attitudes towards Jews, thus contributing to the overall meaning of the secondary source text. As Carolyn was very familiar with the course material, with just a quick reading of the text on *Anti-Semitism in schools* she could see that it provided explanations about *how* Hitler was able to gain the support of the young German people via the education system during the 1930s as one aspect of the Nazi cultural strategy of anti-Semitism.

In terms of determining the genre of the text, the *explanation* dimension differentiated it from *recounts, reports* and *argument*, clustering it *topologically* within the group of *explanation* genres: *factorial* and *consequential*. However, the *historical account*, also needed to be considered as a possibility. While it is organised by *time* (like *recounts*), it foregrounds *cause* making the *explanation* dimension more prominent (Martin & Rose, 2008, p.114). This differentiating characteristic of *time* between an *account* and an *explanation* refers to whether the text unfolds in a linear fashion in *real time*, sharing the key organisational characteristic of the *recount genres* or whether it unfolds in *text time*, being structured rhetorically, with a global organisation, a hierarchy of ideas, which is not presented chronologically.

The work of Coffin (2006) on historical discourse, which was subsequently recommended to Carolyn, provides some additional guidance on this issue. When comparing the structures of *historical accounts* and *explanations*, Coffin (2006) refers to the distinctive characteristic of *explanations* as the 'dismantling of time' (p. 93). She elaborates this notion:

…the explaining genres function to construe a relatively complex, multi-layered causal 'model' of past events. Rather than being temporally located in a one-way cause-effect chain, events and social/political/economic structures and trends are construed as part of a complex web of mutually influencing, simultaneous causal interactions (p. 75).

In order to discern this subtle *topological* difference, however, requires a closer look at the text itself (*Figure 12* above). The first stage of an *historical account* is the *background* so to see more clearly how the text is set in time, the inferred meanings between the title and the first two sentences need to be considered. The title indicates unambiguously what the text is about, *Anti-Semitism in schools*. The first sentence, however, begins by linking the topic in the title to the overall chronology of the textbook *macrogenre*. To see more clearly how this is achieved the sentence can be looked at in two parts; the beginning of the simple sentence focuses our attention on what it will be about – *The persecution of the Jews…* This is the *Theme* of the sentence[79]. Then the end of the sentence provides *New* information[80] by telling us when …*did not begin immediately*. The *antonymous* meaning of *not immediately,* is that the persecution began at a *later time* which links the text to the *macrogenre* as indicated by the timeline in *Figure 13* below.

Looking at the second sentence, it can be seen that the notion of time from the *New* information in the first sentence can be carried forward inferentially as a *marked* or *time theme[81]* in the second sentence and act conjunctively to enable a reading such as: *[Before this], Hitler needed to ensure he had the support from most of the German people* … which contributes to building a setting in real time for the text that follows.

So, the first sentence in the text operates on two levels, firstly, to 'nest' the text within the overall chronology of the textbook, during the time before the persecution. Secondly, when linked implicitly to the title, *Anti-Semitism in schools,* and to the second sentence, it provides the background setting in real time for the text that follows - anti-Semitism in schools as a precursor to the persecution, as illustrated below in *Figure 13* below.

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[79] Halliday & Matthiessen (2014, p.83) describe *Theme* as 'the point of departure' of a clause. The most common *Theme* choice is the *Subject*. Recurrent *Theme* choices orient the listener/reader to the field of the text, or what it's about.
[80] *New* information tends to come towards the end of a clause. *News* tend to expand the field as a text unfolds (Martin & Rose, 2007).
[81] A *marked theme* occurs when an atypical element appears at the beginning of a clause, before the subject. Common marked themes are circumstances of time (e.g. *After many years…All of a sudden…*) and place or participants that are not the subject. They often signal new phases in texts.
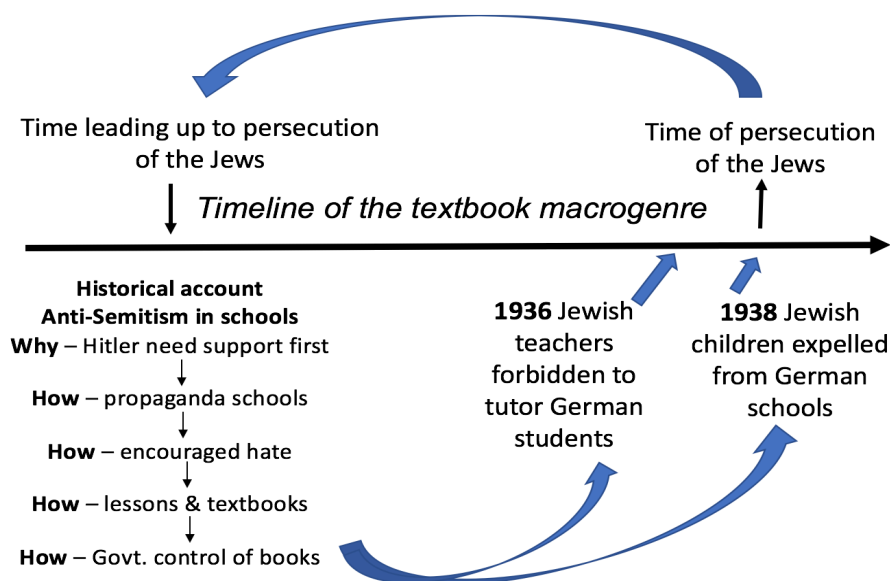
Figure 13 Anti-Semitism text on the timeline of the textbook *macrogenre*.

However, this text (*Figure 12*) must continue to be read inferentially in terms of temporal relations as it lacks an *explicit* chronological structure. Temporal relations such as, *first, then, next,* remain implicit and must be inferred by the reader, time has been 'packaged' inside an implicit, linear, cause and effect chain of events as illustrated above in *Figure 13*.

The closing stage of the text then uses dates to enable the reader to infer the final causal connection between the steps taken in schools and the eventual acceptance of anti-Semitic laws by the German people in 1938. The use of dates simultaneously reconnects the text to the timeline of the overall textbook *macrogenre*.

So, while Carolyn could intuitively read the text (*Figure 12* above) as explaining *how* the education system was used to influence anti-Semitic attitudes, the distinction between the structure of an *historical account* text and an *explanation* text was difficult to discern without an understanding of the subtle *topological* differences between these two genres and even then, the inferential structure of the text as well as its relationship to the *macrogenre* made it a difficult text for a teacher to identify after only one PL workshop exercise on genre identification.

The key criterion that enabled Carolyn to see the explanation dimension of the text was that it foregrounded the *causal unfolding* of events, but this also prevented her from

identifying that it was an *account* using Coffin's (2006) criteria of the *account* unfolding chronologically (p. 75). Martin's (2003) clarification of time being 'packaged' inside the linear unfolding of causes 'what led on to what' in order *to reveal* the cause(s) (p. 45) facilitates the identification of a text like this as an *account* for a teacher who is used to thinking about texts in terms of *field*, what is happening, rather than purpose, what is the text doing.

Table 14 A topology of history genres (adapted from Martin 2003, p. 45)

tell	record	explain		
		reveal	probe	argue
auto/ biographical recount [later]	historical recount [in/during]	historical account [external cause, incongruent]	factorial & consequential explanation [internal cause]	exposition/ challenge
				discussion

text time = field time		text time ≠ field time
episodic unfolding in time	causal unfolding	internal unfolding

Above (*Table 14*), Martin (2003) further clarifies the subtle differences between an *account* and an *explanation* by referring to some more delicately defined, additional *topological* criteria concerning *purpose* and the *unfolding* of the related genres. He sees the *account* genre (and the *argument* genre) located within the *explanation* 'family'. He then sub-classifies the purposes of the differing genres: the *account* ...to explain what led on to what or '*to reveal';* while the purpose of the *explanation* is ... '*to probe'* a set of factors leading to or from some event, and; the *argument* is to present arguments around an interpretation of what happened. Additionally, he maps a shift in time from recounts *unfolding in time*, to historical accounts having a *causal unfolding* of events and explanations and arguments *unfolding rhetorically* as an internally[82] constructed hierarchy of ideas (p. 45).

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[82] In SFL *internal* conjunction refers to conjunctive relations that organise ideas (furthermore, similarly, nonetheless, therefore, etc.) as opposed to *external* conjunctive relations which connect events (and, then, before, because, as soon as etc.).

Nonetheless, the outcome of the cursory survey of the texts in Carolyn's textbooks revealed an overwhelming tendency towards short *historical recount* and *account* texts. *Explanation* texts were not so common in the sections of the textbooks we explored on the first school visit.

The next section considers the impact the complex nature of the texts embedded in the history textbook have on Carolyn's uptake of knowledge about language from the genre-based PL.

5.2.6 Interpretation: the impact of the history texts on the uptake of the PL

When this, otherwise routine, school visit in the *Reading to Learn* PL process is interpreted as a 'researchable event' (Freebody, 2003, p. 30) via the lens of genre analysis, it brings to light two significant factors that impact on Carolyn's uptake of the PL. Firstly, her struggle with the task of identifying her subject-specific genres indicates that the opportunity for scaffolding her knowledge about language during the school visit was paramount to her further planning and subsequent classroom implementation of the new pedagogy. At the same time, it raises the issue of *how much* knowledge about language a subject specialist at this level needs to fully support students to make meaning from complex texts.

Secondly, it is evident from the examination of just a sample of Carolyn's texts that, while they are usually quite short, the way in which they are embedded in the overall macro-structure of the textbook means that their meanings are not as easily accessible as their length may suggest. Meaning-making is further complicated by the need to read each text in conjunction with other texts on the page (see *Figure 11* and annotations to *Figure 12* above). These co-texts, which are often primary sources in both written and visual modes, together with the secondary texts require sophisticated levels of inferential reading[83] to gain full access to their meanings as the exploration of just one of Carolyn's texts demonstrates. This emphasises that the primary focus on content in the guiding history curriculum documents (section 5.2.2) elides the issue of the knowledge about language and about reading which is essential if teachers are to understand how their texts are organised

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[83] Reading comprehension is generally described as having three levels: literal, inferential and interpretive or higher order. The notion is based on Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy which is a hierarchy of thinking skills.

to make meaning. This task requires knowledge about language that goes beyond a focus on 'historical terms', spelling, punctuation and grammar.

This episode shows that if *all teachers* are also to become *teachers of English*, (Sampson, 1922) then more account needs to be taken of the type of expertise that they require. This points to role that subject specific PL could play in developing teacher expertise in discipline-based knowledge about language literacy. The school visit demonstrated that after just one PL workshop and some individualised scaffolding, Carolyn was able to view her texts not only from the perspective of their content, *what* they were about, but also their *purpose,* what they were *doing*. In this episode, the previously 'invisible' concept of *genre* had become 'visible' and she planned to share the new knowledge with her students via the R2L teaching sequence (see *Table 16*, section 5.3.4).

5.2.7 Genres for history writing tasks

This final section of the first learning episode, focusing on the history curriculum and texts, builds on the implications of the history course documents (section 5.2.2) and the development of understandings about the genres of the history textbooks (section 5.2.5) to focus on the genres of the texts that Carolyn's GCSE students were required to write. As a result of the analysis of the genres of her textbooks, Carolyn went on to raise an important question about the genres that the essay questions in her coursebooks and exams were eliciting. The analysis of sample essay questions that follows in this section is most relevant to research Question 1, as it focuses on the impact of the GCSE examination context on Carolyn's uptake of the PL. The data examined here consists of the notes from the school visit, the analyses of pages from the textbooks and essay questions from the textbook and GCSE examination support material.

Carolyn brought up the issue of the genres that were being elicited by essay and exam questions in textbooks and in examination board materials by expressing her doubts about whether an *explanation* or an *argument* with an explanatory purpose was required by the following questions:

Did the strongest opposition to the Nazis during the war years come from the German military? Explain your answer fully.

Did opposition from religious groups within Germany present a serious challenge to Nazi rule during the war years? Explain your answer fully.

How important was the depression, amongst other factors, in bringing Hitler and the Nazis to power in 1933? (WJCE, 2013)

It is not surprising that Carolyn raised this question, since a typological classification of explanation texts according to purpose locates them within the *informing* group of texts, while *argument* texts are grouped with texts that have the purpose of *evaluating*. However, from a *topological* perspective that considers similarities rather than categories of difference, it can be seen that the two genres share a number of the same characteristics which can make them hard to distinguish. These similarities led Martin (2003) to locate *arguments* within the *explanation* family in his categorisation of history texts in *Table 14* above (5.2.5).

The analysis of these typical GCSE essay questions, however, needs to be viewed in the light of the overall purposes and aims of the history teaching that are reflected in the curriculum documents section (section 5.2.2) and the textbooks (section 5.2.5) that support the implementation of Carolyn's course. While the wide range of views and traditions regarding teaching history will not be reviewed here,[84] the broadly 'traditional' view of school history sees it as the reading of 'narrative'[85], essentially received secondary interpretations of the past, which requires students to learn 'facts' which are to be reproduced in exams and essays (Parliament. House of Lords, 2011) in the style of 'transmission' pedagogy (see section 2.2.1). In this tradition, the genres for writing history are likely to 'mirror' the reading genres.

History textbooks, like the ones Carolyn uses however, contain a high percentage of primary source texts in differing modes, alongside secondary sources. When this is considered in conjunction with activities that require both primary and secondary sources to be evaluated (see *Tasks* in *Figure 11*, section 5.2.5), the indication is that the GCSE course places value on students being able to interpret the past for themselves (Parliament.

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[84] For an overview of the debate about the teaching history see: Parliament, House of Lords (2011) *To call attention to the teaching of history in schools.* [online] Available from: https://www.parliament.uk/documents/lords-library/Library%20Notes/2011/LLN%202011-030%20TeachingHistorySchoolsFP2.pdf

[85] *Narrative*, refers to the practice of writing history as a chronological story focusing on events, individuals, action, and intention.

House of Lords, 2011). They are required to engage in a type of apprenticeship into aspects of historical inquiry in the style of constructivist learning (see section 2.3.1). Thus, while the history curriculum steering document and the examination board specification seem to uphold a 'traditional' objectivist view of history, the textbook, published by the examination board's authorised publication partner[86], adopts an overtly constructivist approach to the teaching of history. The textbook exercises, designed to support the GCSE examination curriculum, require students to be able to interpret the significance of sources and events, to formulate opinions and to write texts that evaluate and take up positions using historical evidence to argue their case. This has significant implications for the types of texts that students are required to read and write.

Although examination boards provide some sample essay question answers for use by GCSE teachers, school textbooks provide few examples of argument texts that can be used by students as models for writing effective arguments (Coffin, 2006, p. 87). A survey of the 210 pages of the class GCSE textbook, *The USA 1910-1929 & Germany 1929-1947* revealed only three examples of the type of extended argument essay responses referred to by Coffin (2006). Other example texts were all responses to short answer questions: nine examples of answers requiring analysis of primary sources, two examples of responses requiring description and three sample answers to comprehension of visual sources. This has significant implications for classroom pedagogy. To be successful, students need to be taught explicitly how to write *argument* texts and Carolyn was hopeful that genre-based pedagogy would support her in this endeavour.

While Carolyn had previously thought of essay questions more in terms of the content that they elicited, the new information about *genre*s from the PL had led her to consider the *purpose* of the texts and thereby created a new dilemma in terms of the *genres* that the questions were eliciting.

At this first meeting, I supported Carolyn to relate the new knowledge about *genre* to the course materials and the textbook, with which she was very familiar, and to use contextual clues to enable her to see that even if the wording of a question was ambiguous, the examiners would be expecting students to frame their explanatory answers as a type of

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[86] In 2013 Hodder Education was the authorised publication partner of the Welsh Joint Education Committee Examination board.

argument. This again concurs with Coffin's (2006) advice that it is vital that students are 'aware that, in the later years of schooling, arguing genres are generally the preferred response' (p.80).

The basis for the genre-based approach to teaching reading and writing is to select and prepare both reading and writing texts by identifying their genres and their constituent stages and phases, in order to use this knowledge in the pedagogy, so it was important for Carolyn to experience this process with her own texts to gain enough confidence to take the next step in the pedagogy and plan her R2L lessons.

The next section considers Carolyn's first mentoring session in the light of the issue of her becoming conscious of the role of knowledge about language in history.

5.2.8 Interpretation: knowledge about genre – from dissonance to motivation

Becoming conscious that texts have different purposes, and are structured differently to achieve these purposes, impacted significantly on Carolyn's uptake of the learning from the PL, particularly once she realised that this meant her students were rarely reading texts in the *argument genre* which is a key, yet challenging, genre required for GCSE essay writing.

While the impact of the new knowledge about different genres was initially a challenge to Carolyn's uptake of the PL, once she began to overcome the challenge it became an impetus for further learning. The first school visit documents her initial struggle to identify the genres in her textbooks (sections 5.2.4 and 5.2.5) and how she became disoriented by the GCSE essay questions (section 5.2.7) that were clear in stipulating the content that was required in a response but were ambiguous in terms of the purpose of the texts required. So, at this initial stage on the learning journey, these factors represented a challenge to Carolyn.

The school visit, however, when interpreted together with other data consolidated as part of the initial learning episode demonstrates how it provided mentoring to scaffold Carolyn's learning in the school environment (*Figure 6*, section 3.7). This had a positive impact on her understanding of the concept of *genre* in relation to the texts in her own coursebooks and thus connected to her positive motivation to improve the learning of her

students through her participation in the PL (section 5.2.1). The first learning episode when viewed in this context can be interpreted as having a significant role in providing the impetus for Carolyn to view this new learning challenge of genre identification in a positive light and for it to become a factor that motivated her to take up the pedagogy being offered in the PL as possible way of meeting this new learning challenge for herself and her students.

While the issues of limited time for PL workshops, mentoring visits, lesson preparation and classroom teaching had an ongoing impact on the uptake of the PL, the scaffolding support provided by the school visits was key in compensating for the overall 'time poor' context in which the teacher learning took place.

With regard to Carolyn developing uncertainty in identifying the genres that were being elicited in the GCSE essay questions (section 5.2.7 above), the PL meta-research (Timperley et al., 2007) places emphasis on what it describes as the role of 'dissonance' in facilitating new teacher learning. They refer to it as 'the sense of disequilibrium that is created when a learner is confronted with dissonant information that challenges their existing ideas, theories, values, or beliefs' (p. 282). This is what Carolyn appears to have been experiencing with regard to identifying the genre that was being elicited by the essay questions, the new information about genre had raised doubts in her mind about how to interpret the familiar essay questions in genre terms. Previously she had thought of the response as being an 'analysis question' but in the light of the new information about genre, she was unsure whether an *explanation* or an *argument* was being elicited.

The PL meta-research findings assert that this type of disequilibrium is a necessary step in the learning process if teachers are to make substantive changes to their practice. However, although the development of such dissonance should be seen as a step towards enabling new learning as teachers make fundamental changes to their previous beliefs and understandings, it also represents a time of risk for those involved in providing PL. Not all teachers have the opportunity or the desire to work through their feelings of dissonance, to acquire the new understandings the PL experience aims to develop. As mentioned previously, the *BES framework* (2007) cites rejection of new learning as one of the typical teacher responses. Partial adoptions are also listed as possible responses where teachers may continue with prior practice, believing it is new practice, or where they merely select some aspects of the new theory or practice and adapt it to current practice (2007, p. 14).

So, the contextual curriculum challenges Carolyn faced in teaching history during the GCSE examination years were factors that she *hoped* to surmount as she expressed in her initial online survey response (section 5.2.1). The GCSE course has a strong focus on developing the skills necessary to pass the exams, despite these skills not being articulated in terms of language and literacy. Her textbook was designed around the GCSE history specification and published in conjunction with the examination board, and her course was driven by exam requirements that were exemplified in the textbook. Thus, she relied heavily on reading the texts from the coursebook and she also used many of the activities and exam style essay questions from the textbook.

Thereby, asking for support with the process of genre identification on the school visit, Carolyn demonstrated that she was conscious of the fact that she had not yet developed sufficient knowledge about genre to make an independent start with the genre-based approach to plan her lessons for classroom teaching. She could see that the texts in her course books and her essay questions presented additional challenges to those of the sample texts used for genre identification in the workshop. Hence, in terms of the overarching aim of the PL process, *to bring language to consciousness*, this first learning episode can be seen as a step towards developing a new genre-based perspective on her subject.

The second learning episode that focuses on planning for classroom teaching is introduced in the next section. Carolyn raised a question regarding pedagogy that provides a further example of productive dissonance.

5.3 Teacher learning episode 2: planning the R2L *curriculum macrogenre*

The analysis of data consolidated in the four sub-sections of this second learning episode demonstrates how the PL impacted on Carolyn's lesson planning. It contributes to answering part of research Question 2 concerning the impact professional learning (PL) on a teacher's classroom practice as evidenced in lesson planning. This learning episode builds on the outcomes of the previous episode concerning genre identification and Carolyn's conscious realisation that in many instances there is a mismatch between the genres of reading and writing. The data consolidated for this episode concentrates on the planning aspect of her attempts to use the R2L pedagogy to overcome the issue she was

now conscious of concerning a difference in the genres of reading and writing for some key GCSE writing tasks.

This learning episode has been developed from reflective discussions during PL Workshop 2 in January 2016, and on school visits in April and May 2016 when curriculum and planning documentation related to lesson planning were collected (*Table 6*, section 4.4.5).

5.3.1 Pedagogy to mediate the mismatch between reading and writing genres

The consolidation of data to create this second learning episode was motivated by a comment recorded by Carolyn during the reflective group discussion session at the commencement of the second PL workshop in January 2016. She recorded the following reflection that brought up an issue regarding pedagogy:

> I'm not sure what to do when the writing task is a different genre to the text they are reading (January 6, 2016).

While this comment attests to the fact that Carolyn's knowledge about language (KAL) from the first PL workshop and school visit had enabled her to identify the difference in the genres her students are required to read in the history textbooks and those that they are required to write in essays, it simultaneously raised a new issue for her concerning the genre pedagogy. It revealed that she had not yet understood how the pedagogy sequence from the PL could be used to scaffold learning to overcome such issues. Once teachers gain more awareness of the differences between genres, they can appreciate that reading a text in one genre does not provide a model for writing in another as the purposes, the structures and language features are different. This is a further example of the dissonance she was experiencing with the introduction of the new pedagogy compared to her previous practices (see section 5.2.8).

While this issue concerning pedagogy had been discussed briefly in Workshop 1, it had now become a real teaching issue for Carolyn so it was discussed more fully with reference to the *Reading to learn* (R2L) '*curriculum macrogenre*' illustrated in *Figure 14* below.

This issue was of concern to all the teachers in the group because of the requirement in secondary schooling for students in all curriculum areas to read information from texts in

one or more genres for discussion, evaluation and reorganisation so that it can be used to produce written texts in different genres, usually for assessment.
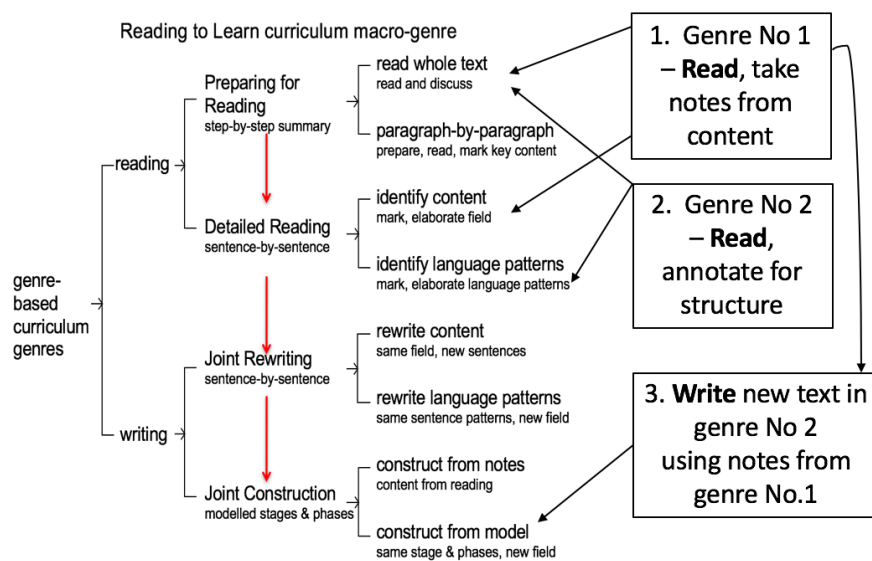
Figure 14 Reading to Learn curriculum *macrogenre* (adapted from Rose, 2014)

In its basic form, the R2L pedagogy model presumes that the class will be writing a text in the same genre as the reading text, in which case the reading text is in fact a model for the writing that follows (*Figure 14* above). However, when the genres for reading and writing are different, an additional layer of pedagogy is required to include the reading of another text that models the target genre for writing. The sequence necessary to scaffold reading in one genre and writing in another is illustrated in the annotated and numbered boxes in *Figure 14* above. The sequence would begin with *preparing for reading* followed by *detailed reading* which includes note-taking of key information from the first reading text(s). This information is then 'set aside'. Subsequently, a text that models the target genre for writing is selected for *preparing for reading*, *detailed reading* and annotation, the focus is on structure and linguistic features, rather than content (a text on a familiar topic is good choice for this step). Finally, the content from the first text, in note form, and the genre structure of the second text are used in combination during a teacher led *joint construction* of a new text in the target genre. This builds students' skills and experience thereby enabling them to repeat the process in groups or individually with diminishing support to ultimately produce independent texts for assessment.

All teachers participated in the workshop discussion and shared examples of how they had implemented the pedagogy to mediate a difference between reading and writing texts. This

aspect of the pedagogy had been more readily understood by the English teachers who were accustomed to reading literary texts as the basis for writing *text responses*. Carolyn's important question had been addressed and all the teachers seemed to have understood how the R2L *curriculum macrogenre* could be used flexibly to mediate a difference between genres.

The next section examines the first stage of Carolyn's planning for what later developed into her *curriculum macrogenre*. It reveals the extent to which the 'dissonance' she experienced motivated her to use the pedagogy as a tool to problem-solve the issue of reading in one genre and writing in another and how her reflection on the lesson scaffolded her learning.

5.3.2 'Not enough': reflecting on the links between language and pedagogy

Through a reconstruction of Carolyn's lesson planning, this section examines her initial attempt to take the next step with the new classroom pedagogy. Productively motivated by the dissonance she experienced concerning the differences between genres of reading and writing, she planned and implemented a lesson designed to scaffold her students use of information from reading, to write the unfamiliar, *argument* genre required by the GCSE course but rarely modelled in the textbook. Her reflection on the process, however, creates further feelings of dissonance. These experiences then illustrate how scaffolding teacher learning in the school environment enables the iterative theory-practice process to promote reflection on action that can work positively to sustain and motivate further learning.

Using her knowledge about language from the PL, supplemented by her reading of Coffin's (2006) SFL-based analysis of historical discourse, Carolyn had been implementing the R2L strategies for reading and note-taking from historical *recounts* and *accounts* to guide her students to re-write texts in the same genre. However, in early May 2016, following the conclusion of the PL workshops, she set about planning a lesson where the class would read in one genre and she would guide them to write in another.

As an experienced practitioner, Carolyn did not routinely produce a series of discrete planning documents for her lessons. Although the R2L course material included planning proformas, she did not use them. However, she outlined the key steps in her lesson planning process for R2L in the post programme interview as follows:

So, I'd find the text which had all the key words and terms in it, I'd read that text carefully myself…I'd base a lesson around that, around looking at the text, doing the detailed reading, putting it into some bullet point note forms, and then we… banked those to use in a longer essay style answer (Carolyn, July 13, 2016).

The planning that took place for the lessons that are the focus of this episode are summarised in *Table 15* (below) and *Table 16, (*section 5.3.4). In consultation with Carolyn, the summaries were distilled, from the compilation of discussion notes from school visits and follow-up emails, together with texts from coursebooks, lesson PowerPoints, classroom handouts and lesson notes.

In Lesson 1 (*Table 15* below), Carolyn planned to read an *historical recount* with the class, guide the students to take notes and then lead the *joint construction* of an *argument* text in response to an exam style essay question: Were the restrictions placed on employment the worst problem faced by Jews in Germany in the years 1933-38?

Table 15 Summary of Carolyn's planning for Lesson 1

Lesson/ Topic	Task	Pedagogic activities/ resources
Lesson 1 23/5/16 How did Nazi racial policy affect life in Germany? Problems faced by the Jews	**Essay:** Were the restrictions placed on employment the worst problem faced by Jews in Germany in the years 1933-38? **Answer:** discuss the seriousness of the problems faced by Jews 1933 - 38, including restrictions on employment - 12 marks + 3 for spelling, punctuation and grammar.	**Resources:** textbook[87] p.171 (*historical recount*), teacher's PowerPoint. **Paragraph reading:** Teacher-led reading, highlighting and discussion of key information, paragraph-by-paragraph, on problems faced by Jews. Notes scribed as bullet points on the board. **Teacher-led Joint Construction** of *argument* essay introduction using the notes from reading. **Individual construction:** students finish for homework.

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[87] Wright, J., Waugh, S & Evans, P (eds.) (2010). *The USA 1910-1929 & Germany 1929-1947*, London, Hodder Education

The reading text consisted of six mini-recounts, displayed as a vertical timeline with a box for each year from 1933 to 1938, shown in *Figure 11* in section 5.2.5 above (from p. 171 of the textbook). The topic was the series of measures taken against the Jews in Germany at that time. In the classroom, Carolyn planned to follow selected parts of the R2L *curriculum macrogenre*.

Firstly, she would use *preparing for reading* to orient the students to the genre and summarise how the meaning unfolded through the text. Then, as the information in the texts was not very dense and did not require the sentence-by-sentence approach of *detailed reading*, she would read the texts with the class *paragraph-by-paragraph*. As the reading took place, she would discuss each of the paragraphs, but students would be guided to highlight only the key information about the topic of *Employment restrictions on Jews* in preparation for the essay. The highlighted information would then be scribed as notes on the board by the students and Carolyn would lead a *joint construction* of the introductory paragraph of an *argument* text which students would finish for homework.

This plan did not include the use of a model of an *argument* text for reading to make the structure of the new genre visible to the students before the *joint construction*. Even though Carolyn had raised the question about how to use the pedagogy to guide this process in the January PL workshop (section 5.3.1), and it had been discussed and explained, she omitted this key step. Instead she had planned to guide her students spontaneously, providing an oral explanation of the structure of the text as she scribed the introductory paragraph on the board using contributions from the students who would then finish their texts independently for homework. However, following the implementation of the lesson and students' independent completion of the texts at home, she failed to see the improvement she was hoping for in their writing. She thus came to realise that the task of writing an argument had proven more of a challenge for the students than she had anticipated.

On the next school visit (May 26, 2016), the lesson was still on her mind and as we discussed it, her reflection was that the reading and note-taking strategies were 'not enough' to enable an improvement in the writing of the *argument* texts. She had thought that the focus on reading and note-taking from the *recounts* would be 'enough' for the students to understand how to structure an *argument* essay from her modelling session

which was much more explicit than her usual process of 'telling' the students how to write a text without modelling the process by jointly constructing the text with them.

The next section discusses the implications of this event with reference to the *BES* meta-research on PL.

5.3.3 Interpretation: implications of the iterative theory–practice relationship

The implication of her reflection is that she had not yet become fully conscious of the connection between knowledge about language and the stages in the pedagogical process that are designed for the teacher to provide the scaffolding for students to write in an unfamiliar genre. Prior to this, her application of the R2L pedagogy had involved using reading texts that modelled the genre of the writing texts. This meant that the texts that resulted from joint re-writing seemed to develop easily from the notes written on the board and students could successfully complete the writing independently. Therefore, in spite of having understood the difference between the genres, and the difficulties students face in reading in one genre and writing in another, Carolyn had not fully appreciated the extent of the explicit support required from the teacher to enable students to write in an unfamiliar genre. Even when the pedagogical steps to provide support had been discussed, explained and modelled in classroom simulations and in videos in the PL workshops, it was not until she had a personal experience of a lack of expected improvement in her students' writing that she became fully conscious of the need to also read a model of writing in the target genre to adequately scaffolding writing.

Although her teaching of this lesson was not observed, the evidence from the planning data and the subsequent discussion of the lesson on the school visit contribute to answering research Question 2 concerning the impact of the PL on lesson planning and on teaching. By using the *BES framework* (2007) of teacher responses to PL to determine the impact of the PL on her practice, it is evident that there has been only a partial adoption of the new learning. The reading stage of Carolyn's planning and her reported use of the R2L strategies of; *preparing for reading, paragraph-by-paragraph reading* and *note-taking*, indicate that she 'implemented the pedagogy as required' (Timperley et al., 2007, p. 14). During the writing stage of the lesson, however, she does not seem to have fully appreciated the purpose of modelling and *joint construction*. She reported that she

modelled the writing process by 'talking' her students through it which was more akin to her usual teaching practice and to the 'transmission' model of pedagogy (section 2.2.2).

The R2L pedagogy is designed to facilitate an unambiguous understanding of a writing task by reading and annotating a model of the target genre. The inclusion of such a written model would also have provided an opportunity for her to use genre metalanguage to scaffold the process with a view to building student independence for the homework task and for future encounters with the same genre. So, in terms of the writing stage of her lesson, there is no evidence in her planning concerning the use of models. An interpretation of her response to the new pedagogy using the *BES framework* (2007) would be that she 'selected parts of new theory and practice and adapted them to current practice' (2007, p.14).

Nonetheless, Carolyn's reflection on her lesson during our discussion illustrates the significance of opportunities for scaffolding teacher learning in the school environment. The PL that took place in the R2L workshops was 'not enough' to effect Carolyn's complete adoption of the pedagogy in the classroom. However, the scaffolded approach to teacher learning, in the form of school visits, is designed to enable the iterative theory-practice relationship that can promote reflection and motivate the adoption of change. Carolyn's reflective learning discussion highlights the positive influence of the sustained teacher learning provided by the design of the R2L PL programme (section 3.7.2), particularly given the reduced number of workshop days that the participating London schools were able to provide (see section 4.4.6).

Recent research by Hipkiss and Andersson Varga (2018) into the contribution of school visits to the *Reading to Learn* PL process in Sweden, concluded that discussion between 'experts' and 'novices' supports the building of a 'metalanguage[88]' which contributes to understanding both the theory and its practical application in the classroom (p. 94).

In spite of the reduced number of days for the R2L PL, it was more extended than Carolyn was used to, and she also felt it was about her learning needs rather than those of the

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[88] The benefits of using SFL *metalanguage* to support teacher PL and student literacy development in a range of discipline areas at different stages of schooling has been reported by numerous scholars (e.g. Gebhard, Chen, & Britton, 2003; Williams, 2004; Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteíza, 2007; Aguirre-Muñoz, Park, Amabisca, & Boscardin, 2008; Brisk & Zisselsberger, 2010; Hipkiss & Andersson Varga, 2018).

school. She expressed her opinion about it in an open-ended response in the post-programme interview:

> I think it was a real pleasure to be involved in some of my own CPD and development for myself, which was sustained over a year, rather than it just being a one-off.... I think having it divided like that was really helpful, because you could go away and digest it, try it out, come back, talk about it. You know, and being able to share your experiences with the others in the group. It was great, and it was testing enough and technical enough to be challenging. I really enjoyed the opportunity to do something quite sustained like that. (Carolyn, July 13, 2016).

Up until this point, the *ideas* from the PL had caused Carolyn to experience a theoretical 'dissonance' (Timperley, et al., 2007) between her previous tacit view of texts as conveyors of content (section 2.2.2) and the explicit view from the PL that texts also have different purposes and thus make different kinds of meanings (section 5.2.4). She also experienced 'dissonance' at the *ideas* level with the introduction of a new theory of pedagogy based on *scaffolding* (section 2.3.1) that would make writing visible in the classroom by using a model of a text to guide an experience of writing between the teacher and students, rather than her previous routinised way of teaching predominantly by talking (section 2.2.2). However, even though she had experienced the necessary theoretical dissonance, she had not experienced it in her own practice before. It was the experience of being left unsatisfied with the student writing after her carefully planned lesson that turned the previously theoretical ideas into *real* issues that could only be resolved by implementing the classroom pedagogy as recommended.

Like her students, Carolyn also needed further scaffolding to change her practice sufficiently to achieve her aims for improved student learning. So, in order to ensure that this event would become a learning experience that she could build on, rather than a reason for rejecting the pedagogy, we discussed her achievements up to this point and how the experience could be used to plan for future success. Carolyn's motivation to continue with the new pedagogy and to achieve her goal of mediating the difference between reading and writing genres was sustained. During our discussion she decided that she would require more than one lesson to achieve her goal and that she would plan a lesson sequence to implement the pedagogy which would include a written model for writing an *argument*.

The next section examines the learning that is reflected in the planning for the two lessons that would build on Lesson 1 to form a three-lesson R2L *curriculum macrogenre* designed to scaffold student learning to read in one genre and write in another.

5.3.4 Planning for text transformation: reading in *real time* to writing in *text time*

The planning summarised in *Table 16* (below) demonstrates the additional support that Carolyn came to realise that her students required to write successful *argument* texts.

Table 16 Summary of planning for Lessons 2 & 3 of the curriculum *macrogenre*

Lesson/	Task	Pedagogic activities/ resources
Lesson 2 14/6/16 What opposition was there to Nazi rule from civilians in Germany during the war years?	**Focus question:** How did young people oppose Nazis during the war? Note-taking in a 3-column grid: 1. WHO: Name of group, leaders, members, uniform, symbol 2. WHAT: examples of what they did to oppose the Nazis 3. WHAT: reaction of Nazi authorities	**Resources:** textbook pp. 190-191 (*historical accounts)*, teacher's PowerPoint. **Detailed reading:** Teacher-led joint reading, highlighting of key information on Edelweiss Pirates, recording notes on grid & discussion. **Group work:** reading, highlighting to complete notes on grid on Swing & White Rose Groups. **Teacher-led recap:** students read out notes, questions and discussion with teacher elaboration.
Lesson 3 16/6/16 (filmed) Opposition from young people in Germany to Nazis during the war.	**Essay:** To what extent did the most serious opposition to the Nazis in Germany during the war years come from young people? In your answer you should discuss the seriousness of the opposition from a variety of groups, including young people.	**Resources:** PowerPoint, notes on grid, hand out of question and essay introduction. **Deconstruction of essay question -** Teacher-led reading & highlighting of key terms in essay question, explanation of purpose of target text - *argument* **Teacher explanation** of paragraph structure **Detailed reading:** Teacher-led reading of model essay paragraph, highlighting of key information. Elaborations on the structural and linguistic features of the *argument*.

		Joint construction: Teacher guides students to write joint class text on new topic using notes from the grid. **Group/individual construction:** continue the essay in groups and finish for homework.

Lesson 2 would focus on reading a brief *historical account* displayed in a double-page spread with photos and primary sources in the textbook on the topic of youth opposition to the Nazis (see Appendix IX). She would begin by leading the class to read one text using *detailed reading* to highlight information from each sentence. The information would then be scribed as notes on the board in grid-form rather than in the chronological order in which it appeared in the textbook. The grid used categories of opposition and Nazi reaction for each group as modelled in Carolyn's PowerPoint below (*Figure 15*).

WHO: Name of group; leaders; members; uniform; symbol	WHAT: examples of what they did to oppose the Nazis	WHAT: reaction of Nazi authorities— use sources as well as text
• Edelweiss Pirates • Edelweiss flower • Check shirt and dark trousers **How serious a threat did they pose? Think about:** • Numbers? • Actions? • Reactions? • Effectiveness?	• Went on hikes and met up with other groups • Beat up Hitler Youth • Collected Allied propaganda leaflets and put them through people's doors • Provided shelter to deserters from army	• Nov 1944, 12 members hanged by the Gestapo • Identified in Gestapo training manual – implies they were considered dangerous

Figure 15 Teacher PowerPoint modelling note-taking grid: Lesson 2 of the *macrogenre*

This modelled for the students how information from a chronologically organised reading text can be reorganised to allow for evaluation in preparation for the writing of a rhetorically structured *argument* text. Students would then work in groups for the remainder of the lesson, reading the other texts and taking notes in their grids to use in Lesson 3.

This innovative step to collate the time-organised information from the *historical recounts* in her lesson plan demonstrates Carolyn's understanding of some important differences between reading and writing about events that happened in real time in the past, to reading and writing about issues expressed as abstractions (identified linguistically as *nominalisations*) which are organised rhetorically in 'text time'. Carolyn thus follows

Coffin (2006) who emphasises the additional support required by students to write successful *arguments*.

Lesson 3 was to include the step that was missing from the previously planned Lesson 1. It is based around the reading of a model of an *argument* text before the writing of a new joint class text. Carolyn planned to use a model of an *argument* text based on the content of Lesson 1. This demonstrates her understanding of modelling the target genre by choosing a text with different, yet not completely unfamiliar, *field* information. As students would already be familiar with the content of the argument from Lesson 1 - employment restrictions placed on Jews - Carolyn could focus their attention on the structure and language features of an *argument* during reading, without needing to focus specifically on the comprehension of any new content.

The *joint construction* of the new *argument* would then be guided by the structure of the model argument text but would use the content about opposition from youth groups recorded on the note-taking grid in the previous lesson. Students would then continue to write the text in groups in class and finish it for homework.

The next section considers the extent to which Carolyn's planning of this sequence of lessons provides evidence of her uptake of the R2L PL with reference to the *BES framework* (2007) of typical teacher responses to PL.

5.3.5 Interpretation: the impact of KAL and pedagogy on planning

In terms of answering research Question 2, concerning the impact of the PL on Carolyn's lesson planning, the three-lesson R2L *macrogenre* above demonstrates her ability to apply her new knowledge about language to the tasks of identify the genres of her history texts, and to plan to use the pedagogy as a mediating tool to overcome the challenge she identified for her students when they are required to read in one genre and write in another.

The materials she developed in conjunction with her planning demonstrate her intention to apply the pedagogy innovatively to remediate the issue. The dissonance she experienced between her previous practices and the new genre-based pedagogy, together with the scaffolding she received offered an opportunity for reflection and provided motivation for her continued classroom application.

With reference to the *BES framework* of typical teacher responses to PL, she not only planned to 'implement the pedagogy as required' but she was 'actively engaging with, owning, and applying new theory and practice' to her planning process (Timperley et al., 2007, p.14).

The planning represents the intended curriculum, so the following episodes examine evidence from the classroom to determine the extent to which the intended curriculum was enacted as planned.

5.4 Teacher learning episode 3: *Preparing for reading* and *Detailed reading*

This third learning episode is based on the analysis of data from the first two stages of the filmed classroom teaching of the planned Lesson 3 of Carolyn's R2L *macrogenre* (*Table 16,* section 5.3.4 above) and is focused on reading. Using the lens of SFL analysis, it firstly identifies and explains features of Carolyn's classroom discourse during *preparing for reading* that emerge as key in this study. As the discourse features are combined with elements of multimodal analysis, a more dynamic picture of how Carolyn enacts classroom pedagogy in the opening stage of the lesson is developed.

The episode demonstrates how in *preparing for reading*, Carolyn tacitly adopts different roles in relation to her students by drawing on different semiotic systems as she alternates between persuading and directing her students to prepare for the lesson. The linguistic concepts foregrounded in the *preparing for reading* stage are then used for comparison with the enactment of the pedagogy in the *detailed reading* stage of the lesson.

This episode provides responses to the three research questions. Firstly, it brings to the fore the influence that prevailing contextual factors, relevant to research Question 1, have on the teacher's practice as evidenced in Stage 1, *preparing for reading*. Then it compares her implementation of the *detailed reading* strategy from of the PL in Stage 2 (research Question 2). Finally, Carolyn's perception of her practice is compared to the evidence in her classroom interactions (research Question 3).

5.4.1 Identifying the enacted Stages and phases of Lesson 3

Carolyn's teaching of the planned Lesson 3 (*Table 16*, section 5.3.4 above) was filmed and the discourse transcribed for analysis. A *synoptic* approach to the analysis was used to view the transcript as the text of a lesson, a *curriculum genre*, unfolding through constituent stages and phases (section 4.5.2). Shifts in the discourse and pedagogic activity were identified and the lesson has been mapped[89] as shown below in *Table 17*.

Table 17 Carolyn's enacted *Reading to Learn curriculum genre*, Lesson No 3

Stages and phases of Carolyn's history curriculum genre - Lesson 3	
Stage	Phase
Preparing for reading	**1. Task Orientation,** focus on materials for essay writing.
	2. Task Specification, focus on pedagogy sequence.
	3. Task Deconstruction, focus question and genre of target text.
	4. Task Deconstruction, focus on structure of model paragraph.
	5. Reading aloud model essay paragraph.
Detailed reading	Teacher led reading of model essay paragraph, student highlighting sentence-by-sentence, learning focus on links between structure and content in an argument, evidence to support a point of view.
Preparing for writing/ Bridging[90]	**1. Recap of structure,** labelling structure of model paragraph
	2. Recap of field (content), teacher led oral revision questioning
Joint construction/ Text negotiation	Joint class writing of the main paragraph of an *argument* text using notes taken from reading an *account* of the topic in previous lesson.
	1. Create, teacher and students propose and write sentences on board
	2. Reflect, sentences are discussed and reconsidered
	3. Edit, changes are made to the scribed sentences
Pair/ small group construction	Students write the next paragraph of the argument essay in groups for the final stage of the lesson. Teacher circulates.
Individual construction	Students to finish the final paragraphs of the argument essay for homework.

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[89] The SFL notion of *constituency* used here establishes a two-way relationship between language and its context, as the stages of the lesson, viewed as part of a curriculum genre, are *realised* by the classroom discourse, the discourse *instantiates* the stages of the genre.
[90] For an explanation of the names of the *stages* and *phases* of the *joint construction* stage of the lesson used here, see Chapter 5, *Table 21,* (section 5.5.6) for a discussion of the mapping of this stage of genre pedagogy undertaken by Dreyfus et al., 2011.

The stages have been named using the labels from the R2L curriculum *macrogenre* where the discourse reflected that the pedagogy being enacted was largely consistent with the R2L pedagogy stages, as outlined previously in *Figure 14,* section 5.3.1 above.

The focus on reading in this episode begins with the analysis of the *preparing for reading* stage. This first stage is recorded in the plan for the lesson (*Table 16)* as *Deconstruction of essay question* and *Teacher explanation of paragraph*. The enactment of the *stage,* however, revealed five phases (Nos. 1-5, *Table 17*), or shifts in meaning and pedagogic activity. These *phases* have been named according to purpose as; *task orientation, task specification* and *task deconstruction*.

As not all of these phases were specified in the lesson planning, their enactment provided an opportunity to analyse and articulate the nature of Carolyn's routine classroom interactions with her students for comparison with interactions during the later stages of the lesson that were planned to implement the R2L pedagogy (see Appendix XII for analysis of Phase 4).

5.4.2 Ideational meaning-making: *what* the lesson phase is about

As the purpose of teacher-student interaction is essentially pragmatic, focusing on teaching and learning, from an SFL perspective, the *ideational metafunction*, with its associated register variable of *field* plays a key role in the pedagogic discourse in defining *what* the interactions are about (section 2.4.1). Nonetheless, both the *interpersonal* and the *ideational metafunctions* must be considered together with their associated register variables of *tenor* and *field* to understand how Carolyn manages both her interpersonal and pedagogic roles.

The lesson was initiated by the *task orientation* phase *(Table 17* above*)* as Carolyn asked for *action* from her students to organise their learning materials:

> ... And if you could have your notes on how young people opposed Nazi rule, *(holding up a table with notes from the previous lesson)* that would be really helpful because we're going to be using those to write a paragraph...

In the above excerpt, Carolyn used the polite form of an explanatory request, known in SFL as an *interpersonal metaphor of mood*[91]*.* This occurs when a *command* is realised metaphorically as a suggestion, as exemplified by Carolyn's discourse in the shaded stretch of discourse above. However, due to her *status relation* of authority (Eggins & Slade, 1997) which is inherent in the unequal teacher/student role relations, the students understand it as an imperative. This *role relation* is in turn constituent of the register variable of *tenor,* so although the register variables of *field* and *mode* are present in the discourse, it is Carolyn's use of *tenor* in her teacher *status role* that is most salient in this opening lesson phase. As *tenor* is associated with the *interpersonal metafunction*, the discourse reveals that what is being foregrounded in the above stretch of discourse is Carolyn's *status role* with regard to her students.

In contrast, the second phase of the lesson (*task specification*) which is the key focus for analysis here, was signalled by a shift in the discourse from asking for *action*, to asking the students to *remember* the now familiar R2L sequence of pedagogical activities:

> Alright? And then remember what we're going to do is we're going to look at this essay question, okay? (placing hand on the question projected on the board) And we're going to start to write this essay together, and then you will finish it in pairs and then independently on your own.
> ... If you just look at the front here. This is just a copy of what's on your yellow piece of paper (referring to projection on the board, *Figure 17* below).

The command to *remember* (shaded), invokes aspects of *tenor* via her *role relation* of the status that she derives from her *expertise* as a leader of learning (section 4.5.2). It is brought to the fore by the focus on the role of memory in learning. It also implies that their pedagogical role relation is characterised by *frequency of contact*, Carolyn and the students have shared this pedagogic experience before, it is already familiar to them. The request for memory recall also functions interpersonally to appeal to previous shared knowledge and experiences implying that they have an *affiliation* and some level of solidarity as a GCSE history community (Eggins & Slade, 1997).

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[91] *Interpersonal metaphors of mood* are often realised with a question, *Why don't you get up?,* using interrogative mood, instead of a *congruent* direct command *Get up!* using the imperative mood. In SFL terms metaphors of mood create stratal tension between discourse semantics and lexicogrammar. They construe a discourse semantic speech function through an incongruent mood option in grammar.

This excerpt also draws attention to the *pedagogic field* of history that is related to *doing* history (Coffin, 2016) and is concerned with knowledge about language (KAL), i.e. listening, viewing, speaking, reading and writing about history for a range of purposes at different levels of language. Rather than to the content of the course itself, i.e. history - history of Germany - rise of Nazi Germany – anti-Semitic measures – opposition groups - young people. So, school history can be thought of as comprising the dual fields of *historical discourse* which involves the KAL required for *doing* history, and the field of the *content* of the course which is the *object of study*.

Shifts in Carolyn's *lexis*[92] can be used to identify which of these two fields is foregrounded at each stage and constituent phase of the lesson. These two fields are represented in *Figure 16* below as a taxonomy of classifying *lexical relations*.

This understanding of how *lexical relations* can build the *field* of historical discourse enables a closer examination of the pedagogy Carolyn is enacting in this second phase of the lesson. She uses a chain of commonsense lexical items related to KAL (historical discourse): *paragraph, essay question* and *essay*.
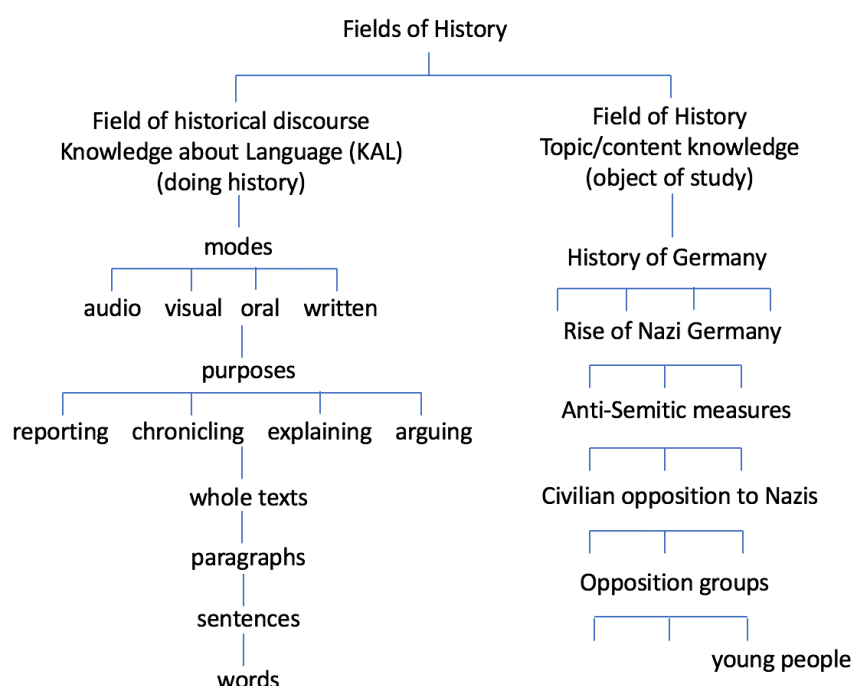
Figure 16 The two *fields* of school history

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[92] *Lexis* includes the words, and relations between words, that construct the field of a text as it unfolds. Lexical words are often known as 'content' words. They represent people, things, processes, places and qualities. Relations between lexical words are known as lexical relations. There are five types of lexical relations, including: repetitions, contrasts, whole-part relations, class-member relations.

The emergence of the field is most clearly visible, however, when the lexical items are combined with their associated actions as activity sequences: *notes - write a paragraph; essay question - write an essay*.

Martin (1992) asserts that by defining fields as sets of activity sequences,[93] distinctive fields often include *predictable series of events* that construe activity in the field resulting in a representation of experience that identifies unfolding events in texts, and from this, the 'institutional purpose' (p. 292) of activity can be interpreted.

So, as pedagogic activity is a *field* of experience composed of recurrent activity sequences, this means that they are to some extent predictable. In other words, these series of events can be expected by the field.

During the *task specification* phase as Carolyn is explicit about the learning task, a relation between the events is expected so each event can just be added simply in the discourse by using the temporal conjunction *and* (Martin & Rose, 2008, p.101). Such an expected relation of addition is termed as *unmarked*:

> Alright?
> And then remember what we're going to do is we're going to look at this essay
> question, okay? (placing hand on the question projected on the board)
> And we're going to start to write this essay together,
> and then you will finish it in pairs
> and then independently on your own.

As each succeeding effect is implied by the preceding cause in what is known as an *implication sequence* in explanation texts (Martin & Rose, 2008, p.102), the field itself predicts the recurring implication sequence of consequence (specifically purpose). Just as the field of a text can be said to predict the activity and implication sequences, the genre will predict the stages and phases of a text. It is likely then, that as a text goes through

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[93] Activity sequences can consist of: 1) taxonomies of actions, people, places, things and qualities ,2) configurations of actions with people, places, things and qualities, 3) activity sequences of these configurations (Martin 1992, p. 292).

different stages and phases to achieve its purpose, it will also be concerned with different activity and implication sequences.

The analysis of *field* building through *lexical relations* in this section, coupled with the examination of the relationship of *tenor* to the teacher *status* role builds a linguistically focused explanation of Carolyn's pedagogy that can be used to compare and account for differing instances of the enacted pedagogy. It shows that as Carolyn focuses her lesson specifically on the pedagogical activity, predicted by the combination of the *field lexis* of *doing history* with expectant addition and implication sequences, she becomes less reliant on her interpersonal role status as a figure of *authority*. Her status of *expertise* instead becomes more prominent as she draws on the relationship built up with the class through *frequency of contact* (remembering) and the *affiliation* she has with her class as a community of learners of history. Her 'burden' of *authority* is somewhat lighter when she engages the potential of the *field* itself to move the discourse more efficiently in the direction of the learning goals. The analysis is thus able to identify her increasing and diminishing use of *authority status* in relation to the nature of her focus on the pedagogic activity throughout the lesson creating a wave-like interpersonal prosody[94] throughout the lesson.

The notions of interpersonal and ideational meaning-making are explored further from the perspective of multimodal meaning-making to capture the *dynamic* aspects of the classroom experience in the following section by examining phase 3 of Stage 1 in Lesson 3, *task deconstruction*.

5.4.3 Multimodal meaning-making

In this section the contribution of other modes of meaning-making, or semiotic systems[95], such as tone of voice and gesture, will be examined to acknowledge the multimodal nature of the curriculum genre and to include some of the more *dynamic* aspects of meaning-making that are not able to be captured just by a *synoptic* analysis of the transcript of the classroom discourse.

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[94] Martin and Rose (2008, p. 59) define a series of choices that resonate with one another as a text unfolds as a "prosody" of attitude that swells and diminishes, in the manner of a musical prosody running through the discourse

[95] *Semiotic systems*: all the different ways in which meanings are made: writing and speech; visual signs and symbols; body language and gestures etc.

Since the beginning of the lesson, Carolyn had been positioned prominently at the front of the classroom between her students' tables in rows and the white-board. She faced the class and on the board behind her the essay question (*Figure 17* below) was projected (see *Table 16*, 5.3.4). From an examination of the transcribed discourse it seems that she signals the beginning of phase 3, *task deconstruction,* just with the *statement*:

> So, this is the essay question...
>
> (placing open hand on the board, indicating and reading)
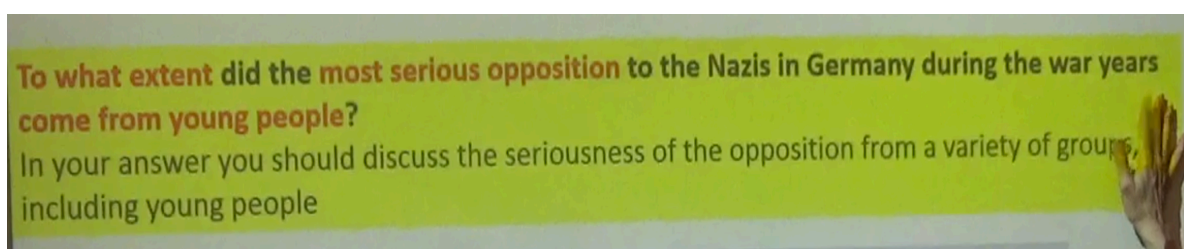
Figure 17 Multimodal *interpersonal metaphor*

The use of a *statement* seems invitational; however, it takes on another meaning when interpreted together with the use of her voice and body language (*Figure 17* above). By simultaneously speaking in a firm clear tone and placing her open hand purposefully on the projection of the question, she is doing more than inviting the students to look at the board, she is *demanding* action, the statement is rendered as a multimodal *interpersonal metaphor* for a *command* which implies an obligation for the students to look at the question.

Her speech function, a *statement*, is in fact incongruent with her body language which renders the statement as a *command* (look and listen!). The *dynamic* aspects of interaction that can alter the meanings being made in the discourse can only be captured by including a consideration of multimodal meaning-making from the film. Her speech function seeks to create *affiliation* and more equality in *status relations* with her adolescent students, conversely her tone of voice and body language reinforce the inherent *unequal status* relations between teacher and student and ultimately render the interaction as more authoritative and typical of the unequal teacher/student role relationship.

In addition to using body language to give more force to her requests for action, Carolyn uses another interpersonal resource associated with the register variable of *tenor* to give more authority to a modulated[96] request in the closing of the *task deconstruction* phase. After orienting her students to the purpose and genre of the target text and asking them to highlight the key information in the essay question, Carolyn says:

> And then in the exam it gives you a hint; it tells you what to do. 'In your answer, you should discuss the seriousness of opposition from a variety of groups, including young people.' *(pointing to the words as she reads them out)*

By mentioning *the exam*, before she reads out the guidance, she implies that the examiners are the source of this command modulated by *should*. This is an example of the use of the *appraisal*[97] technique of *sourcing* a command to someone of higher status to give it more authority and force.

The use of some aspects of multimodal analysis together with the discourse analysis has captured how Carolyn uses her spoken language to create *positive affect*[98] coupled with *affiliation via* the use of *appraisal* to imply greater equality in the teacher/student relationship, while her multimodal signals affirm her *stance of authority and expertise*. The simultaneous use of opposing stances in the different semiotic systems creates an interpersonal prosody of 'semiotic dissonance' in her interactions which is a key pedagogical tool in this opening stage of the lesson. Maintaining this type of 'dissonance' between spoken language and signals from other semiotic systems throughout a lesson, however, requires a great deal of semiotic labour from the teacher, it is almost a 'carrot and stick' approach to classroom interaction.

5.4.4 Semiotic dissonance as a pedagogical tool

This section continues to examine phase 3 of the lesson, *task deconstruction*. After reading and interpreting the essay question (below), Carolyn then uses a polite command (shaded

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[96] *Modulation* is a way for speakers to express judgments or attitudes about actions or events. Between the two poles of *yes* or *no,* compliance or refusal, it enables speakers to express degrees of obligation and inclination.
[97] *Appraisal* is concerned with evaluation – the kinds of attitudes that are negotiated in a text, the strength of the feelings involved and the ways in which values are sourced and readers or listeners are aligned.
[98] ...*affect* covers Halliday's term "degree of emotional charge" in a relationship between participants (Martin, 1992, p. 525).

below) with three choices for compliance; *highlighting*, *underlining* or *circling* the *key words:*

> So, this is the essay question *(placing hand on the question projected on the board and reading it out)* 'To what extent did the most serious opposition to the Nazis in Germany during the war years come from young people?'

> So, it's asking you, sort of like a discussion-evaluation essay – it's asking you to make a judgement.

> I've highlighted in red the key wording in the question (pointing to the words in the question written in red in *Figure 17* above).

> Please highlight it on your own copy if you wish, or underline it, *(making underlining gesture with hand under words on the board)* or circle it, *(making circling motion with hand)* so you can see that they are the key words: 'To what extent', 'most serious opposition', 'come from young people'. *(placing hand on the board under each word group while reading)*.

While she stresses the command in the discourse by re-reading the key words, it is her use of a firm tone of voice and body language, underlining with her hand on the board, circling in the air and placing her hand on the board under the word groups that once again give more force to the initially polite command. It is effectively rendered as a direct command which is not evident in the analysis of the discourse alone. The *affiliation* created by using *please* and *if you wish* is altered as the voice and body language operate to assert Carolyn's *authority status* to create 'semiotic dissonance' which is in fact her key teaching tool in this phase.

Importantly, from the point of view of pedagogy, in the stretch of discourse above, Carolyn has used the underlining procedure that is a feature of the *Reading to Learn* pedagogy to enact her previous teaching practices and the semiotic dissonance she created was the main tool she used to *tell* her students what to underline in the manner of 'transmission pedagogy'.

Teacher guided underlining of word groups is the procedure used in R2L to enable students to identify meaning as it unfolds in a sentence during *detailed reading*. However, to enact *detailed reading* of the question above, Carolyn could have used the three-part R2L interaction cycle[99] that is designed for this purpose. Firstly, she would *prepare* students to read the question using a commonsense paraphrase of the meaning before reading it aloud; secondly, she would use meaning cues to guide students to *identify* key meanings in each word group which they would highlight; and finally, she would *elaborate* the meanings of each word group in the question either by giving information or asking students questions.

However, in the instance above, she used the *idea* of the highlighting procedure from R2L to pre-highlight the keywords for the students and then simply asked them to do the same after reading the key words aloud. She did not use the R2L pedagogy to specifically link the purpose she identified for the target text - *to make a judgement* - to the wording in the question - *to what extent* and *most serious opposition* - students were left to infer that for themselves. This omission would have consequences for the later writing stage of the lesson (in section 5.5.6) that considers the role of *nominalisation* in historical discourse.

The results of the analysis of the selected phases of the *preparing for reading* stage of the lesson are discussed in the next section before being compared with the analysis of the second stage of the lesson, *detailed reading*.

5.4.5 Interpretation of the analysis of *preparing for reading*

By identifying and explaining different semiotic features in Carolyn's classroom interaction, this section has highlighted the interpersonal nature of classroom teaching. The analysis has revealed highly intricate patterns of multi-semiotic interaction that are indicative of the prevailing classroom strategies she routinely used. With regard to research Question 1, Carolyn's use of 'semiotic dissonance' as a pedagogical tool has emerged as a key factor influencing her uptake of the new R2L pedagogy.

So, in terms of the impact of the PL on classroom practice (research Question 2), the simultaneous use of the opposing stances of *affiliation* with students in the discourse while

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[99] The R2L interaction pattern for detailed reading consists of a three-part cycle of: *prepare - task - elaborate*

invoking her *authority* status in the use of the semiotic systems of voice and body language led to the new pedagogy being eclipsed by previous practice in the third phase of the lesson (section 5.4.4). In terms of the *BES framework,* the *task deconstruction* phase of the lesson saw the teacher respond to the R2L pedagogy by 'continuing with prior practice, believing that it is new practice' (Timperley et al., 2007, p.14).

In terms of the enactment of the R2L curriculum genre however, the examination of the *lexical relations* that constitute the two *fields* of history in the classroom discourse (section 5.4.2) reveal how the enacted curriculum genre in Lesson 3 (*Table 17* above) makes meaning both discretely and in conjunction with its role in the overall three-lesson *macrogenre* (*Tables 15 & 16* above). The learning focuses on two *fields* of interwoven knowledge that are alternatively made visible in Lessons 2 and 3, in order to be rewoven in the *joint construction* stage of Lesson 3 to make new and more abstract meanings in an *argument* guided by the model of the two fields from a text based on Lesson 1 (in section 5.5).

So, it is evident that the planning (*Tables 15 & 16 above*) and the enactment (*Table 17 above*) of the curriculum genre (Lesson 3) were motivated by the new knowledge about language. The new understandings about *genre* caused Carolyn to focus on the differences between the reading and writing texts that led her to plan Lesson 3 as part of a *curriculum macrogenre* to specifically focus on modelling the *argument* genre. Therefore, her response to the overall planning and enactment of the curriculum genre as part of the *macrogenre* could be seen as 'actively engaging with, owning, and applying new theory and practice to change practice substantively' (Timperley et al, 2007, p. 14). Notwithstanding, there is considerable variation in her response to the new PL at the phase level of the curriculum genre. This indicates that the process of determining a teacher's uptake of the PL can be highly variable just within one instance of a curriculum genre.

In terms of her perceptions of the PL and its influence on her practice (Question 3), Carolyn perceived a difference in the *preparing for reading* phase of the new PL compared to her previous practice (see Appendix X for appraisal analysis of interview excerpts):

> It's quite different, in the sense that, you know, you're introducing the text, the *preparing for reading*, so the beginnings of lessons were different, because often I'd have, at the beginning of the lesson, something up on the whiteboard for them

to think about, to discuss, to share, and then I'd give a bit of an introduction. So, quite often, it would be a while before they actually got down to doing anything or reading the text (Carolyn, July 2016).

So, while the influence of her previous experience as a teacher is still evident in her pedagogy during the *task deconstruction* phase, there has been a change in her pedagogy influenced by the PL. The linguistic choices in her discourse reveal that she has prepared and enacted the phase to focus quite specifically on the *purpose* and *genre* of the argument text that is required by the essay question, even though she omitted to use the *detailed reading* strategy from the 'new' pedagogy at this point to read the essay question with her students.

Her understandings of genre are being employed as a tool to weave together the fields of history and historical discourse and as such she consciously continues along a 'linguistically informed pathway' (Coffin 2006, p. 92) guided by the KAL. The structure of her enacted *curriculum genre*, operating within a *macrogenre*, enables the examination of phases of teaching in an effort to map the variations using the *BES* teacher response framework provided by the Timperley et al. (2007) PL meta-research as a guide.

The next section focuses on the second stage of the lesson *detailed reading* when Carolyn uses the R2L discourse pattern to enable the congruent use of her spoken discourse with her voice and body language as a pedagogic tool for 'engaging' her learners.

5.4.6 Enacting *detailed reading:* semiotic assonance

According to Carolyn's lesson plan for Stage 2 of Lesson 3, *detailed reading* (*Table 16* section 5.3.4), she would lead the reading of a key paragraph of a model argument essay that she had written for her students on a topic from Lesson 1: *Were the restrictions placed on employment the worst problem faced by Jews in Germany in the years 1933-38?* Her focus would be on the structural and the linguistic features of the *argument genre* as the class would later write an argument in a new *field* on the topic of youth opposition to the Nazis, using notes taken from the textbook in the previous lesson (Lesson 2, *Table 15*, section 5.3.4).

Carolyn concluded the *preparing for reading* stage that focused on structure in the second *task deconstruction* phase (phase 4, *Table 16*, section 5.3.4) by explaining to her students how the reading text was a model of an argument, drawing students attention to its *purpose*, *stages* and *phases* (not shown here in the data analysis). During her explanation, she only needed to refer briefly to the topic of the model text as during the first lesson of the three-lesson *macrogenre (Table 15,* section 5.3.2) the class had done *detailed reading, note-taking* and written their own argument texts on this topic. Then in the final phase of *preparing for reading*, she read the model argument paragraph aloud to the class before commencing the *detailed reading*.

Table 18 (below) provides an example of a *detailed reading* interaction cycle from Lesson 3 (see also Appendix XI). The table shows each of the *moves* as *exchanges* of information between primary and secondary 'knowers' (*K1* and *K2*), in the first right-hand column (section 4.5.2). The second right-hand column identifies the R2L cycle phases and the final column shows *what* the interaction is about (as explained in section 4.5.2).

Table 18 Detailed reading interaction pattern

Speaker	Lesson 3, Stage 2, *Detailed reading* interaction	role	phase	matter
Teacher	In the next sentence, there's a short phrase here.	K1	prepare	wording
	Which phrase introduces our analysis point?	dK1	focus	argument
	Which phrase or set of words tells us that we're going to make an analysis comment?			
	What do you think it is, Flo?			
Student	This was a problem	K2	identify	wording
Teacher	This was a problem	K1	affirm	
Teacher	One more word?	dK1	focus	word
Student	because	K2	identify	
Teacher	because	K1	affirm	
	We know that we're going to give a reason here.		elaborate	argument
	So, we're going to underline or highlight those four words – 'this was a problem because' –	A2	direct	highlight
T& Ss	(teacher and students simultaneously highlight the wording)	A1		

The interaction pattern supports the role of instructional discourse in the classroom by repeatedly using the cycle phases of *prepare- focus - identify – affirm - elaborate* which set up an important *expectancy* relationship in the interaction that helps to lift the 'burden' of *authority* from the teacher and enable the coupling of different semiotic resources in the service of meaning-making.

The *prepare* and *focus* phases of the exchange complex tell the students what the wording is about so they can expect what comes next. In the excerpt above, in the *focus* phase, Carolyn oriented her students to the role of the wording using the term *analysis* from 'her own' metalanguage - *a phrase or set of words that tells us we're going to make an analysis comment* – so that all students can then identify the wording.

The student in the excerpt above did not initially provide the word - *because* - which was key to explaining *why*, so Carolyn had to provide an additional preparation cue for the student to identify *one more word*. The student was then *affirmed* by the repetition of - *because* -, which is the important link in reasoning that connects the everyday word - *because* - to its key role in introducing an analysis comment in the argument. Carolyn then elaborated, linking *because* to its role in providing a reason. Carolyn and the students then highlighted the wording together as she gave the command as shown in the image below (*Figure 18*). There was congruence between the oral discourse and the multimodal signals.
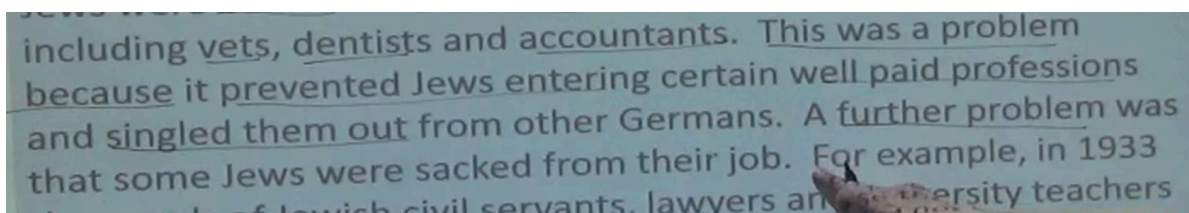
Figure 18 Teacher-led highlighting during *detailed reading*

As the lesson progressed, Carolyn had no further need to direct the students to highlight with a verbal command, instead she just used her body language to highlight and the students did the same. The *expectancy* relationships set up by the R2L interaction cycle, together with the consequent focus on the instructional discourse with its *implication sequence* of cause and effect, combined to predict both the pedagogy and the unfolding of the field in the text. This alleviated the need for Carolyn to constantly seek to create *affiliation* in order to gain cooperation and then use other semiotic resources incongruently to simultaneously assert *authority* to ensure compliance. The use of the R2L interaction

cycle enabled her to give the directive to highlight or underline without a need for a mitigated request as it was coupled with her own highlighting which formed part of a congruent coupling of semiotic resources that created positive *affect* in the classroom. This can be described as a prosody of 'semiotic assonance', where all of the modes of communication are aligned and directed towards reading the text, in Bernstein's terms, the instructional discourse.

The excerpt above exemplifies how Carolyn used her semiotic resources in a different way during *detailed reading* and 'liberated' herself from the moment-by-moment interpersonal balancing between *affiliation* and the inherent inequitable *authority status* relationship (sections 5.4.3 and 5.4.4) via the use of the R2L discourse pattern during *detailed reading*. Her spoken discourse together with her tone of voice and body language worked synergistically to create a prosody of 'assonance'.

In relation to research Question 2, the next section focuses on the impact on Carolyn's practice of the coupling of semiotic resources via the use of the R2L discourse pattern, in comparison to the 'semiotic dissonance' identified in the earlier sections of this episode during *preparing for reading*. Carolyn's perceptions of the impact of the reading pedagogy from the PL on her classroom practice (research Question 3) are also considered.

5.4.7 Semiotic assonance experienced as engagement in learning

While Carolyn was not conscious of the process of 'semiotic assonance' during *detailed reading* in the technical sense described above, like many teachers in previous *Reading to Learn* PL projects (section, 3.7.2), she intuitively experienced the *affiliation* and positive *affect* it created as 'engagement' in the text as indicated in her post programme interview:

> Doing the detailed reading was really very, very effective, I think, because, you know, getting them to identify the words in the text kept them engaged in it. Whereas, before, when you've been explaining what a text means, those difficult words or concepts, it tends to be very one-way. (July 2016)

In terms of research Question 3, her perception that *detailed reading* 'engaged' the students is supported by the evidence from classroom interactions. The impact on her practice in response to research Question 2 is evident in the filmed lesson, she effectively

used the R2L discourse pattern to guide the reading of the model *argument* paragraph explaining the patterned way that each sentence contributed to supporting and evaluating the argument with appropriate evidence from the source text. Her students actively participated in the reading by following her verbal cues to identify key information and after affirmation, underlining the wordings in response to her direct commands coupled with her use of body language by underlining on the board. As she continued, the students simply followed her body language as the cue to underline without further verbal prompting. In terms of the *BES framework* during detailed reading she was 'implementing the pedagogy as required' (Timperley, et al., 2007, p.14).

In terms of research Question 3, her description of her previous reading pedagogy (above) as being *explaining* and *one-way* indicates that it had been aligned to transmission style pedagogy, so she was conscious of a difference with detailed reading although she did not articulate the difference in theoretical terms in her interview, other than it was *effective* and kept students 'engaged' in the text.

Previous action research projects into the effect of R2L pedagogy on student achievement have interpreted teacher reports of 'engagement' in *detailed reading* from the perspective of student learning (Culican, 2005; Acevedo, 2010; Whittaker & Acevedo, 2016) as Carolyn has done in her interview comment above. This study, however, is focused on teacher learning, so when the 'engagement effect' is viewed from the teacher perspective, a significant new dimension of this notion is brought into focus through the identification of the teacher's experience of a 'prosody of semiotic assonance' (above).

The data analysis demonstrated how the 'one-way' transmission pedagogy involved a great deal of semiotic labour for Carolyn as she balanced *affiliation* and *authority* through 'semiotic dissonance' (section 5.4.3). Whereas her use of the R2L discourse pattern set up a cycle of *expectancy* that lifted the 'burden of authority' and freed her from the 'semiotic balancing act' to focus on the instructional discourse through the coupling of semiotic resources. So, the use of the term 'engagement' in detailed reading can be viewed not only as a student response to the use of the R2L discourse pattern but as the teacher's reciprocal perception of *affective involvement* (Eggins & Slade, 1997) with the students through the instructional discourse.

The final section in this episode evaluates the overall impact of the focus on reading in the PL in terms of the evidence from Carolyn's classroom practice (research Question 2) compared to her perceptions about the influence of the PL on her practice (research Question 3).

5.4.8 Teacher perceptions vs evidence of the impact of reading

Data about Carolyn's *perceptions* of the influence of *reading* from the PL on her classroom practice in response to research Question 3 is provided by responses from the post- programme interview. The perception data is compared with data from the three learning episodes analysed thus far (sections 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4) that respond to research Question 2 in order to determine to what extent her perceptions are upheld in practice. This provides an indication of her level of consciousness about her own learning.

The comparative analysis of the two sets of data from research Questions 2 and 3 is guided by the use of the *BES framework* of typical teacher responses to PL (section 3.6) (Timperley et al., 2007). This framework indicates that there can be a mismatch between teachers' *actual enactment* of a new pedagogy and their *perception* of the enactment.

The focus on *reading* for learning in the R2L teacher PL impacted cumulatively on Carolyn's practice in a number of significant ways. The analysis of classroom data in this episode is the culmination of the prior learning about genre from the PL which she applied to her own reading and preparation of curriculum texts in episode one. This knowledge was then built on to plan a pedagogical sequence in episode two, for the eventual classroom teaching of reading demonstrated in this episode.

In terms of research Question 3, concerning her perceptions about the influence of the PL on planning, Carolyn expressed her views about several changes in her KAL and practices around reading that she perceived had resulted from the PL. Firstly, in her post programme interview, she commented on a change in the way she selected texts and made models for reading and guiding student writing:

> It [the PL] did also make me think much more carefully about the language I was
> using in the classroom…it made me far more aware when I was selecting text and

reading text and making my own models for them about my own use of language (Carolyn, July 13, 2016).

Her perception that the PL enhanced her ability to reflect on her use of language is an indication of heightened metalinguistic awareness. This perception is in evidence in her practice in the previous learning episodes in terms of text selection and preparation in learning episode one (section 5.2), and in episode two as she selected and prepared texts as part of her lesson planning for each of the three lessons in the *macrogenre* (section 5.3). It is evident also in this episode in her writing of a model argument text for detailed reading (*Figure 18*, section 5.4.6) and in her careful use of language in classroom interactions during the detailed reading of the model text (*Table 18*, section 5.4.6).

Secondly, she commented on the impact she perceived that the focus on reading in the PL had on her own reading of curriculum texts in preparation for classroom teaching:

> It also forced me to be more familiar with a text before I used it with them. You know, sometimes when you're a bit late… Oh, you just pick it up, and you don't really engage with it in enough detail to make the most of it in the classroom (Carolyn, July 13, 2016).

This statement provides evidence of how Carolyn perceived that she was able to make better use of curriculum texts in the classroom if she read them thoroughly as part of lesson preparation, compared to her previous practice of a more cursory, content focused, reading of the texts. This perceived improvement in classroom effectiveness provided the purposeful impetus that she expressed as having 'forced' her to use her new KAL from the PL to understand her texts more fully. The implication is that, as a conscientious teacher, once she had experienced the difference, she felt 'obliged' by her *affective involvement* (Eggins & Slade, 1997, p. 52) with her students (see section 4.5.2) to continue to *make the most* of her texts in the classroom by applying her heightened linguistic awareness to reading.

The data from the first two learning episodes on genre identification and lesson planning demonstrated how the understanding of *purpose* and *genre* from the PL enabled her to read her texts, not just in terms of their content and relevance to a teaching topic, but to also identify what the texts were *doing*, so she understood their purpose, genre and some key

structural and linguistic features which she then incorporated into her planning (section 5.3.4). The episode focusing on reading here, demonstrates how she ultimately incorporated this knowledge into the *detailed reading* stage of her lesson. So, the classroom data upholds that the new theoretical knowledge about language (KAL) had an impact on her lesson preparation, planning and her enactment of the reading pedagogy in the classroom.

Thirdly, Carolyn perceived that she had gained specific KAL in relation to genre that she evaluated positively:

> It was very helpful being able to identify exactly what kind of genre of text it was we were looking at as a class, or that I was asking them to write, because that enabled us to structure responses and models much more effectively… So, being able to, sort of, take the models and use the labels and the patterns in the text to be able to structure those models really helped (Carolyn, July 13, 2016).

Her perception is that she had acquired KAL that enabled her not only to - *identify genres* – but also - *to structure models and responses* - and - *to use the labels and the patterns in the text*. The indication is that she perceives that she is able to analyse the structure of the genres she is able to identify and that she uses this knowledge as part of the pedagogy with her students. Her reference to *labels* implies that she is using structural metalanguage as part of the pedagogy. The analysis of Phase 3, *task deconstruction* (section 5.4.4), where she interprets the purpose of the essay question for the class using the metalanguage of *evaluation* provides evidence of this ability in her practice. Her use of labels to identify the patterns in model texts is also in evidence in this episode in *Figure 19*, section 5.5.1 (below) which shows her model for the structure of the argument essay.

A further point Carolyn made in her interview concerns her perception about a significant difference between her old and new practices with regard to the use of reading as a resource for learning:

> [the PL] had a big effect, because, as I say, choosing the text, it made me less afraid of using complex texts, because what I used to do was I'd dumb it down or, you know, I'd simplify it, or just use little sections of a textbook. But, actually, it made

me much more confident in using, you know, the text as it stood on the page (Carolyn, July 13, 2016).

The use of the terms 'dumb down' and 'simplify' in juxtaposition to 'the text as it stood on the page', indicates that the she perceived her ability to use complex texts as positive. The inference of her perception of developing *confidence* in selecting more complex texts is that it was beneficial to her classroom teaching. The evidence from her three-lesson R2L curriculum *macrogenre*, confirms that she guided her students to read and take notes directly from texts in the coursebooks. While she wrote a model argument essay herself for students to read in Lesson 3, it was to compensate for the lack of models in the coursebook. The model text was written to examination standard, it was not a simplified version of an *argument* essay. This provides evidence to confirm her perception about having developed confidence to use more complex texts, based on her knowledge of genre.

In terms of the R2L *curriculum genre*, Carolyn perceived that it had influenced how she began her lessons. She stated (in section 5.4.5) that the beginnings were 'different' and in that she was now able to 'introduce the text far more quickly into the lesson'. She compared this to her previous practices of having 'something up on the whiteboard for them to think about, to discuss, to share' which meant that students did not 'do anything or read a text for some time' (Carolyn, July 13, 2016).

Her perception was that *preparing for reading* had effected a positive change on the lead-in for her lessons. This can be interpreted as a shift from both her previous constructivist style of introduction (section 2.2.5) with a visual stimulus for discussion, and her transmission style 'mini-lecture' introduction (section 2.2.2). Nonetheless, she merely comments that the R2L approach was 'different', without reference to it being a scaffolding pedagogy that modelled learning from reading as it had been described in the PL workshops. She further alluded to her previous use of transmission style pedagogy by stating that the use of the new reading pedagogy had 'also cut down [her] teacher talk at the beginning of the lesson' (Carolyn, July 13, 2016). She evaluated all the above-mentioned changes positively by saying:

> That was the beauty of it, actually. I didn't have to do 'death by PowerPoint' or produce a worksheet or anything. It was simply, What text am I using? Let's copy

it, give them all a highlighter, boom.... They were very enthusiastic' (July 13, 2016).

Her comments reflect her comparison with previous pedagogies and provide an example of the *dissonance* she experienced between the new and the old reading practices. While her perceptions are upheld in the examples from her practice and thus provide evidence of the impact of the PL in response to research Question 2, her comments lack a theoretical interpretation of the different approaches to teaching and learning that the practices reflect. According to the meta-research into PL (Timperley et al., 2007), this puts the effectiveness of the PL process at risk. The meta-research findings assert that unless the tacit theories and routines, based on unarticulated beliefs and values, that teachers often adhere to are brought to consciousness and re-examined, teacher learning can be compromised (section 3.6).

In summary, the analysis of the data presented in all three learning episodes from text preparation, lesson planning and classroom interactions around reading provide evidence to support Carolyn's perceptions about the impact of the KAL and reading pedagogy on her practice. The evidence of the impact of the PL on her learning in answer to research Question 2, for the most part, supports her perceptions about changes in her practice in answer to research Question 3, thus indicating that she is conscious of much of her own learning in terms of classroom practice. The SFL metalanguage Carolyn used to talk about her text analysis and lesson preparation, particularly with regard to genre, reflected her development in theoretical understandings about language from an SFL perspective. However, while her use of the new scaffolding pedagogy informed her planning and was reflected substantially in her enactment of the classroom pedagogy, her understanding of the different pedagogical theories she was enacting remained tacit or 'below the level of consciousness'.

Therefore, in order to relate the impact of the SFL-based reading pedagogy on Carolyn's learning in terms of the *BES framework* (Timperley et al., 2007), the issues of KAL and pedagogy need to be treated separately. The *BES framework* combines the effects of theory and practice in the teacher response to PL that concerns 'substantive changes in practice', so to interpret Carolyn's data, these two elements will also be examined separately. The analysis of data on Carolyn's use of *KAL* in relation to genre has shown that it impacted significantly on her preparation of texts, lesson planning and classroom implementation of

the new reading pedagogy (outlined above). This provides evidence that she was 'actively engaging with, owning, and applying [both] new theory and practice to change practice substantively' (Timperley et al, 2007, p. 14).

In terms of *pedagogy,* however, in the absence of evidence concerning theoretical understandings, she would be seen to be 'implementing the new pedagogy as required' (Timperley et al, 2007, p. 14) in the *detailed reading* stage of the lesson without the 'active engagement of theory'. Although she experienced dissonance between the new and old pedagogies, her theoretical understanding about the differences remained tacit. Her perceptions of the differences were based on practice. This 'risk' factor could explain why in phase 3 of the lesson, *task deconstruction*, (section 5.4.4) she unconsciously used her previous transmission style of pedagogy to read the essay question. This suggests that she perceived *detailed reading* only as a *stage* in the R2L pedagogy sequence, rather than a generalised way to 'scaffold' student reading at any moment in a lesson.

In the next section, episode four examines the data from the final teaching stage of Lesson 3 that focuses on writing. It shows how Carolyn draws on her previous tacit teaching practices to support the implementation of the new pedagogy but also highlights a mismatch between her perception of her KAL and the evidence of her use of this knowledge in her classroom practice.

5.5 Teacher learning episode 4: *argument* writing in the history classroom

The possibility of improvement in student writing was a key factor that motivated Carolyn's participation in the PL (section 5.2.1) and this final learning episode examines how she prepares and enacts the teacher-led, whole-class writing strategy, *joint construction*. This stage of Lesson 3 is the culmination of the three-lesson *macrogenre* she designed specifically to model writing in the unfamiliar *argument* genre which is highly valued in GCSE course work and examinations.

The data for analysis in this episode is from the final stages of classroom teaching in Lesson 3, *preparing for writing* (or *bridging*) and *joint construction* as shown in *Table 17* (section 5.4.1). The tools of both SFL discourse analysis and multimodal analysis are used to examine how Carolyn shifts from the R2L discourse pattern, used during *detailed reading*, to the traditional I-R-F discourse pattern (section 2.6.1) to enact *joint construction*

in the final teaching stage of the lesson. Her enactment of *joint construction* is analysed comparatively with research into this strategy undertaken in classrooms in the tertiary sector (Dreyfus, et al., 2011; Macnaught, 2015) which adds a measure of external validity to my findings.

The analysis of this episode provides further evidence of contextual factors that impact on Carolyn's uptake of the PL in response to research Question 1. The impact of the writing pedagogy from the PL on her classroom interactions, in response to research Question 2, is highlighted by a comparison of her practice with the findings from previous research undertaken on *joint construction* in tertiary classrooms (Dreyfus, et al., 2011; Macnaught, 2015). Carolyn's perceptions of her learning are probed in relation to the issue of metalanguage in response to research Question 3 as this issue became salient in the enactment of this stage of the pedagogy. The evidence in response to each of the research questions is in turn interpreted in relation to the *Timperley framework* (2007) for teacher response to PL, thus providing criteria for gauging the teacher uptake of the PL.

The next section examines how Carolyn prepares her students for the culminating writing stage of the lesson.

5.5.1 The *bridging stage*:[100] from *detailed reading* to *joint construction*

To move from the reading to the writing stage of the lesson, Carolyn enacts a transition *stage* that is called *preparing for writing* in the R2L curriculum genre, as shown below in the excerpt from *Table 17,* (section 5.4.1) displayed below as *Table 19.*

Table 19 Stages and *phases* of Carolyn's *Joint construction* (cf. Dreyfus et al., 2011)

Preparing for writing/ Bridging	**1. Recap of structure,** labelling structure of model paragraph
	2. Recap of field (content), teacher-led revision questioning
Joint construction/ Text negotiation	Joint class writing of the main paragraph of an *argument* text using notes taken from reading an *account* of the topic in previous lesson.
	1. Create, teacher and students propose and write sentences on board

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[100] In the *Reading to Learn* pedagogy this stage is referred to as *preparing for writing.*

	2. Reflect, sentences are discussed and reconsidered
	3. Edit, changes are made to the scribed sentences

Carolyn's *bridging* stage consisted of two phases (*Table 19* above) that recapped the two fields of history (*Figure16*, section 5.4.2), *historical discourse* and the *field* or topic of study. The topic for the essay writing from the *field* of history- opposition to the Nazi regime - had been the focus of reading and note-taking in Lesson 2 (*Table 16*, section 5.3.4) and *historical discourse* was the focus of the *detailed reading* of a model argument paragraph earlier in Lesson 3 (section 5.4.6). These two fields would now be interwoven in the process of writing a new text.

To focus the first *recap* phase on the discourse of *argument*, Carolyn had annotated and colour-coded the structural features of the model paragraph that she had emphasised in her *elaborations* during the *detailed reading* stage of the lesson (section 5.4.6). She then summarised the paragraph structure orally while referring to each feature in turn with strong hand signals as illustrated in *Figure 19* (below).
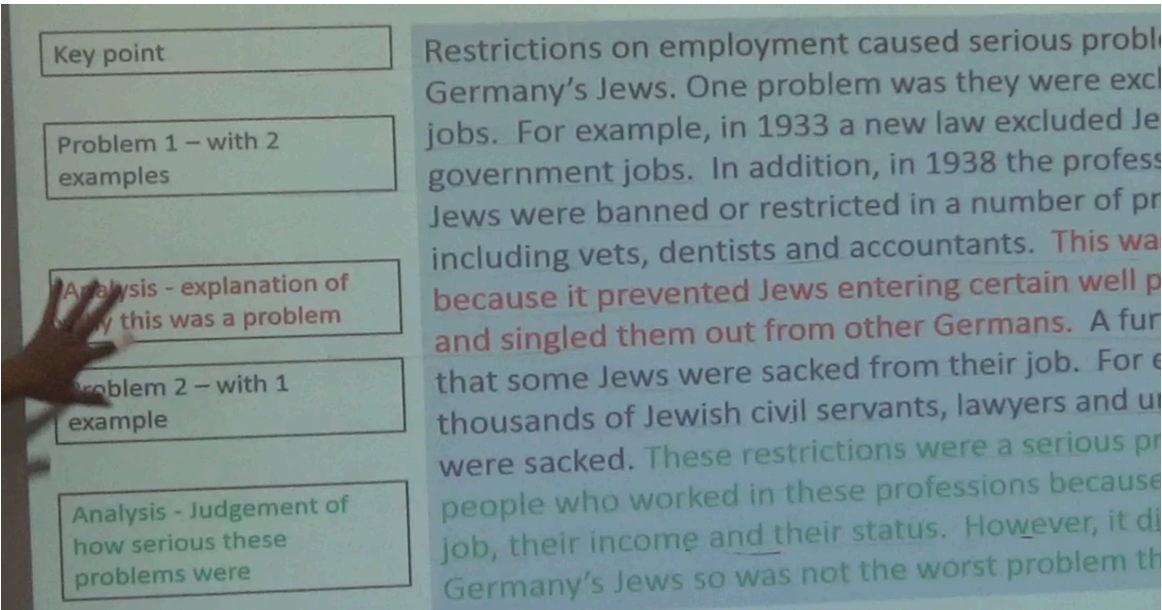
Figure 19 Structure for the new paragraph

Her structural *recap* emphasised the metalanguage they would use to write the new text which would have a similar structure to the model text but a different *field*:

Can you see I've left you a box down the left-hand side? What you can do is you can write down the various elements, or the structure, of this answer in the box by the side where I've written it, like this (*pointing to the boxes on the left-hand side of the projected text*). So, at the side, you can write 'key point' at the top there (*pointing*).

…. So, this is the structure of how our paragraph unfolds…

And then we've got two really nice meaty sentences at the end in green that are analysis sentences (*pointing*). It gives us a clear judgement about how serious a problem. It says, 'this was a serious problem', it gives us reasons. But then it introduces a counter argument with a 'however'. Okay?

The following section discusses this first *recap* phase in relation to the impact of the PL on classroom practice (research Question 2) in comparison to the findings from research into the *bridging* stage from tertiary classrooms (Dreyfus et al., 2011) and the *BES framework* of teacher responses to PL (Timperley et al., 2007).

5.5.2 *Authority* and *expertise* as pedagogic tools

The annotation of the model paragraph (*Figure 19* above) shows that the PL had enabled Carolyn to analyse what the text is *doing*, its *purpose,* and to make this knowledge about language visible for her students. This upholds her perception that the new KAL has enabled her to 'use the labels and the patterns in the text to be able to structure models' and that this 'really helped' (section 5.4.8).

To share this new KAL with her students, Carolyn returns to her practice of using 'semiotic dissonance' (section 5.4.3) to interact with the students in this first *recap* phase of the *bridging* stage. While she tries to create more equality in the teacher-student relationship in the monologue above by using a *modulated question,* 'Can you see?', and repeating the metaphorical *command* 'you can write down', her tone of voice and repeated use of strong clear hand signals (illustrated in *Figure 19* above) simultaneously render the invitational discourse as directive.

Figure 20 Notes with *field* information for *joint construction*

She continues by asking her students to take out their notes which were recorded in tabular form during *detailed reading* in the previous lesson (*Figure 20* above): 'Now, you need your table on opposition from young people out in front of you…' Again, she uses her body language to make the modulated request a directive by prominently holding up a copy of the required page in full view of the class and pulsating it in the air for emphasis. The notes in the table provide the new *field* for the text to be jointly constructed on the topic of opposition to the Nazis from within Germany.

Therefore, in a similar fashion to the *preparing for reading* stage, Carolyn is monologic and directive during the first *recap* phase of the *bridging* stage which is in keeping with the findings from the tertiary research for this stage of the pedagogy. The tertiary classroom research reports that during this stage the exchanges reflect a high level of teacher control with most exchanges being initiated by the teacher for the following reason:

> This is because before the process of text creation can begin, the teacher and students need to come to a place of shared understanding about both the content and the structure of the text they are about to write, and the teacher needs to lead the way in this process (Dreyfus et al., 2011, p. 147).

Carolyn's efforts to create a more equal status with the students is also congruent with the research from the tertiary classrooms on *joint construction*. The researchers found that

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during this stage, teachers try to 'background the "mustness" of the command to minimize the [teacher-student] power difference' (Dreyfus et al., 2011, p.147).

So, Carolyn's authoritative stance as well as her use of semiotic dissonance to minimise the unequal teacher-student relationship can be seen as 'typical' of the enactment of this phase of the pedagogy. In terms of the *BES* framework she was 'implementing the pedagogy as required' (Timperley et al., 2007, p.14).

The next section continues the discussion of the analysis of the first *recap* phase in response to research Question 2 concerning impact on practice, with reference to the uptake of the SFL metalanguage and Carolyn's response in terms of the *BES framework* (Timperley et al., 2007).

5.5.3 The use of *metalanguage*

A significant issue regarding the impact of the PL on her practice (research Question 2) that became salient during this phase of the *bridging* stage of the lesson was Carolyn's use of metalanguage. She *bridged* from the *detailed reading* of the model text to *preparing for writing* by *recapping* for the students *how* the model text makes meaning through the use of her 'own' metalanguage: *key point, problem, analysis* and *judgement* together with the metalanguage from the PL: *explanation* and *argument* to focus students on the structural elements of the text that had been elaborated during *detailed reading*.

The role of metalanguage in learning is a topic of interest to educational linguists working in the SFL tradition (e.g. Macken-Horarik, Love & Unsworth, 2011; Gebhard et al., 2013; Schleppegrell, 2013; Hipkiss & Andersson Varga, 2018; Rose, 2019). While there is a general consensus in this field that explicit pedagogy requires the use of metalanguage, there is less agreement about what actually constitutes metalanguage or how much is useful in different teaching contexts.

In R2L much of the SFL metalanguage has been recontextualised[101] (Rose, 2019) for the PL and for classroom pedagogy. Nonetheless, in the R2L PL, metalanguage is employed to

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[101] 'The design of pedagogic metalanguage is informed by SFL descriptions of language and learning in social contexts, but is deliberately recontextualised, from the context of linguistic and educational research to the contexts of classroom

talk about genre and language at all levels of the functional model of language. At the whole-text level R2L uses metalanguage for identifying the *purpose* and *genre* of texts, at the paragraph level it is used to identify *phases* of meaning, at the sentence level metalanguage is used to identify patterns in grammar (*Figure 7*, section 4.4.5). Additionally, the PL introduces teachers to a metalanguage related to the classroom pedagogy, or the curriculum genre to name the steps in the pedagogy (*Figure 4*, section 2.7). While the use of the metalanguage from the PL is recommended for use in the classroom, it is not uncommon for some teachers to express doubts about the efficacy of such an approach.

The data from the school visits and the classroom interactions demonstrate how Carolyn used metalanguage from the PL to talk about the purpose of texts, to name genres (section 5.2), to identify the structural features of texts and to talk about parts of the pedagogy (section 5.3 and 5.4). However, she also mixed it with her 'own' metalanguage (above). What she termed her 'own' metalanguage was derived from commonsense ways of talking about language, texts and pedagogy as well as terminology from the GCSE course e.g. *analysis* and *judgement*.

In her interview Carolyn expressed uncertainty when responding to questions about metalanguage (research Question 3). She was not familiar with the concept in a technical sense, preferring to talk about it as 'terminology' and 'labels'. She was not entirely conscious of her use of it in the classroom as her interview reveals:

> No, I'm not sure the terminology is that important. … I mean, I'd probably use my own labelling, more than anything...

> It is useful to use the genre, you know, the different genre families, I suppose. Say, *'This is a description text, this is an explanation text.'*

> … So, I guess, yes, I did incorporate the terminology. Yes, I did actually, because when we looked at the Black Death [in Year 8], it was phase one, phase two, phase

three, so I suppose we did use that terminology. Yes. So, I guess it does give them that structure, doesn't it? Yes. (Carolyn, July 2016).

The interview responses are in keeping with the evidence of her use of metalanguage in the classroom, she uses a combination of the 'new' terminology with her 'own labelling'. So, while Carolyn sees that some metalanguage is useful, she seems to have a preference for 'her own' unless it refers to previously invisible concepts such as *genre* that she would be unable to discuss without the metalanguage from the PL. In terms of the *BES framework* (Timperley et al., 2007) this partial adoption of the metalanguage from the PL could be interpreted as 'selecting parts of new theory and practice and adapting it to current practice' (p. 14).

The role of contextual factors (research Question 1) are likely to have influenced Carolyn's perception that metalanguage is not important. In research into teacher education in the US, Gebhard et al. (2013) assert that 'prevailing ... approaches to writing instruction have actively discouraged teachers and teacher educators from developing a metalanguage for literacy instruction' (p. 123). They also point to reasons for the lack of uptake of metalanguage in their context being 'because SFL metalanguage is complex and does require sustained support in learning how to use it' (2013, p. 123). So, Carolyn's limited uptake of metalanguage from the PL may also have been influenced by its nature and a lack of time for learning. Research in the USA cites a 14-week teacher education course as sufficient time to develop and use SFL metalanguage to design lesson sequences (Gebhard et al., 2013, p. 123). Thus, in comparison, Carolyn's five days of workshops and four mentoring visits at school were not likely to have provided sufficient time to enable a substantial development in her understanding and use of metalanguage from the PL.

The next section analyses the second *recap* phase that focuses on the *field* of the new essay and demonstrates how Carolyn uses her previous experience of the default, IRF, discourse pattern to enact the new R2L pedagogy.

5.5.4 *Recapping* the *field* with the IRF pattern

The analysis of the discourse during the second *recap* phase responds to research Question 1 by demonstrating how Carolyn's use of her previous intuitive classroom interaction pattern supports the enactment of the new pedagogy in response to Question 2. In this

phase, Carolyn revised the *field* for the new *joint construction* text using the information students had in their notes from the previous lesson in relation to the essay question (*Figure 20*, section 5.5.2). This information also linked to the brief introduction she had already written for the essay and given to the class: *'During the war years opposition to Nazi rule within Germany became more open and widespread. Opposition emerged from young people, the church, and the military but it varied in its strength and effectiveness.'*

In the excerpt below (*Table 20*), Carolyn begins this phase by referring to the writing activity that is to take place before she recaps the field for the whole essay by moving progressively through the hierarchical relationships of opposition groups (*Figure 21*). She concludes the phase with a focus on the topic for the first paragraph of the *argument* stage of the essay – opposition from young people – which is the *field* for the subsequent joint writing.

The discourse in *Table 20* (below) illustrates how she focuses students on the *what* of the text, by leading them to identify the three types of opposition that are relevant to the question and then the three types of opposition from young people.

Table 20 Bridging stage, recap of field phase

Speaker/ Exchange	Dialogue: *Bridging* stage, *recap* of *field*	move	cycle phase	matter
1.	**Example of 'cued elicitation' (Gibbons, 2006) to delineate the field**			
Teacher	Now – we're going to write our first paragraph about our new essay question: 'To what extent did the most serious opposition to the Nazis in Germany during the war years come from young people?'	dA1	prepare	activity
	So, we've got to discuss opposition from a variety of groups, including young people…	dA1	prepare	topic
	So, I'm suggesting to you we've looked at three different types of opposition, haven't we?	K1		
	What's our first type?	dK1	prepare	type

	Young people.	K1		
2.	**Typical use of IRF pattern for recap phase**			
Teacher	Within that, how many examples within young people did we have?	dK1	focus	example
Student	Three.	K2	propose	example
Teacher	Three.	K1	affirm	
3.	**Recap of hierarchy of relationships through field lexis** *(Figure 22)*			
Teacher	But we've also looked at opposition from the..?	dK1	focus	types
Student	Military.	K2	propose	types
Teacher	Military,	K1	affirm	
	yesterday, particularly the Bomb Plot.		elaborate	example
4.	**Students use notes and previous learning experiences to answer**			
Teacher	And for homework you should have looked at opposition from…?	dK1	focus	type
Student	Religious groups.	K2	propose	type
Teacher	Religious groups	K1	affirm	
	or individuals.		elaborate	type
5.	**Goal of the recap, to put the specific field for joint writing in focus**			
Teacher	How many examples did you have in that?	dK1	focus	example
Student	Three.	K2	propose	example
Teacher	Three…	K1	affirm	
6.	So, we're going to have a go at writing the first paragraph…	dA1	prepare	activity
	We're going to write the first paragraph about opposition from young people.	dA1		

Her questioning systematically *recapped* the *field* by drawing attention to the hierarchy of group relationships as represented in the taxonomy of the *field lexis* in *Figure 21* (below).
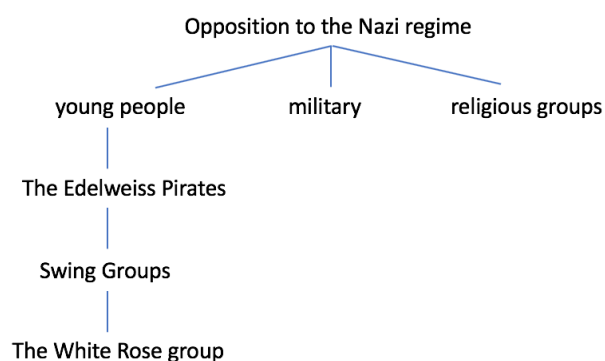
Figure 21 Taxonomy of *lexical relations* for the essay *field*, Nazi opposition

As all students had access to the necessary information about the *field* in their notes, Carolyn then proceeded to elicit responses from her class in the same manner as the teachers working in the tertiary classrooms (Dreyfus et al., 2011; Macnaught, 2015) by using the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) discourse pattern (discussed in section 2.6.1).

The use of the IRF pattern during *joint construction* is discussed in the next section. To address the singularity of this study, I make explicit *how* the units of analysis have been derived (Freebody, 2003, p. 24) with reference to SFL theory in order to compare my findings with similar studies.

5.5.5 Effective use of the default discourse pattern

Rose (2014), a critic of the IRF sequence when it is used to pose unprepared questions to students during the reading of an unfamiliar text (see section 2.6.3), sees that this sequence can work well during revision when students already have access to the information being elicited by the 'test question' in the *initiation* move (*dK1*) (see section 4.5.2) (Martin, 2006, p. 103).

Carolyn maintains her stance of authority and expertise during this second *recap* phase (*Table 20* above) by being monologic in the first and last exchanges concerning the procedure of the *joint construction* and by initiating the four exchanges about the knowledge of the field with the 'test question' *(dK1)* which gives her the ultimate authority in accepting or rejecting the student responses.

The discourse shows Carolyn initially answering her own question. This signals to the students her use of a different discourse pattern to the R2L interaction pattern used during *detailed reading* by modelling the type of 'test question' response she now requires from them. Additionally, by answering her own question with a *K1* move, she emphasises the information from the field that is the focus for this *recap phase*. This then prepares her students to answer the next *dK1* question which delineates the *field* of the essay topic. This is also a phenomenon captured in the tertiary research:

> [the teacher] increases the level of support by restating her K1 move in a way that narrows the scope of the required information. Initial prompts which are more open-ended are followed by those which have more embedded clues that specify the required answer, "cued elicitation" in Gibbons' (2006: 186) terms. (Dreyfus et al., 2011, p. 148)

Carolyn's classroom discourse has been analysed at the level of *moves* grouped and numbered as *exchanges* in the manner of the exchange structure analysis (described in 4.5.2) also used by the researchers analysing discourse from tertiary classrooms. As the *exchanges* shift in focus, the shift to a new *phase* in the discourse is able to be identified. The phase shifts in turn lead to the identification of the *stages* in the *joint construction* via constituency relationships (explained in section 4.5.2). This enables a comparison of Carolyn's implementation with research from tertiary classrooms (Dreyfus et al., 2011) at the *phase* and *stage* levels during the remainder of the *joint construction*. Drawing on the same SFL tools of discourse analysis enables a principled comparison of Carolyn's enactment of this stage of the of R2L pedagogy with the mapping of the *stages* and *phases* of *joint construction* shown below in *Table 21*(section 5.5.6).

Carolyn's enactment of the pedagogy in the two *recap* phases of the *bridging* stage of *joint construction*, described above, aligns with that of the experienced teachers in the tertiary research in that she recaps the structure of the essay as she develops both a metalanguage to use for writing the essay and the field knowledge. She also employs the IRF question pattern and 'cued elicitation' in a similar fashion to the experienced tertiary teachers.

While the *curriculum genre* Carolyn is enacting is based on the pedagogy from the PL, her use of the IRF discourse pattern is part of her previous tacit pedagogy which in this phase supports her to enact the new writing pedagogy. So, in terms of the *BES framework* (2007),

she can be seen to be 'implementing the new pedagogy as required' (Timperley, et al., 2007, p. 14) during the *bridging* stage.

The analysis of the *text negotiation* stage that follows has been identified by the tertiary researchers (Dreyfus, et al., 2011) as the stage where the *joint construction* process begins.

5.5.6 *Joint construction*: the *text negotiation stage/phase*

In the R2L pedagogy, *joint construction* is treated as both a pedagogical strategy and a *stage* in the *curriculum genre* (*Figure 4*, section 2.7). However, in their mapping of *joint construction*, in the tertiary setting, Dreyfus, et al., (2011) have treated it as a *genre* (with constituent *stages* and *phases*) as shown in *Table 21* (below).

As the analysis of the enactment of Carolyn's *joint construction* lesson segment (*Table 19*, section 5.5.1) revealed shifts in the discourse that align with the purposes of the *stages* and *phases* identified in the mapping of the tertiary researchers, these same names will be used in the discussion of this stage of Carolyn's lesson.

Table 21 The *Joint construction genre*: *stages* and *phases* (Dreyfus et al., 2011, p 145)

Genre	Joint construction		
Social function	Scaffolding students into writing a text in a target genre		
Stages	Bridging	Text negotiation	Review
Phases	recap	create / reflect	edit / reflect

The analysis of data in the *text negotiation* stage provides evidence in response to research Question 2. According to the mapping of Dreyfus et al., this stage comprises the phases of *create* and *reflect* (*Table 21* above). The first phase is *create* where teachers and students work together to write the text, and the second phase is *reflect,* where they stand back from the text and comment on the writing (Dreyfus et al., 2011). This is then followed by a *review* stage with *edit* and *reflect* phases.

The exchanges in the *text negotiation* stage are more complex than in the *bridging* stage as the moves in right hand column of *Table 22* below reveal. As the curriculum genre is multimodal, the *create, reflect* and *edit* phases not only involve information exchanges between the primary and secondary 'knowers' (*K1* and *K2*), they also require the carrying

out of the actions of dictating and writing on the board and on note-paper, by primary and secondary 'actors' (*A1* and *A2*) (as described in section 4.5.2).

Table 22 Create phase of the *Text negotiation stage*

Speaker / Exchange	Dialogue: *Text negotiation* stage, *create* and *reflect* phases	role	phase	matter
1.	**Teacher directive for the pedagogic process**			
Teacher	I'm going to start you off, and then you're going to come up and do it for me.	dA2	prepare	activity
	I want you to look at your model.	A2		
Students	(Students look at their model essay)	A1		
2.	**'Cued elicitation' of abstract field knowledge for sentence No. 1**			
Teacher	I want someone to volunteer to tell me what my first key point should be.	dK1	focus	argument
	What's my first key point going to be?			
	It needs to include some examples, key questions, words from the key question, doesn't it?	K1	prepare	argument
	So, which word am I going to start with?	dK1	focus	word
	S1, what's the topic of the question?		focus	topic
	(5 seconds silence)			
Student	Young people.	K2	propose	topic
3.	**Further 'cued elicitation' to elicit the word the teacher wants**			
Teacher	What about young people?	dK1	focus	word
	Young people – fashion of young people, studies of young people, support from young people?		prepare	wording
	What? What's our first word?		focus	word
Student	Opposition.	K2	propose	word
Teacher	Yes, okay.	K1	affirm	
	(Teacher writes 'Opposition' on the board)		elaborate	scribing
Teacher	So, let's have that as our first word *(to the class)*	K1	elaborate	wording

	We're going to begin together, and then you're going to finish it off for me.			activity
	So, we're going to start, 'Opposition from young people'			wording
	(teacher finishes writing on the board			scribing
	(teacher reads out loud)	A2		
Students	(students write down words from the board on their piece of paper)	A1		

4.	**Teacher elicits student evaluation of the *seriousness of threat***			
Teacher	Now it asks us, did it pose a serious threat?	K1	prepare	topic
	Did it pose a serious threat?	dK1	focus	topic
Student	Yes.	K2	propose	topic
Teacher	You think so?	tr	affirm	
Student	Yes.	rtr		
Teacher	Yes. Okay.	K1		
	So, we're going to say: 'posed a…'	K1	elaborate	wording
	(teacher begins to write)			scribing

5.	**Teacher invites 'reflection' builds *'affiliation'***			
Teacher	Well, are we in agreement, 'serious', or 'some threat'?	dK1	focus	wording
	What are our choices?			
	We could say a 'serious threat', or we could say 'some threat'.	K1	prepare	choice

Teacher	What do we think?	dK1	focus	wording
Student	Serious.	K2	propose	word
Teacher	Serious. Okay.		affirm	
	'posed a serious threat to the Nazis'		elaborate	wording
	(teacher continues to write)			scribing
	Girls?	A2		
Students	(students write down the words from the board)	A1		
Teacher	Right, our key point has to be about the question.	K1	elaborate	argument

6.	Teacher directive to write, modelling process to be followed			
Teacher	So, you're going to write this key point as your first sentence on your yellow piece of paper… So, 'Opposition from young people posed a serious threat to the Nazis in Germany during the war years'.	A2	direct	activity
Teacher	(teacher finishes writing the sentence)			
Students	(Students write the sentence)	A1		
Teacher	That's good enough, isn't it, for a key point?	dK1	elaborate	argument
Students	Yes.	K2		

Carolyn began the *create* phase of the *text negotiation* stage by using the IRF pattern to elicit the key words for the first sentence from her students who have their notes in front of them (*Figure 20* above). She also endeavours to build *affiliation* with the students before completing the creation of the first sentence (in exchange No. 5, *Table 22* above) by asking them to *reflect* on the *judgement* concerning the seriousness of the opposition from young people. By inviting students to *reflect* on the choice of 'serious' and gaining their affirmation for the choice, the exchange also functions to build a stronger sense of shared ownership for the new text. In exchange No. 6 she finishes writing the first sentence on the board using the student responses, modelling the process that the students subsequently become responsible for. The students follow her lead and write the sentence with minimal verbal prompting.

The analysis of the *create* phase of the *text negotiation* stage (*Table 22*, above) demonstrates in exchanges No. 2 and No. 3 that the students required 'cued elicitation' in order to supply the topic of the first sentence which was the response Carolyn was looking for. The next section discusses the reason for this gap in understanding between what Carolyn expected and what her students were able to supply.

5.5.7 The role of *nominalisation*

Carolyn had commented on the difficulty *nominalisations* caused her students when asked in the post programme interview (with reference to research Question 3) about the effect

she thought the genre-based PL had on her own knowledge about language and learning. She said that the knowledge about *nominalisation* was very helpful:

> Of course, we've got a lot of them [nominalisations] in history, so I found that really helpful to think about unpacking those words in particular, that we come across a lot. I found myself in the lessons going, "now, in this word, there are all these things going on." So, I really think it helped my understanding of how essential it is to unpack that language for pupils… (Carolyn, July 2016).

So, while she perceived that she had an understanding of *nominalisation* and was aware of the difficulty her students experienced with understanding this feature of historical discourse, she had not identified it as a difficulty in understanding the *metaphorical* nature of the essay question during Lesson 3.

As mentioned previously (section 5.4.4), in the *task deconstruction* phase (phase 3, *Table 17,* section 5.4.1) earlier in the lesson, Carolyn had used semiotic dissonance as a pedagogical tool to merely read out the essay question and asked the students to highlight the key terms. While the highlighting imitated the action that is part of *detailed reading,* she did not use the *preparation* and *elaboration* moves from the R2L discourse pattern to unpack the metaphorical nature of the wording in the question, so students were left to infer that for themselves.

In this later stage of the lesson, it became evident that the students were not sure how language was operating to make meaning in the question, so they were unable to supply the key word 'opposition' to begin the sentence. The notion of 'opposition' is a type of abstraction that is a feature of *argument* texts concerned with a hierarchy of ideas expressed as 'factors' organised in 'text time', as opposed to events involving people that are taking pace in 'real time'. Linguistically, this involves a transference of meaning 'from reality as processes involving people and concrete things, to reality as relations between abstract things' (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 110) via the process of *nominalisation* (section 5.2.7). Coffin (2006) emphasises the importance of *nominalisation* in argumentation in history as it allows for factors, such as 'opposition', to be evaluated (2006, p.127), in this case as more or less 'serious'.

To elicit the abstract term 'opposition' from her students in the second exchange of the *create* phase (*Table 22* above) Carolyn began by asking for the 'first key point' using a *dK1* or 'test question' move but she did not receive a response from the students. Her reaction was to quickly restate the question asking, 'what word?' which is what Gibbons (2006) describes as 'cued elicitation' to narrow the field, so this cue indicated that she was looking for a single word answer. Nonetheless, no reply was forthcoming, so she cued the students for a third time with '…*what's* the topic of the question?'. While the question word to elicit a *nominalisation* would be *what* (see *Table 23* below), by also cueing with 'topic', she led a student to respond with *who*, 'young people'.

As Carolyn could automatically read the abstract *nominalised* discourse in the question, she was also expecting her students to recognise it and respond to the '*what'* question with, 'opposition'. The students, however, were still expecting 'people' to be the focus or *theme* of the sentence. This reflects that their experience of reading highly nominalised texts had not been extensive enough to prepare them to automatically read this type of historical discourse although it is what is required for them to write the complex texts required in GCSE history. Furthermore, their reading in the previous lesson was from *historical accounts* that focused on young people in Nazi Germany carrying out actions against the government in *real time*. The question for the note-taking was: How did young people oppose the Nazis during the war? (*Figure 20* above). This led the student to respond (in exchange No. 2, *Table 22* above) in the 'typical way' by supplying what is referred to in SFL as the *congruent realisation*[102] that would see *young people* carrying out the action of *opposing*. This would then generate a sentence such as: Young people opposed the Nazis during the war years, so this was a serious problem for the regime.

By relying on her previous pedagogical methods in that earlier part of the lesson, Carolyn had by-passed the inherent opportunity that is provided by *detailed reading* to unpack the abstract concept of 'opposition' as a *nominalisation* for 'people acting against the government'. The consequence was that the students' difficulty in understanding the abstract *nominalised* form was carried forward to the *joint construction* stage of the lesson in the exchanges (Nos. 2 & 3) in *Table 22* above. The lack of scaffolding during the reading of the question earlier in the lesson left them unable to supply the answer in the nominalised form she was expecting for the writing of a new text.

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[102] See: Taverniers, 2003, pp. 5-33, for more on grammatical metaphor and congruent and incongruent realisations.

As Carolyn's main pedagogical tool for *joint construction* was the IRF pattern, when the response she was looking for was not forthcoming, she reacted quickly using a fourth *dK1* move, to provide a more specific cue to elicit the response she had in mind - *What* about young people? This question elicited the answer she was looking for, 'opposition' which she quickly wrote on the board followed by 'from young people' to start the *joint construction*.

While she achieved her aim of eliciting the wording she wanted via 'cued elicitation', the opportunity to develop student knowledge about language was not taken up as she continued with her line of questioning in the subsequent exchanges without elaborating on the role of *nominalisation* in the question and in the wording of the topic sentence[103] that would 'set the scene' for answering the essay question.

Consequently, while Carolyn's interview comment that she found having knowledge about *nominalisation* 'helpful' to her teaching, when her perception of her KAL is compared to the analysis of the classroom data, it can be seen that in this lesson she didn't fully appreciate how the knowledge could be employed via the pedagogy as a tool to develop a key concept about how language operates to make abstract meanings in historical discourse. Further specific support with lesson planning on school visits could have addressed this issue and also ensured that she had a more technical understanding of the phenomenon than she demonstrated in the interview[104].

Nonetheless, Carolyn did not think that sentence level grammar could be helpful to her as a history teacher. The next section discusses this issue which impacted on her joint construction.

5.5.8 An aversion to sentence level grammar

There is evidence to suggest that prevailing contextual factors, relevant to research Question 1, impacted on Carolyn's uptake of the KAL at the sentence level. In her post programme interview, she said that she did not use the 'traditional, "Which verb?"…,

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[103] In SFL a topic sentence is known as a *hypertheme*.
[104] As mentioned previously plans for Carolyn to continue to be filmed and receive school-based support in the second year did not eventuate due to her recurring health issues which meant she had to take extended sick leave.

because I don't find that very helpful. I think that's a bit straight-jacketing [for history]' (Carolyn, July 2016).

A similar type of dismissive reaction by teachers to 'grammar' was reported by Gebhard et al. (2013) in their research into SFL metalanguage. They state that:

> prescriptive rules for correctness have given grammar a bad name... because they: shift attention away from meaning; focus on sentence-level grammatical structures without attention to how sentence level grammar meaningfully supports the organization, purpose and audience of a text (p. 108).

This finding aligns with Carolyn's perception (in response to research Question 3) that sentence level grammatical features such as *verbs* are not useful tools for teaching history.

In this respect, her classroom implementation is quite different to that of the experienced teachers in the research carried out in the tertiary setting. Dreyfus, et al., (2011) comment that their teachers used extended explanation 'to abstract away from the text under construction to the meta-understandings about text and language'. This comment is supported in the tertiary research by an example of an extended explanatory classroom exchange during the *create* phase which focused just on the type of *verb* needed in one sentence (2011, p. 151).

So, Carolyn's comment about verbs being 'straight-jacketing' for history teaching, shows that she is not necessarily open to the idea that *all* knowledge about language is useful. This provides a glimpse of what Timperley et al. (2007) refer to as teachers' previously tacit, 'personal theories of action' (2007, p. 9). This type of reaction to the role of grammar in history teaching also aligns with prevailing contextual factors (research Question 1) such as the prevalence of the 'conduit' view of language (section 2.2.3) which sees language as a carrier of meaning not a maker of meaning.

This view is further upheld by the focus on 'content' in the history curriculum document for the GCSE and the course specification (section 5.2.7) which relegates the role of language to the marks awarded for correct spelling, grammar and punctuation. The explicit role of grammatical features such as *nominalisations* in historical discourse that Coffin (2006) refers to is elided in the curriculum documents that refer to it implicitly in the

requirement for using correct 'terminology'. So, it is not surprising that Carolyn does not quickly or easily incorporate new sentence level knowledge about language based on SFL, particularly as only one workshop session in the PL was specifically devoted to it. More time would be required to change longstanding classroom practices and routines that have become 'naturalised' over time. Particularly when the new KAL is not aligned with prevailing influences that are tacitly reinforced by the educational context and the work environment.

Notwithstanding, it is interesting to note that Carolyn did comment in her interview that 'history, lends itself to the *who?, where?, when?,* and the *what*?' So, I used that quite a lot.' (July 2016). In this statement she is referring to the use of *interrogatives* as *meaning cues* to identify wordings in *detailed reading*. While they are of course linked to traditional grammatical categories (verbs, nouns etc. see *Table 23* below), as a history teacher, Carolyn has related more positively to using these commonsense meaning categories via the use of familiar interrogatives than to traditional grammatical categories.

Table 23 Traditional grammar and R2L meaning categories

traditional grammar	'wh' meaning cues for detailed reading	meanings expressed
verbs	what doing/being	process
nouns	who / what	people/things
prepositions	where/when/how etc.	place/time/ quality

The Timperley et al. (2007) research into PL emphasises that in order for teachers to respond to PL by changing their practice substantively and to additionally influence the practice of others, they need to understand the theories of the new PL and how they might differ from their own, previously tacit, personal theories of action (2007, p. 9). So, while in terms of Carolyn's uptake of the PL, she implements the joint writing *stage* of the new R2L pedagogy 'as required' (Timperley et al., 2007), when the discourse is analysed more closely at the *phase* and *exchange* level, it reveals the complexity of the task for a teacher-learner and points to more nuanced areas of knowledge about language at the sentence and word level that are yet to be developed so that they can be employed effectively as part of the pedagogy.

In the opening exchanges of the *create* phase of the joint construction, she could be seen to be 'implementing the pedagogy as required' according to the *BES framework* (2007). However, by not taking the opportunity to build students' knowledge about language by addressing the issue of *nominalisation*, she continued with her prior practice of working intuitively to guide students to write nominalised sentences. While she has articulated that it is important to address *nominalisation* in her teaching, her main focus has been on genre, how language operates at the level of the whole text and on how purpose operates to structure meaning at the level of the paragraph. However, she hasn't always used the opportunity offered by the pedagogy to be explicit about knowledge about language at the sentence and word level. So, at these levels she has continued to enact her previous implicit pedagogy while believing that she was implementing the new pedagogy (Timperley et al., 2007).

The next section responds to research Question 2, it demonstrates how Carolyn guided her students to construct the new whole-class text.

5.5.9 Integrating reading and writing

In the classroom, after Carolyn's initial modelling of writing on the board, she passed active responsibility for text creation to the students who participated in the process by taking turns to scribe on the board as Carolyn and other students dictated what should be written. During this *create phase* Carolyn's role was supervisory, she stood at the back of the room and allocated student roles then watched and listened, only providing guidance and direction when necessary. She was 'free' to focus on the construction of the new text as the students took turns in dictating and scribing on behalf of the class. This created a cycle of participation that engaged a range of semiotic resources and drove the lesson forward[105].

In Carolyn's lesson (see *Table 19*, section 5.5.1), the two stages of *negotiation* and *review* identified by Dreyfus et al. (2011) in their mapping were merged as she guided the class to alternate between phases of *create, reflect* and *edit* sentence-by-sentence in her 18-minute *joint construction* lesson segment.

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[105] The final excerpt of discourse from the *joint construction* differs in terms of the pedagogic process as well as the *stages* and *phases* mapped by the researchers in the tertiary setting (Dreyfus et al., 2011).

The discourse in *Table 24* (below) shows how Carolyn guided the class through these phases focusing predominantly on the field of historical discourse. As the notes contained all the necessary field information from the history topic, the challenge was to transform events occurring in *real time* into evidence to support a point of view in an *argument*. The use of the notes and closely following the model text, allowed the *reflection* and *editing* processes to be incorporated as the class text was scribed on the board. This meant that a separate *review* stage was not required to achieve the aims of her *joint construction*. The excerpt of classroom discourse, in *Table 21* illustrates how the second sentence in the paragraph was re-written via the phases of *reflect* and *edit*.

In the excerpt below the student, Josie, was forthcoming with the field information from the notes as Carolyn guided her to dictate to Chloe, who was scribing on the board.

Table 24 Text negotiation, including *create, reflect* and *edit phases*

Speaker/ Exchange	Dialogue: student scribing of create, reflect and edit phases	role	phase	matter
1.	[106] **Organise activity**			
Teacher	Who wants to do the next one? (some discussion takes place)	A2		activity
Chloe	(comes to board)	A1		
Flo	(sits down)			
Teacher	Thanks ever so much Flo.	A2f		
	And Josie, if you'd like to tell her what to write.	A2		
2.	**Teacher-guided 'reflect' phase, focus on paragraph structure**			
Teacher	Now, can I just – for a moment, let's have a little think, Josie, before you tell her. Now what we can do is – we've got one example of what they did (on the board).	K1	prepare	paragraph

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[106] As permission to film applied only to the teachers in this study, the students were not filmed while writing on the board during *joint construction*. Permission had been gained to capture their dialogue on the audio from the film. The text written on the board was captured on film only when students were out of the camera shot. Student pseudonyms are used in the dialogue.

We've got three examples here.

(Referring to the notes, Figure 21)

Now, if we write three separate sentences, we're going to end up with a very long paragraph.

So, we can either just choose two of the examples, or perhaps, an alternative is we could combine these two examples into one paragraph, couldn't we?

3.	**Student-led 'create' phase, interrupted by teacher reflection**			
Teacher	So, do you want to try doing that, Josie? Off you go.	dK1	focus	paragraph
Josie	Additionally,	K2	propose	word
Chloe	(scribes Additionally...)		elaborate	scribing
Teacher	Excellent.	K1	affirm	
Josie	…they also collected allied propaganda leaflets…	K2	propose	wording
Chloe	(scribes 'they also collected allied propaganda leaflets')		elaborate	scribing
Teacher	A bit louder	tr		
Josie	…and put them through people's doors (louder)	K2	propose	wording
Chloe	('and put them through people's doors')		elaborate	scribing
4.	**Teacher-led 'reflect and edit' phases focus on discourse**			
Teacher	Can I stop you there?	A2		
Josie	Yes.	A1		
Teacher	Let's have a little look at what...			
	You can stay there, Chloe.	A2		
Chloe	(returns to board)	A1		
Teacher	Let's have a look at what you've written in that sentence. See if we can trim it down a little bit.	dA1		

Teacher	Now, at the beginning we've got two words. We've got two separate ways of saying there's another reason, isn't it? We've got 'additionally' and 'also'	K1	prepare	wording
	Do we need them both?	dK1	focus	wording
	We don't, do we? Actually, we don't need them both. We just need one. So, could we get rid of...	K1		
	Which one can we get rid of?	dK1		
	Get rid of one, either 'additionally' or 'also'.			
	You decide, Chloe. You decide..	dK1		
Chloe	(no response)			
Teacher	Or Josie, it's your sentence, you decide.	dK1		
Josie	Also.	K2	identify	word
Teacher	Also.	K1	affirm	
Teacher	Take 'also' out. Just rub it out.	A2	elaborate	scribing
Chloe	(Rubs out 'also')	A1		
Teacher	Brilliant.	K1	affirm	

5. **Teacher-led 'reflect and edit' phases focus on discourse**

Teacher	Now – listen.	A2	prepare	wording
	We've got, 'they collected propaganda leaflets and put them through people's doors'.	K1		
	Could we turn that around?	dK1		
	Could we say that – could we put 'putting them through the door' first? Could we say, 'additionally they put' – what did they put?			
	'Allied propaganda leaflets through people's doors'.	K1		
	That makes a slightly shorter sentence, doesn't it? And it means not saying 'they did this, and then they did this, and then they did this'.			

Teacher	What do we think?	dK1	focus	wording
	What do you think, Josie?			
	Tell her what we're going to write.			
Teacher	So, take that all off. (to Chloe)	A2		
Chloe	(Rubs off 'collected allied propaganda leaflets and put them through people's doors')	A1		
Teacher	So, 'additionally they…'	K1	prepare	wording
	Now what did we say?	dK1	focus	wording
Josie	…they put…	K2	propose	wording
Chloe	(scribes 'they put')		elaborate	scribing
Teacher	Brilliant	K1	affirm	
Josie	…allied propaganda leaflets…	K2	propose	wording
Chloe	(scribes 'allied propaganda leaflets')		elaborate	scribing
Teacher	Brilliant.	K1	affirm	
Josie	…through people's doors…	K2	propose	wording
Chloe	(scribes 'through people's doors')		elaborate	scribing
Teacher	And then can we do an 'and'?	A2	elaborate	wording
	Chloe, make it a bit smaller.			
Chloe	(scribes 'and' in smaller writing)	A1		
6.	**Student-led 'create' phase, interrupted by the teacher**			
Teacher	And what next, Josie?	dK1	focus	wording
Josie	… and sheltered deserters from the army.	K2	propose	wording
Chloe	(scribes 'and sheltered desserts from the army.')		elaborate	scribing
Teacher	Desserts, or..?	dK1	reject	
Chloe	Deserters. Sorry.	K2	propose	word
	(rubs out 'desserts' and writes 'deserters')			
Teacher	Remember we said deserters are people who have run away from the army and are refusing to fight.	K1	elaborate	word
	Brilliant. (to Josie and Chloe)	K1	affirm	
7.	**The lesson continues with new students dictating and scribing...**			

| Teacher | Who's going to be next? | A2 |
| | Do you want a go? (to a seated student) | |

The next section discusses the impact of implementing the R2L *joint construction* on Carolyn's practice.

5.5.10 The impact of *joint construction*

In terms of historical discourse, in exchange No. 3 (above) Josie was able to link the second sentence successfully to the previous one. Her initiation of the sentence with the *conjunction* 'additionally' indicates that she understood that the distribution of propaganda leaflets was another reason why the Edelweiss Pirates were a threat to the Nazis, as stated in the first sentence. During *detailed reading* of the model text, Carolyn had stressed the importance of giving reasons to support the arguments being made so Josie demonstrated her understanding of the use of *internal conjunction*[107] to link ideas in an argument. In the model argument text, Carolyn had used the conjunctive 'in addition' to link reasons, so by choosing an additive synonym, Josie was showing both an understanding of the conjunctive relations appropriate for arguments and some independence in the text creation.

Nonetheless, when Josie continued the sentence in exchange 3 with 'they also...' Carolyn needed to step in, or use 'contingent scaffolding' (see section 2.6.4), to guide her to remove either the conjunctive 'additionally' or the continuative 'also'. At this point, Carolyn did not take the opportunity to elaborate explicitly about the use of conjunction, she worked intuitively saying 'we don't need them both'. This again indicates that she had not become conscious of the need for working explicitly with sentence level grammar and possibly had not yet acquired the metalanguage to do so (section 5.5.8).

Thus, in spite of teacher modelling of the use of internal conjunction during detailed reading, while the student was able to imitate and innovate on Carolyn's use of conjunction, she was not yet independently able to sustain the creation of the discourse of

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[107] *Internal conjunction* is the SFL term for conjunctions used to organise ideas in texts e.g. furthermore, alternatively, similarly, thus, for example, however etc. *External conjunction* is usually more familiar to students as it refers to conjunctions that organise events that take place in real time in stories and recounts e.g. and, or, then, while, when, next, because, so etc.

argument at the sentence level without teacher support. The issue is perhaps not surprising in the context of the predominance of historical recounts in textbooks that link events with external conjunction. As Carolyn pointed out (in exchange 5, above), 'it means not saying they did this, and then they did this, and then they did this.' The survey of Carolyn's GCSE textbook (5.2.6) and Coffin's (2006) research highlight that students read many more recounts and accounts organised by time than arguments that 'dismantle time' and require the use of different discourse patterns to construe social, political, and economic events as factors with mutually influencing causal interactions (Coffin, 2006, p 75).

The excerpt of discourse above (*Table 21*), demonstrates that Caroline's use of the phases of *create*, *reflect* and *edit* are consistent with the findings of Dreyfus et al. (2011) concerning how the process of joint construction is enacted. Furthermore, her use of 'contingent scaffolding' (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005) to respond spontaneously to student proposals during joint construction is also a typical feature the use of the IRF discourse pattern during joint construction. So, despite the differences in the secondary and tertiary contexts, the variations between the two pedagogies (see section 2.7) and Carolyn's lack of experience with the pedagogy, her classroom enactment is relatively consistent with the findings of the research undertaken in the tertiary classrooms with experienced teachers. There is consistency at the level of implementation of the phases of this stage of the pedagogy and most variations can be attributed to the use of notes, even though there is not a great deal of evidence of a development of the use of sentence level grammar as a pedagogical tool.

Carolyn's whole class *joint construction* is evidence of how she has enacted the culminating stage of the final lesson of her carefully planned *macrogenre* by bringing together the information from the *field of history* from the note-taking during the previous lesson with the understandings of *historical discourse* from the detailed reading of a model argument. The sequence of lessons displayed her ability to 'actively engaging with, own, and apply new theory and practice to change practice substantively' (Timperley, 2007, p. 14).

While she had achieved the overall goal of her *macrogenre*, the fine-grained discourse analysis reveals that some of the more nuanced linguistic aspects of historical discourse were not planned for or dealt with explicitly during the interactions. This demonstrates that not all the new knowledge from the PL had been consciously used to scaffold her students'

knowledge about language. Her response in a number of instances was to rely on her prior intuitive knowledge about discourse features and sentence level grammar. In these specifically identified phases of the curriculum genre, she is seen to be 'continuing with prior practice, believing that it is new practice' (Timperley et al., 2007, p. 14).

Below (*Figure 22*), is the final joint class paragraph that was written on the board following further *reflection* and *editing*.

Opposition from young people posed a serious threat to the Nazis in Germany during the war years. The Edelweiss Pirates were a threat to the Nazis because they put allied propaganda leaflets through people's doors and sheltered deserters from the army. This was serious because in November 1944, 12 members were hanged by the Gestapo which suggests they were dangerous.

Figure 22 Final *joint construction* of the essay paragraph from Lesson 3

5.6 Conclusion to the data analysis

The analysis and interpretation of the data in this chapter has examined the year-long learning journey of the history teacher participating in the R2L professional learning. The four learning episodes presented the data in stages that highlighted how the sustained PL process scaffolded the teacher learning in relation to planning and implementing the new classroom pedagogy. The analysis of the data provided responses to the overall research question concerning the impact of the PL on the subject teacher's knowledge about language and pedagogy via the three specific research questions that have guided the process. Responses to research Question 1 revealed significant contextual issues that impacted on the uptake of the PL. The influence of implicit traditional theoretical positions regarding language and literacy, curriculum and teaching and learning impacted on the teacher's learning environment to make working with texts and changing longstanding classroom routines a challenge. The issue of limited time for the PL, lesson planning and classroom teaching contributed to the teacher not fully developing some aspects of the PL.

Nonetheless, in response to research Question 2, the analysis of the lesson planning and classroom implementation demonstrated that she changed her practice substantively

(Timperley et al., 2007) to plan and teach reading and writing in history using the genre-based approached from the PL. The influence of contextual issues, however, contributed to aspects of knowledge about language, particularly at the sentence level, not being taken up although the teacher in some instances believed she was implanting new practice when in fact she was continuing with prior practice (Timperley, el al., 2007).

Research Question 3 probed the teacher's perceptions of her practice. Her perceptions about her understanding of the concept of genre, her planning and her classroom implementation were largely upheld by the data analysis to demonstrate a development of metalinguistic awareness. While she understood differences between her previous and new practices, she was not able to articulate them theoretically which according to the BES meta-research on PL would put her at risk of not fully implementing the new pedagogy. Her perception of her understanding about sentence level grammar and its role in history teaching also vacillated.

The use of SFL-based discourse and multimodal analysis enabled the teacher's pedagogical practices to be described from a multi-semiotic perspective. This highlighted the complexity of classroom interaction by revealing how the teacher's use of semiotic resources varied just over the course of one lesson. She used spoken discourse and body language incongruently to enact a transmission style pedagogy during some lesson phases, while during *detailed reading* she used her semiotic resources synergistically to create a cycle of 'engagement' in learning which 'freed' her to focus the students on the instructional discourse.

The data analysis has foregrounded the complex and nuanced nature of teacher learning in the specific context of SFL-based literacy PL for a secondary school discipline-based teacher. The following chapter discusses the implications of the key findings from the study in relation to each of the research questions to evaluate the impact of the PL on teacher knowledge about language and its use as part of classroom pedagogy.

Chapter 6 - Summary of findings and implications

6.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the most significant findings that emerged from the analysis and interpretation of the data. The findings are discussed here first and foremost in terms of their relevance to the research questions. The implications of the findings are concurrently considered in the context of discipline-based teacher learning from an SFL perspective in relation to the *BES framework* of teacher responses to professional learning (Timperley et al., 2007).

6.2 The contextual factors impacting on teacher uptake of professional learning

This thesis begins with three chapters that respond to research Question 1, focusing on different aspects of the context in which this study of genre-based literacy professional learning takes place: education policy, the theoretical underpinnings of literacy and pedagogy and trends in professional learning. I initially explored these issues as part of my literature review in order to better understand the education environment in England where the study took place. As I interacted with the teachers as part of the research process and began collecting data in the schools, I was able to gather evidence that shows how key aspects of the issues discussed in the opening chapters impacted on teachers' uptake of the PL in ways that were not always supportive.

The four findings and implications that follow in this first section of the discussion are those that are most relevant to research Question 1 concerning the contextual factors that influenced the uptake of the PL for the focus teacher, Carolyn.

6.2.1 The challenge to PL: tacit theoretical orientations to teaching and learning

An important contextual factor that created a challenge for the focus teacher to fully implement the new knowledge about language and pedagogy was the ongoing, underlying influence of an educational environment that supported her use of previous pedagogies aligned with an objectivist view of learning which is in contrast to the social semiotic view of the pedagogy that is the focus of the genre-based PL.

The origins of teachers' theoretical orientations to learning have often been attributed to their own experience as learners who tacitly acquire theory through observation and participation in longstanding classroom routines. The contention is that these theories then become 'naturalised' overtime as commonly held 'folk theories' which often remain unexamined (Kövecses, 2002, p. 109).

This assertion is upheld by the *BES* meta-research into teacher PL which finds that teachers tend to operate on a tacit personal theory of action based on a coherent set of beliefs, values, and practical considerations that is strongly influenced by their history and working context. The meta-research stresses that unless PL addresses and interrupts long-established routines based on such personal theories, teachers will not fully adopt new learning (Timperley, et al., 2007, p. 9).

This factor was borne out in some specific instances by the data analysis in my study. Despite Carolyn implementing the overall curriculum genre innovatively and enacting the key stages of *detailed reading* and *joint construction* as proposed by the Reading to Learn professional learning, during certain lesson phases there was a regression to familiar routinised ways of teaching, rather than enacting the new pedagogy. The most notable of these instances was the tendency to default to 'transmission' style pedagogy (see particularly sections 5.3.3; 5.4.4 and 5.4.7).

This finding is perhaps not surprising as secondary schooling, particularly in the later years, has historically been characterised by 'chalk and talk' pedagogy - perhaps now only replaced by PowerPoint and talk. This was verified in 1992 by the Three Wise Men Report (section 2.2.7) which emphasised that didactic teaching was overwhelmingly favoured in the majority of schools despite a widely held belief that schools were swept by a tide of progressivism (Alexander, et al., 1992, p. 9). More recently, this finding has been upheld by Hattie's (2012) meta-research that found teachers spent 70 to 80 percent of their lesson time talking (section 2.2.2).

The use of this 'traditional' style of pedagogy is also connected to the pervasiveness of its underpinning theory of objectivist learning with its link to the 'conduit' metaphor (section 2.2.3). An objectivist view of transmitting knowledge like a commodity via language as a simple conduit is reinforced by the GCSE curriculum documents (section 5.2.3) and examination system which emphasises the commodification of knowledge by using results

as a key indicator of school performance for comparison and 'marketing' (section 3.1). This approach to learning also finds support in the examination board specifications for GCSE history (section 5.2.2). Their focus is predominantly on the content of the subject, and despite requiring students to analyse and evaluate historical sources, the role of language is relegated to that of a vehicle for conveying the objective knowledge (section 5.2.3). The role of literacy in learning history is thus a 'hidden' curriculum and this does little to support the notion of discipline-based teachers taking responsibility for literacy.

All of these factors were present to differing degrees in Carolyn's teaching environment and may also have been part of her own experience as a learner. They operate implicitly to transmit values about learning that contribute to a personal theory of action (Timperley et al. 2007) that supports the enactment of classroom routines that conform to traditional, transmission style pedagogy where the role of language is largely invisible.

Hence, by participating in the genre-based PL, and endeavouring to implement a new pedagogy based on a social view of learning and characterised by a scaffolding pedagogy based on SFL (section 4.2), Carolyn was embarking on a path that would challenge her to take up a differing epistemological and ideological stance, in an environment historically weighted towards objectivist views. In these circumstances, the long-standing but unexpressed underlying contextual factors can represent a significant challenge to the PL process as they act like a magnet to attract teachers back to the familiar, comfortable classroom routines that characterise the school environment and the prevailing education climate.

The implication of this for the design of PL that seeks to move teachers beyond their current epistemological and ideological positions is that it must take account of the influence of the prevailing and historical educational context and be prepared to address the challenges of this ongoing tacit influence. This requires transformational teacher learning initiatives to include design features to address such challenges and to take specific measures to support teachers during the change process to mitigate a return to pre-existing pedagogies (Timperley et al., 2007).

The implication for schools is that they need to be open to reflection and critique of their own teaching and learning environment in order to be able to identify moments when often unarticulated practices and routines create an environment that is not conducive to

supporting new transformational teacher learning initiatives that they seek to implement. School-based teacher learning teams have been highlighted in research into teacher PL as a useful vehicle for enabling the type of reflection and critique that highlights the differences between new and old practices to support teachers to implement change (Stoll et al., 2006; Groundwater-Smith & Mockler, 2009).

The next section discusses another significant contextual factor that impacted on the uptake of the genre-based literacy pedagogy, the amount of time schools can allocate to PL.

6.2.2 The scarcity of time for scaffolding transformational teacher learning

A significant contextual factor that impacted on Carolyn's uptake of knowledge about language and pedagogy from the PL was the scarcity of time available for PL. The action learning design of the *Reading to Learn* PL in this study requires a year-long iterative process of workshops, that introduce knowledge about language and model the pedagogy, interspersed with periods of classroom implementation (section 3.7). The total amount of *time* required for this process, however, was not able to be made available by the participating schools and consequently this had an impact on Carolyn's uptake of the PL (section 4.4.5).

The sustained and iterative design of the *Reading to Learn* PL seeks to support the needs of teacher learners who are implementing a pedagogy that requires the adoption of new routines that enact a theory of learning that may be different to their current practice (section 6.2.1 above). It is based on the Vygotskian notion of scaffolding for teachers in the ZPD (section 2.3.1) and is further shaped by the design features for effective PL that grew out of the school effectiveness research and the school improvement movement (section 3.4). A significant strength of the PL model is the scaffolding support teachers receive via school visits from an expert in the pedagogy between the workshops that support the enactment of an iterative theory-practice style of learning. This school-based mentoring has been evaluated in R2L programmes in Sweden and found to contribute to understanding both the theory and its practical application in the classroom (Hipkiss & Andersson Varga, 2018, p. 94).

However, the 'bespoke' five-day design of the PL for the schools in this study, rather than the planned eight-days, meant that some sections of the programme could not to be fully addressed (section 3.7.1). The participating London schools were accustomed to allowing time for teachers to attend conferences or CPD activities such as examination board updates for only a day or two. However, these activities are not designed to promote transformational learning that moves teachers beyond their current theoretical paradigm. Therefore, although the schools were keen to undertake the PL, the time required for this type of sustained teacher learning was over and above what they were able to provide in a climate of budgetary restraint. This response from schools aligns with the findings of the OECD survey (section 3.4) into teacher PL, *TALIS 2013*, which found that teachers in England spent less than half the number of days in PL compared to teachers in other OECD countries (OECD, 2014).

The lack of sufficient time for transformational PL means that if schools want to implement PL that is designed to move teachers, in Vygotsky's (1978) terms, beyond their Actual Zone of Development (AZD) and into their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), then they need to take account of the amount of time that is required to scaffold teacher learning for transformational classroom teaching. The recommendations that have been made for effective teacher learning for over twenty years in the PL literature (Hawley & Valli, 1999; Cordingley, et al., 2015; Timperley, et al., 2007) need to be better understood, not only by schools, but by the government when allocating funding, so that serious consideration can be given to allocating sufficient time and corresponding financial resources to support this type of transformational teacher learning even in the face of budget restraints.

Nonetheless, the extended nature of the Reading to Learn PL was more than Carolyn was used to and she commented in her post programme interview that 'it was a real pleasure to be involved in some of my own CPD and development for myself which was sustained over a year, rather than it just being a one-off....' (section 5.5.3).

In spite of her enthusiasm for the PL, however, Carolyn was perhaps the participant who was most disadvantaged by the reduced amount of time for the workshops, which makes the development in her knowledge about language and her classroom implementation a remarkable achievement. All the other participants were teachers of English with background knowledge and a remit for language teaching, albeit from a different

paradigm, so as a history specialist, Carolyn was the only participant who was undertaking language and literacy education for the first time. This unfamiliarity with the subject matter, combined with the specific challenges of reading historical discourse (section 5.2.6) that were not able to be addressed in the workshops, meant that the truncated course was not optimal for her. While the school visits were able to compensate to a certain extent for the reduced workshop time, the PL was not able to meet all of her learning needs within the given time frame.

Furthermore, despite the goodwill schools displayed towards the PL, and agreeing to five days for the PL workshops, some teachers were subsequently 'not allowed' by their schools to attend some of the workshops for full days (*Table 7*, section 4.4.5) as they were required to supervise mock exams. This issue exemplifies the overriding priority given to the prevailing examination context and to the lack of priority accorded to teacher PL. These factors indicate that even schools that are desirous of change, and provide time for sustained PL, still view the time set aside for teacher learning as expendable, even though it may put at risk the success of the change they are seeking to bring about.

The next section discusses the finding concerning how the contextual challenge of discipline-based literacy impacted on the teacher's uptake of knowledge about language and pedagogy from the PL.

6.2.3 The discipline-specific literacy PL needs of secondary subject teachers

In terms of developing new knowledge about language, a significant contextual factor that impacted on Carolyn's uptake of the PL was the complex nature of the secondary school history textbooks. However, the findings showed that while this initially made the identification of the genres of the texts difficult for Carolyn (section 5.2.6), ultimately, working through the challenge provided her with a new perspective on her texts and enabled her to exploit them more effectively as a resource for learning in the classroom.

Analysis showed that texts in the history course books often consisted of multiple, short primary and secondary resources that needed to be read in conjunction with other visual texts on the same double-page and were also linked inferentially to the *macrogenre* of the textbook. In addition to the PL workshops, Carolyn required individual support during the

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mentoring sessions to understand the purpose of the history texts in order to identify the genres so that the texts could be prepared for reading in class using the R2L pedagogy.

The finding concerning the complex nature of historical discourse echoes the issues raised by Coffin (2006) more than a decade ago which enabled her work to be used to support Carolyn in addressing difficulties in untangling specific *topological* differences between *accounts* and *explanations*. Carolyn stated in her interview that while the process of identifying the genres of her texts continued to be a challenge, a positive outcome had been to 'force' her to be more familiar with her texts before lessons which enabled her to work with them in more depth in the classroom for the benefit of student learning (section 5.4.8). She also commented on the confidence she had gained that enabled her to choose more complex texts for classroom teaching rather than 'dumbing down' or summarising texts for her students (section 5.4.8).

An important implication of this challenge from the history textbooks is that specialised support is required for discipline area teachers if they are to develop deeper knowledge about the purpose of their texts and how they are constructed to make complex inferential meanings. The issues that were brought to light in this study concerned the understanding of key concepts in history texts, implicit chronology, inferred cause and effect relationships and making inferential links with co-texts in differing modes on the same page. If teachers can develop a heightened linguistic awareness of the complex ways in which their texts construct meaning, then they are more likely to be able to share this knowledge with students as they guide them to read, understand and construct their own texts.

With regard to discipline specific literacy teaching in the secondary school, the notion of genre and the implications of the differences between the genres in source texts for reading and those that are required for writing, does not seem to be an issue that has received much attention in the UK context despite the strong focus on examinations. While the issue of the genres for writing in the disciplines has been investigated at the tertiary level (Nesi & Gardner, 2012), the literature search for this thesis did not find any significant current policies or initiatives in the UK context designed to address discipline-based teacher PL for literacy with a focus on reading in the context of secondary schools.

The concluding finding regarding the contextual factors that impacted on Carolyn's uptake of the professional learning shows that, despite the obstacles produced by the abovementioned factors, her overall uptake of the PL was strong enough to support her efforts to address the learning needs of reading and writing in GCSE history in the prevailing context.

6.2.4 Synergy between the 'high-stakes' GCSE environment and R2L pedagogy

Relevant to both the context being discussed here, and to research Question 2 concerning the uptake of PL, is the important, but almost paradoxical, finding that Carolyn was able to take up important aspects of the PL in what is regarded as the pressurised, high-stakes GCSE examination context. Furthermore, she was able to apply new knowledge about language to identify the significant obstacle for student learning that was created by the requirement to read historical discourse in one genre but to write in another. She then used the R2L pedagogy as a tool overcome the difficulty in an effort to equip her students with the skills she identified as being important for successful learning in history.

While the majority of the teachers in the PL considered the GCSE context 'too risky' to trial the new R2L pedagogy, Carolyn, nonetheless, approached the implementation with confidence, immediately selecting Year 10, GCSE history as her 'research class' for this study (section 4.4.2). Ultimately, the findings from the data analysis supported her choice of the GCSE class as the genre-based pedagogy worked synergistically with the examination-focused course specification to address the reading and writing aims of GCSE history. The knowledge about historical discourse that Carolyn developed enabled her to use the R2L pedagogical sequence to lead her students to read and take notes from texts in the course books and to then use the information to teach her class to write the challenging *argument genre* in preparation for the GCSE history examinations (section 5.5).

Viewing texts through the lens of *genre* from an SFL perspective enabled Carolyn to identify differences between the genres students were reading, such as *recounts, accounts* and *explanations,* and the evaluative texts that they were required to write in examinations, usually *arguments* with an explanatory purpose (section 5.2.8). This new knowledge about how texts are structured to make meaning in different ways according to their purpose led to the planning of a series of lessons that used the R2L curriculum genre innovatively to bridge the difference between the genres of reading and writing in history (section 5.3.4).

Furthermore, in spite of some reliance on previous pedagogies during certain phases of classroom implementation, the empirical data shows that Carolyn also implemented the key stages of *detailed reading* (section 5.4.6) and *joint construction* (section 5.5.6) to explicitly model and guide whole class reading and writing of an examination style text. Carolyn evaluated the process in her post programme interview as having been 'very, very effective' (section 5.4.7).

While the context for learning at GCSE may be framed in terms of an objectivist view with a tendency to commodify knowledge, Carolyn's case shows that it does not necessarily follow that transmission style pedagogy is a natural outcome of this context. This study shows that, even within a less than ideal context for PL, the social theory of learning (Bruner, 1986; Vygotsky, 1978), informed by SFL (Halliday, 1975 & 1989), 'Sydney School' genre pedagogy (Martin, Christie & Rothery, 1987; Rose & Martin, 2012) and Bernstein's (1996/2000) sociology of education can enable an explicit pedagogy to be used to teach reading and writing for high-stakes GCSE history examinations.

The next section focuses on the findings related to the research questions concerning the issue of teacher consciousness of the professional learning process compared to the evidence of the uptake of the pedagogy in practice.

6.3 The PL: teacher perceptions and evidence from classroom practice

Carolyn's perceptions of the PL and its influence on her classroom practice (research Question 3) is discussed in the findings in this section by comparison with the findings from the empirical data from lesson planning and classroom interaction (research Question 2). This comparison enables her perceptions to be considered in terms of the evidence they provide of a developing consciousness of the theories and knowledge about language and pedagogy that the PL seeks to develop.

The *BES* meta-research into PL (Timperley et al. 2007) is used to guide the process as it emphasises that in order for PL to lead to a change in practice it must develop theoretical understandings sufficiently as, while teacher actions continue to be motivated by tacit theories and knowledge, there is a risk they will default to their previous practices. The *BES* meta-research further asserts that when teachers become cognizant of the difference

between old and new theories and practices, they experience what is termed *dissonance,* which means they are more likely to fully adopt new learning (Timperley, et al., 2007).

The implications drawn from the comparison of these two sets of findings are discussed in relation to teacher PL and discipline-based literacy teaching in the secondary school context.

Thus, the findings that follow in this section are those that are relevant to both research Questions 2 and 3.

6.3.1 The multimodal 'engagement effect' of detailed reading

This first finding focuses on how the multi-semiotic data analysis enabled Carolyn's perceptions of the *detailed reading* strategy to be described more technically. Carolyn perceived a difference between the new practice of *detailed reading* which she evaluated as 'engaging' for her students compared to her previous 'one-way' practice (section 5.4.7). The analysis of her enactment of *detailed reading* revealed that her use of the term 'engagement' could also be seen to describe her reciprocal experience of being relieved of the 'burden' of *authority* by her use of her semiotic resources congruently to focus on the instructional discourse. Nonetheless, her perception of the multimodal phenomena was not based on an understanding of the social semiotic theory that she was enacting. She perceived the 'engagement effect' of detailed reading as a result of implementing the new pedagogy 'as required' (Timperley, et al., 2007, p. 14).

As the curriculum genre is dynamic, some aspects of multimodal analysis were used alongside the synoptic linguistic analysis to enable another dimension of classroom interaction to be made 'visible'. The finding here, in response to research Question 2, highlights how other semiotic systems can function as powerful pedagogical tools in combination with spoken and written discourse to impact in significant ways on teacher-student relations to reveal a more complex picture of classroom interactions. While Carolyn perceived *detailed reading* intuitively as 'very, very effective' and 'engaging' (section 5.4.7), the multimodal data analysis has enabled me to describe it more technically as product of 'semiotic assonance'.

The finding concerning *detailed reading* was derived comparatively with Carolyn's perception of her previous style of teaching which she described as explaining in a 'very one-way' manner (section 5.4.7). During the *preparing for reading* stage of the lesson (*Table 17*, section 5.4.1), Carolyn's monologues and directives, in the style of transmission pedagogy, foregrounded her use of the interpersonal *metafunction,* via the register variable of *tenor* (*Table 9*, section 4.5.2). In an effort to gain cooperation from her adolescent learners, she sought to create a tenor of *affiliation* and *affective involvement*, (Eggins & Slade, 1997) via the use of *speech functions* such as an invitational statement (e.g. section 5.4.3), modulated requests (e.g. section, 5.5.2), and metaphorical commands (e.g. 5.5.2) in order to reduce the inherent inequality in the teacher-student *status relations*.

The interpersonal tenor of positive *affiliation* coupled with *affective involvement* that she created in the discourse, however, was simultaneously juxtaposed by semiotic signals which rendered these speech functions multimodally as commands that reinforced the unequal student-teacher *status relations* (section 5.4.3). I have described this incongruence between the tenor of the spoken discourse and the multimodal signals as a 'prosody of dissonance' which I liken to a 'carrot and stick' approach to classroom interaction. Maintaining this type of interaction throughout a lesson requires a great deal of semiotic labour from the teacher.

By contrast, during the *detailed reading* stage of the lesson, Carolyn enacted the three-part R2L interaction pattern (prepare-task-elaborate). This pattern harnessed both the *implication sequence* in the reading text and the *expectancy* relations set up by the pattern itself (section 5.4.6) to drive the reading process forward. The self-generating effect of the discourse pattern then 'liberated' Carolyn from the moment-by-moment balancing between positive *affiliation* and *affective involvement* in the discourse as well as the traditional assertion of the teacher *authority status* relationship via multimodal signals. In this way she was able to create a 'prosody of assonance' between the semiotic resources of spoken and body language as she prepared and cued students to identify meanings in a text.

This enabled the spoken response of a single student to become a meaning-making moment for the whole class as the teacher provided an oral affirmation, gave a command while simultaneously underlining the identified wordings on the board. As the lesson progressed, without further oral prompting, the students followed the teacher's affirmative physical prompt by highlighting the identified wordings on their individual copies of the

text in acknowledgement of the meaning-making which the teacher then elaborated orally, interacting further with students for clarification as necessary.

While according to the *BES* meta-research, she experienced dissonance between her old and new reading practices (Timperley, et al., 2007, p. IX), there is no evidence concerning a consciousness about the theoretical differences in the practices. The *BES* meta-research asserts that while teachers actions are motivated by tacit theories and knowledge, there is a risk that learnings from new PL will not be fully implemented (Timperley et al., 2007, p. 9). So, this is a possible reason for Carolyn relying on her previous pedagogy to enact the 'one-way' transmission pedagogy during some lesson phases, despite her effective use of the R2L discourse pattern within the *detailed reading* stage of the lesson.

This finding demonstrates the use of multimodal analysis alongside fine-grained SFL-based discourse analysis enables the semiotic practices associated with both the designed R2L discourse pattern and the teacher's previous intuitive classroom practices to be articulated more precisely. In the case of *detailed reading* it has enabled the perception of engagement in the reading process to be named more technically as 'semiotic assonance'. This technical description of 'engagement' demystifies this somewhat elusive notion frequently associated with detailed reading, by linking it to empirical classroom data derived from discourse and multimodal analysis. This finding allows for the meaning-making moment in the R2L discourse pattern to be viewed as a synergy of semiotic resources that occurs as students perform what Rose (2008) identifies and the 'learning task' in the *nucleus* of R2L *exchange complex* (*Figure 9*, section 4.5.2).

With regard to Carolyn's previous practices, by naming the use of conflicting semiotic messages as 'semiotic dissonance' it enables this practice to become visible as a technically defined teaching practice. This finding brings to the fore the fact that transmission style pedagogy, often referred to as 'teaching as telling', can also involve the use of other semiotic modes of meaning-making.

A further implication from this individual case of a discipline-based secondary teacher is that it has enabled two different approaches to reading to be named and described in detail from a social semiotic perspective. These descriptions could be useful to teachers, providers of PL and pre-service teacher educators as they provide information about how the different classroom pedagogies employ semiotic systems in differing ways during

classroom interaction. This facilitates the discussion, further study, evaluation and critique of these practices from different perspectives in terms of their purpose and educational efficacy.

The finding in the next section concerns the teacher's perception of the impact of reading texts carefully in preparation for lessons and the explicit use of reading as a key element of classroom pedagogy (section 5.4.8).

6.3.2 The significant impact of reading as a resource for learning

The uptake of the reading pedagogy from the *Reading to Learn* PL is a fundamental issue in my research as it involves teacher development of new theoretical understandings about pedagogy based on notions of scaffolding (Bruner, 1986; Vygotsky, 1978) and pedagogical discourse (Bernstein, 1996/2000). Carolyn's perception (research Question 3) of the positive impact of reading on both teacher and student learning has been upheld by the empirical data and has thus emerged as a key finding in this study.

The interview data revealed that Carolyn perceived her teaching had changed as a result of using reading as the lead-in for her lessons as proposed in PL, instead of her usual warm-up activities (section 5.4.5). Her comments reflect her comparison with previous pedagogies and provide an example of the *dissonance* she experienced between the new and the old reading practices. She stated that the new reading pedagogy had enabled her to 'introduce the text far more quickly into the lesson' and 'it also cut down my teacher talk at the beginning of the lesson'... (Carolyn, July 13, 2016). She appraised these changes positively by saying that: That was the beauty of it, actually. I didn't have to do 'death by PowerPoint'... (section 5.4.8).

Her lesson planning data and the filmed lesson confirmed that she had consciously adopted the focus on reading from the outset of the lessons she taught using the R2L curriculum genre. Carolyn's interview data (section 5.4.8) reports that the focus on reading had become the centre piece of many GCSE history lessons and had also been used in other year levels. The finding that emerges is that reading based on knowledge of genre and interrogating the text using knowledge about language had become a key resource for learning, rather than seeing it as an adjunct to the oral and visual modes of learning that had characterised her previous teaching (section 5.4.8). The lesson planning and classroom

data also confirmed her increased ability to select texts for both genre and content, to plan lessons around reading (section 5.3.4) and that she had gained fluency with the reading pedagogy in the classroom (section 5.4.6). So, with regard to the place of reading in learning, the data provided evidence of a substantial, conscious change in her practice (Timperley et al., 2007).

A further finding relates to the perception she expressed in her interview that the implementation of the pedagogy had 'forced' her to read texts more thoroughly herself in order to work with them in more depth in the classroom (section 5.4.8), as also reported in Whittaker and Acevedo (2016). This demonstrates a heightened consciousness about the link between her own development of knowledge about texts, from the new perspective of genre, and the benefits that accrue to the classroom teaching when she read her texts thoroughly, to include the genre perspective, prior to using them in the classroom.

The interview data revealed that she perceived another significant difference between her old and new practices with regard to the use of reading as a resource for learning. Her perception was that she had developed confidence in selecting more complex texts and inferred that it had a positive effect on her classroom pedagogy (5.4.8). She regarded her new ability to use even complex texts as positive, juxtaposing it to previous practices of 'dumbing down' texts which implies that she also perceived that this would be beneficial to student learning.

There are several implications arising from the elevated teacher consciousness about reading as a key resource for learning that apply to both teacher learning and to classroom teaching. As the R2L genre-based pedagogy hinges on exploiting reading texts as a resource for classroom learning, it requires teachers to carefully read their curriculum texts as part of a comprehensive lesson preparation process before they can exploit them fully in the classroom. This promotes a type of reading that goes beyond the typical surveying of the content of texts to establish their relevance to a teaching topic, it requires teachers to also focus on the *purpose* and *structure* of texts and to consider whether they would also provide models for writing tasks. Importantly, as the interview data reveals (section 5.4.8), this type of preparation builds teacher confidence in using even complex texts as the basis for classroom teaching. The potential benefit to student learning is that it positions teachers to use texts comprehensively as resources for learning rather than avoiding them in favour of oral or visual texts that may be more readily comprehended but fail to build student

skills in reading and writing. Additionally, the pedagogy offers teachers a staged *curriculum genre* that can consciously be used to design bespoke lessons and sequences of lessons that exploit texts to meet the needs of the learners and the demands of the curriculum via a staged process of reading that leads to writing.

A further significant implication of this finding is that reading cannot be considered the preserve of teachers in primary school or English and language subjects. Discipline area teachers in the secondary school can also learn how to use reading as a valuable resource for teaching and learning. The genre-based reading pedagogy refocuses classroom teaching by enabling reading to be situated at the heart of classroom learning in any lesson, rather than positioning it as an adjunct to learning in other modes.

The next section discusses a finding resulting from a mismatch between Carolyn's perception of her KAL and her classroom practice. She perceived that she had gained a new understanding of an important linguistic feature in history texts, but her understanding was not upheld by the empirical classroom data.

6.3.3 The problem of putting new KAL into practice: the case of *nominalisation*

The *BES* meta-research into teacher PL finds that teachers will only fully implement their new learnings from PL if there is an integration of theory with practice that enables teachers to make decisions about classroom practice within the context of deeply understood relevant theory (Timperley, et al., 2007, p. xii). The *BES* finding is upheld in this research in terms of certain aspects of Carolyn's theoretical knowledge about language that were not fully developed during the PL and thus were not implemented as part of the pedagogy. The most illustrative example that emerged in the data relates to the important feature of *nominalisation* in historical discourse (section 5.5.7).

The interview data (section 5.5.7) revealed that Carolyn perceived that she had developed an understanding of *nominalisation* as a discourse feature that permeates secondary school history texts and that it builds abstraction into texts which creates difficulty for student understanding. She reported that her understanding of this feature assisted her to 'unpack' unfamiliar terminology for students. However, the classroom data demonstrated that during reading, she did not identify or 'unpack' a key nominalisation which left a gap in student comprehension that impacted on the writing stage of the filmed lesson (section

5.4.4). So, her perceived knowledge of nominalisation was not sufficiently developed to ensure that it was employed in the pedagogy to provide the support that she perceived she was providing to her students.

The R2L pedagogy is described as a top-down approach in terms of the functional model of language (*Figure 1*, section 2.4.1). The three layers of the R2L pedagogy model (*Figure 4*, section 2.7) also represent the top-down approach of the pedagogy which begins with strategies for understanding the purpose of whole texts and how their meaning unfolds in stages, before focusing on meaning at the paragraph and sentence and word levels as appropriate. Similarly, the teacher PL follows the top-down approach by progressively introducing teachers to knowledge about language and pedagogy from the larger structures of whole texts to smaller units of meaning (*Figure 7*, section 4.4.5).

In Carolyn's case, the data revealed that it was knowledge about the larger structures of the history texts, at the level of the genre, that had the greatest impact on her teaching (section 5.3.5) and that this influenced her planning of a curriculum *macrogenre*. So, it can be seen that her conscious uptake of knowledge about language and pedagogy has been more significant at the 'higher' levels of the model of language and pedagogy.

While she perceived that she was conscious of the issue of *nominalisations* in historical discourse, the empirical data showed that she did not actively apply this knowledge in the R2L reading and writing pedagogy. The application of the perceived knowledge remained below her consciousness at the time the study was undertaken (*Table 22*, section 5.5.6). As the *BES* meta-research suggests, the essential integration of 'deeply understood' theoretical knowledge about language with practice had not yet occurred with regard to some of the knowledge about language at the 'lower' levels of the models of language and pedagogy.

One implication of this finding is to question the efficacy of the R2L PL with respect to developing a deep enough theoretical knowledge about language to enable linguistic features at the paragraph and sentence level to be employed productively in classroom practice. Naturally, the impact of contextual factors that impinged on the PL process such as the reduced amount of time for the London PL and the specialised needs of a discipline area teacher with no previous background in literacy education need to be taken into account when considering this question. Nonetheless, this finding has implications for the providers of R2L PL with regard to better supporting teachers to implement key

knowledge about language in the pedagogy, particularly when it relates to areas that have been identified as having potential benefits to student learning.

The next finding looks at a factor that impinges on Carolyn's uptake of the PL, it concerns a bias in her perception of the usefulness of knowledge about language.

6.3.4 Bias against the idea of grammar as a tool for teaching history

An interesting finding concerning Carolyn's perception of knowledge about language from the PL emerged from the interview data. It concerns her attitude towards the role of grammar in teaching history. She rejected the idea of sentence level grammar as a useful tool for teaching history as she regarded it as 'straight-jacketing' for history (Section 5.5.8). This type of reaction to the role of grammar in history teaching also aligns with prevailing contextual factors such as the prevalence of the 'conduit' view of language (section 2.2.3) which is upheld by the focus on 'content' in the history curriculum document for the GCSE and the course specification (section 5.2.2) which only gives value to the role of language in terms of correct spelling, grammar and punctuation. Thus, the role of grammar seemed almost extraneous to Carolyn as a history teacher, despite her positive response to the concept of *nominalisation*.

Her reaction also reflects a commonplace response to the use of the word 'grammar', even beyond the education context, which is often associated with the teaching of 'traditional' decontextualised, rule-based grammar via drills and labelling parts of speech. Hudson and Walmsley (2005), reported on the 'death of grammar-teaching' in the post-war period largely owing to the practice of teaching 'prescriptive' rules that had not demonstrated any beneficial effect on the development of language skills (section 1.3.2). Halliday (1986) also attested to the negative reaction to the teaching of grammar when he wanted to include it in the language-based teacher PL materials he was developing in the 1960s (section 1.3.2) recounting that 'no teacher would stand for it' (Martin, 2013, p.121).h

Ironically, however, in spite of Carolyn's dismissal of the usefulness of grammar, she was unconsciously employing grammatical categories of meaning via the use of commonsense metalanguage from the PL (*Table 23*, 5.5.8) as she used the R2L classroom interaction pattern to prepare and implement *detailed reading* (section 5.4.6). She was in fact drawing on her unconscious pre-existing knowledge about grammatical patterns in sentences to cue

her students to identify the patterns of meaning via the use of everyday metalanguage with which she felt comfortable (*who, what, what doing, where, when*). This was verified by her interview data when she positively evaluated her use of *detailed reading* as being 'effective' and 'engaging' for her students (section 5.4.7).

The implication of this finding for teacher PL is that the introduction of a new theory, embedded in a new pedagogical routine, can be more efficacious than introduction by theoretical exposition, particularly where a new theoretical perspective is likely to clash with teachers pre-existing theoretical orientations (bias). This approach can build practical skills which teachers can become comfortable with, while avoiding the risk of a theoretical clash that may cause a teacher to reject the new theory and its accompanying pedagogy at the outset. As PL is a process, the aim should ultimately be to engage teachers with the theory of a new practice in order to enable them to be conscious of new knowledge so that they can adapt their teaching to a range of situations and to also lead the learning of others (Timperley et al., 2007).

The aim of the final R2L workshop in this study was to reveal the grammatical concepts from SFL that underpin each of the pedagogical processes (*Table 7*, section 4.4.5). While Carolyn attended the final workshop when the more technical aspects of patterns in sentences from a functional perspective were addressed, there is little evidence in the data to suggest that she developed a consciousness of the technical aspects of the sentence level grammar that she tacitly drew on to implement the discourse pattern for scaffolding reading. The only evidence that the data provides to explain why she did not become conscious about the grammatical concepts underlying her practice, is the pre-existing bias she expressed against grammar, perhaps acquired in part from her own experience as a learner and also upheld by the prevailing teaching context as described previously. Nonetheless, it is likely that the PL process needs to be more extensive and iterative as the adoption of surface behaviours can actually mask the absence of substantive change. Research into a long-term R2L PL project in Sweden has shown that during a second year of follow-up R2L PL teachers' theoretical understandings develop substantially (Hipkiss & Andersson Varga, 2018).

The next section discusses the findings from this study concerning the development of theoretical understandings about pedagogy.

6.3.5 Development of theoretical understandings about pedagogy

When considering the development of theoretical understandings about pedagogy as a tool for teaching history through reading and writing, the data analysis shows that this knowledge developed iteratively, in combination with a developing consciousness of the role of genre theory in learning history and the practical knowledge gained from classroom implementation. The theory-practice relationship built into the design of the PL was a key factor that facilitated Carolyn's understandings. The new understandings about pedagogy from the PL that had the greatest impact on Carolyn's practice were at the level of the multi-lesson curriculum *macrogenre*, the curriculum genres for the individual lessons (1, 2 & 3) and their constituent stages. However, at the level of some lesson stages and phases her use of the new pedagogy was inconsistent. The *BES* meta-research into multiple PL initiatives found that the teacher learning process is not linear but iterative and that implementing substantive change occurs 'as new ideas are revisited in terms of their implications for the ideas on which current practice is based' (Timperley, et al., 2007, p. xxviii). So, this type of variation in her learning during her initial efforts to implement the pedagogy is not unexpected.

Theoretical knowledge about pedagogy was optimally discerned from analysis of the planning data for the teacher designed, three-lesson curriculum *macrogenre* (*Table 15*, section 5.3.2 & *Table 16*, section 5.3.4). The detailed SFL-based analysis of the classroom discourse from the filmed lesson allowed for the verification of the enactment of all *stages* of the planned curriculum *genre* during that lesson (*Table 17*, section 5.4.1). Thus, the innovative planning and implementation of the overall curriculum genre, developed by Carolyn and based on R2L, provided evidence of her 'actively engaging with, owning, and applying new theory and practice to change practice substantively' (Timperley et al., 2007, p.14). Not surprisingly, this only occurred towards the end of the school year via the iterative professional learning process of workshop participation, reflective discussions, supported lesson planning and classroom implementation (*Table 6*, section 4.4.5).

The fine-grained SFL discourse analysis (sections 5.4 and 5.5) of the filmed lesson enabled shifts of *field* and *tenor* within different *stages* of the curriculum genre to be used to identify a series of unfolding *phases* of meaning within the stages. However, not all of the phases had been specified in the teacher lesson plan (*Table 16*, section 5.3.4). The examination of the nature of the micro-interactions within these phases revealed the

enactment of a range of practices that are not accounted for in the new R2L pedagogy. Pedagogical differences were discerned both between stages and within some stages at the level of the phase. So, while at the level of the curriculum *macrogenre* and the individual lesson *genre*, the new pedagogical theory was seen to be enacted, at the *stage* and *phase* levels the enactment of the new pedagogy vacillated.

The analysis showed that the key pedagogic theory of 'scaffolding', via the R2L pedagogic discourse pattern during *detailed reading*, and the SFL-based linguistic scaffolding of writing during *joint construction*, via using the IRF pattern, were enacted in their respective stages (*Table 17*, section 5.4.1). However, during the stages of *preparing for reading* (section 5.4.2) and *preparing for writing* (section 5.5.1) Carolyn relied on her previous practices of transmission pedagogy enacted via semiotic dissonance (section 5.4.4). During the *task deconstruction* phase, she relied on her previous practices even though the task lent itself to the new R2L scaffolding pedagogy (section 5.4.4). This has been identified as one of the typical responses from teachers to PL by the *BES framework* as 'continuing with prior practice, believing that it is new practice' (Timperley et al., 2007, p. 14).

Nonetheless, the overall finding is that, in spite of reverting to previous transmission style pedagogy in some phases of the lesson, Carolyn did take up and implement the *new* scaffolding pedagogy to a considerable extent. At the level of the structure of the overall curriculum *macrogenre* and the lesson genre she was conscious of the difference between the new and the old pedagogies. Her uptake of conscious knowledge about pedagogy at the 'higher' level of the R2L model of pedagogy (*Figure 4*, section 2.7) is mirrored by her conscious uptake of knowledge about language (KAL) that was also more significant at the 'higher levels' of the functional model of language (*Figure 7*, section 4.4.5).

Where the R2L PL specified the use of a scaffolding pedagogy, in *detailed reading* and *joint construction*, Carolyn implemented the pedagogy 'as required' (Timperley, et al., 2007). However, the R2L pedagogy cannot in fact account for everything that might happen during the course of a lesson. So, in certain phases of the lesson Carolyn used transmission style pedagogy to complement the R2L pedagogy, rather than to replace it. The *task deconstruction* phase, however (section 5.4.4), did indicate a lack of full appreciation of the possibilities of the new pedagogy, as transmission pedagogy instead of *detailed reading* was used at this point.

These findings are somewhat paradoxical in terms of the typical teacher responses identified in the *BES framework* (Timperley, et al., 2007). While the *framework* suggests a hierarchy of teacher responses to PL, the knowledge about language and pedagogy from the R2L PL is multifaceted, including reading and writing strategies at different levels of language and thus defies generalised teacher response categories. So, Carolyn's uptake of the pedagogy needs to be considered in terms of discrete components, by strategy, by stage and by phase.

This leads to different responses to the different components of the PL being able to be discerned simultaneously. Thus, the data analysis showed that, at the level of the curriculum genre and certain stages of the lesson, the new pedagogical theory was either being implemented as required or actively engaged with, owned, and applied to change practice substantively (Timperley, et al., 2007, p. 14). While at the same time, the fine-grained discourse and multimodal analysis revealed that at the phase level, previous pedagogical theories and default strategies were at times being used to enact the overall curriculum genre, in conjunction with the new pedagogy. So, at the phase level, the teacher vacillates between continuing with prior practice, believing that it is new practice; selecting parts of new theory and practice and adapting it to current practice and enacting the new pedagogy as prescribed (Timperley, et al., 2007, p. 14).

As Carolyn's uptake of the PL was not a linear process, but iterative and ongoing, the nuanced account of the enactment of the different R2L strategies in this study has been necessary to determine the extent to which each component has been taken up and impacted on classroom practice. This accounts for the *BES framework* discerning different levels of response simultaneously to different components of the pedagogy.

The next finding concerns the culminating stage of the pedagogy the *joint construction*.

6.3.6 The impact of modelling and *joint construction* of *argument* essays

In response to research Question 3, this finding builds on Carolyn's realisation about the need to model and jointly construct argument texts with the students that was triggered by her new knowledge about genre (section 5.3.1). Once she became aware that source texts provided few examples of the genre that students were required to write for assessment

purposes, she was motivated by the potential of the pedagogy to address the issue. This was verified (research Question 2) by her purposeful enactment of the pedagogy sequence in an effort to effect the improvement in student writing that had inspired her participation in the PL. As she took up a 'real' challenge in her teaching, she developed 'authentic' questions that she looked to the new knowledge about language to solve via the application of the pedagogy. The PL process became genuine action learning.

The interview data shows that Carolyn had positive perceptions of the note-taking method of reading and using the notes as the basis for writing a new text in a different genre (section 5.3.2). Her perception was that the students were enthusiastic about participating in *joint construction* and writing on the board. So, she perceived that 'implementing the pedagogy as required' (Timperley, et. al, 2007, p. 14) motivated students' active participation, by engaging different semiotic systems, in public writing and peer-to peer-scribing.

She emphasised how she labelled model texts to guide student writing (section 5.4.8) and in her interview she exemplified how she guided the reflection and review process during joint construction. She drew on the new KAL that she had developed from the PL to enact the pedagogy. The classroom data verified her conscious uptake of *joint construction* and her ability to lead students through the phases in this stage of the pedagogy (section 5.5).

The use of the stages and phases of *joint construction*, as mapped in previous research projects based on the use of the closely related Teaching and Learning Cycle (Rothery, 1994) showed that Carolyn's uptake of the strategy was largely consistent with the practice of experienced teachers in other projects (section 5.5). The greatest difference in Carolyn's implementation of *joint construction* was her relative lack of attention to sentence level grammar compared to the experienced teachers in previous projects.

The IRF discourse pattern, which was her default questioning pattern, characterised the teacher-student interaction during this stage of the pedagogy. Rose (2014) asserts that the purpose of this pattern is to evaluate students as only those who already have the knowledge that the initiating question is eliciting are likely to answer (section 2.6.3). The result is to positively evaluate the students who regularly answer the questions and thus the use of the pattern marginalises those who do not already have the knowledge being sought. In the case of the joint construction stage of the R2L curriculum genre, however, the use of

notes already taken from the source text for the essay writing meant the students in the history lesson were all prepared to participate in terms of field information. This is in contrast to *joint construction* in the Teaching and Learning Cycle (Rothery, 1994) which does not typically include this type of preparation (section 2.5).

The use of notes meant that the students were not required to retrieve the historical information from memory, so the primary focus for Carolyn was to guide the process of joint transformation of the historical discourse from one written genre to another. The cognitive load during this stage of the pedagogy had been lifted for both Carolyn and the students. This enabled Carolyn to engage all students in the process as there was equal access to the written information. As the students took turns in dictating and scribing a new text on behalf of the class, a cycle of participation that engaged a range of semiotic resources was created. This participation cycle drove the lesson forward, so the teacher was only required to guide the process of students scribing which freed her to focus on the construction of the new text.

The linguistic focus for Carolyn during the lesson was the structure of the *argument* paragraph. Throughout the *joint construction*, she reiterated the structural features that she had introduced through the *detailed reading* by referring back to the reading paragraph for guidance. She consciously named and used her knowledge about argument structure to focus the students on how to introduce the main argument in response to the essay question, how to use events recorded in the notes as evidence to support the arguments and how to conclude with reference to the essay question.

The implication is that the knowledge about the structure of argument texts, introduced during *detailed reading*, became visible content for the explicit teaching of writing via the R2L pedagogy. The joint construction of a text integrated the processes of reading and writing to learn both the historical content and the discourse of the subject. Even though Carolyn was not conscious of the opportunity this explicit teaching provided for also developing an understanding of the process of *nominalisation* which is a key feature in historical discourse (section 5.5.7), the *joint construction* stage of the lesson demonstrated that this teacher of history also became a 'teacher of English' in the spirit of the *Newbolt wish* (1921).

In the following section, the concluding finding focuses on the teacher uptake of knowledge about *genre* with regard to the purposes of the texts that form the basis of reading and writing lessons in this study.

6.3.7 The positive impact of theoretical understandings about *genre*

The development of new theoretical understandings about language drawn from SFL is fundamental to the teacher uptake of the PL in my research so it is significant that in her post-programme interview (research Question 3), the aspect of the PL that Carolyn was most articulate about was her perceived new knowledge about *genre*. Her perception was that it had impacted positively on her teaching by enabling her to identify the difference between the genres of the source texts for student reading and those they were required to write in response to essay questions. She also reported that this knowledge allowed her to structure models and label the patterns in texts and that it made her think much more about the language she used in the classroom (section 5.4.8).

Data from the school visits and reflective discussions (research Question 2) document her struggles with these issues (sections 5.2.4; 5.2.7; 5.3.1; 5.3.2). Nonetheless, the data also highlights specific moments when she experienced the type of *dissonance* between old and new practices that the *BES* meta-research describes (sections 5.2.8 & 5.3.1). Ultimately, she perceived that new knowledge about different genres had impacted positively on her teaching (section 5.4.8) and this perception was upheld by the empirical classroom data (sections 5.4.6 & 5.5.6).

In summary, the data analysis revealed that it was the SFL-based knowledge about the different genres of history that was the key theoretical understanding that underpinned her planning (section 5.3.4) and drove Carolyn's learning in tandem with classroom implementation (section 5.4.1). Understanding the differences between genres enabled her to become conscious of the relationship between reading and writing in GCSE history. She was thus able to attribute the difficulty students encountered in writing argument essays to the lack of models of argument texts for reading in the course textbooks. This new insight acted as the catalyst for her adoption of the pedagogy as a tool to solve the newly identified problem of a mismatch between the genres of reading and writing. She used the pedagogy to guide the process of reading and taking notes about *real time* happenings from source

texts (historical accounts) and transforming them into *factors* to support a point of view (arguments) via a guided essay writing process.

This finding is congruent with the *BES* meta-research in that the teacher's experience of *dissonance* was a necessary step leading to her 'changing practice substantively' in terms of planning the overall curriculum genre, rather than merely 'implementing the pedagogy as required' (Timperley et al., 2007, p. 140).

The role of this finding in substantiating the teacher's perceptions of her own learning, provides some empirical evidence to support other teacher accounts of their own learning. This issue has a significant implication for R2L professional learning initiatives. The previously documented R2L action research projects (Culican, 2005; Acevedo & Rose, 2007b; Acevedo, 2010; Coffin, Acevedo & Lövstedt, 2013; Whittaker & Acevedo, 2016) have not systematically collected and analysed classroom data on teacher learning, but they have largely been reliant on anecdotal teacher self-reporting of their own learning outcomes. While those R2L action research projects focused on student learning outcomes, the qualitative and quantitative data collected was robust enough to enable an inferential correlation with the anecdotal teacher learning data. Nonetheless, this relationship was not verified by empirical classroom data.

A further implication of this finding for R2L professional learning initiatives is that it provides some empirical evidence about the different components of the PL that have had more or less impact on classroom teaching. So even though this study focuses on a single teacher, because of its up-close nature it provides an indication of the type and methods of data collection and analysis that can be used to determine what knowledge about language and which pedagogical practices are most readily taken up and have the most impact on a discipline area teacher in a secondary school setting.

An additional implication of this single case of a history teacher learning to teach the literacy of her discipline area is that it captures the spirit of the *Newbolt wish* (1921) of almost a century ago, that has been echoed in subsequent reports such as Bullock (1975) and Kingman (1988), for *all* teachers to become teachers of English (Sampson, 1922). This case exemplifies how literacy PL that develops consciousness about the different genres of schooling can provide valuable new insights into the role of language in meaning-making in disciplinary texts. This knowledge transcends the narrow understandings of language as

little more than a vehicle for transmitting content that can be reduced to marks awarded for spelling, punctuation and grammar (section 5.2.2). Furthermore, when a teacher adopts a pedagogy that employs the notion of *genre* to enable reading to be used as a resource for writing, the teacher can learn how to scaffold student language and learning so that reading becomes an explicit resource for teaching writing (section 4.4.1).

6.4 Conclusion to the findings

This chapter has elaborated on the findings produced by this study in relation to the impact of the *Reading to Learn* PL on the history teacher's knowledge about language and its use as part of classroom pedagogy. The findings highlight the complexity of the PL process as it seeks to change established beliefs and practices over the course of a school year through the stages of planning and classroom implementation.

Four significant findings concerning the contextual factors that impacted on the uptake of the PL were identified in response to research Question 1:

1. The challenge to PL: tacit theoretical orientations to teaching and learning
2. The scarcity of time for scaffolding transformational teacher learning
3. The discipline-specific literacy PL needs of secondary subject teachers
4. Synergy between the 'high-stakes' GCSE environment and R2L pedagogy

The in-depth study of the history teacher led to findings that identified the aspects of the SFL based PL that had the most significant impact on the teacher learning and the pedagogical strategies that were most readily taken up in the classroom by comparing the analysis of data relating to research Questions 2 and 3. The comparison of the data revealed that the teacher's perceptions of the influence of the PL on classroom practice were largely upheld by the classroom data and seven factors that had a significant impact on the uptake of the PL were identified:

5. The multimodal 'engagement effect' of detailed reading
6. The significant impact of reading as a resource for learning
7. The problem of putting new knowledge into practice: the case of nominalisation
8. Bias against the idea of grammar as a tool for teaching history
9. Development of theoretical understandings about pedagogy

10. The impact of modelling and joint construction of argument essays

11. The positive impact of theoretical understandings about genre

The conclusions reached in this study are discussed in the next and final chapter.

Chapter 7 - Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This study has produced findings that determined the impact that scaffolded literacy professional learning grounded in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) had on a secondary subject teacher's knowledge about language and its use as part of classroom pedagogy. The findings were developed in response to three specific research questions:

Question 1. What are the contextual factors that impact on a teacher's uptake of the professional learning in terms of knowledge about language and classroom practice?

Question 2. How does the professional learning (PL) impact on a teacher's classroom practice as evidenced in lesson planning and classroom interactions?

Question 3. What are the teacher's perceptions of the professional learning and its influence on classroom practice?

This research into the impact of the *Reading to learn*, (Rose, 2014) literacy professional learning (PL) initiative in the secondary school setting in London has produced findings that are highly relevant to the educational context in England. The notion of literacy being integral to teaching and learning in all subject areas has long been championed as an *idea* in public debate and policy documents. The call for *all teachers to be teachers of English* echoes back over a century in policy rhetoric (Newbolt, 1921; Sampson, 1922; Bullock, 1975; Kingman, 1988; Cox, 1989) with successive reports emphasising that literacy should be a central concern of teachers in the secondary schools (APPG, 2011; DfE, 2012; Ofsted, 2013). Nonetheless, since the cessation of the professional development associated with National Literacy Strategy (OISEUT, 2003), there has been no clear national policy or strategy to translate these ideas into practice. Furthermore, this 'policy void' occurs in the face of reports of a relative decline in literacy standards for adolescent learners in England in international comparison studies such as PISA (Adams, 2013; Wiertz, 2015) and *Building Skills for All: Review of England* (OECD, 2016). Thus, the findings produced by this study are timely and also have implications for discipline-based teacher literacy learning beyond the immediate context of the study.

The synthesis of the empirical findings in this chapter (section 7.2, below) demonstrates how, in spite of contextual obstacles, a discipline-based teacher *can* implement key strategies from the *Reading to Learn* literacy PL to focus teaching on historical discourse as the purveyor of the course content even in the pressured GCSE environment. The implications of the findings are discussed (section 7.3) with reference to policy, initial teacher education, and additional possibilities for discipline-based teacher literacy learning. Notwithstanding the limitations of the study, its strengths are discussed (section 7.4) to signal possibilities for further research (section 7.5) particularly in the area of teacher learning for discipline-based literacy education.

7.2 Synthesis of the empirical findings

The findings of this research (Chapter 6) have provided a better understanding of the relationship between professional learning (PL) in *Reading to Learn* genre-based literacy teaching grounded in Systemic Functional Linguistics and its impact on classroom teaching. The contribution they make to the under-researched area of teacher uptake of professional learning, referred to by Timperley et al. (2007) as the enigmatic 'black box' of teacher learning (section 3.6), is to highlight the complex and non-linear path of teacher learning. This section discusses how a range of factors identified in the findings combined to impact on the uptake of the new learning in different ways at different stages of the PL process.

7.2.1 Limiting and supportive contextual factors

The findings related to the impact of contextual factors on the uptake of the PL (research Question 1) revealed that the cumulative influence of factors in the education environment was pervasive. From the range of contextual influences discussed in the opening three chapters of the dissertation, two significant factors that combined to limit certain aspects of the teacher uptake of the PL are discussed below in relation to two further factors that initially appeared to present challenges to the teacher learning but ultimately supported the teacher's uptake of the PL later in the school year (section 6.2).

The first inhibiting factor was found to be the underlying tacit theoretical orientations to teaching and learning, both past and present, that could be discerned in curriculum documents, in unexamined, pre-exiting 'personal theories of action' (Timperley et al.,

2007, p. 9) and classroom routines. These issues became salient to greater and lesser degrees as obstacles to the uptake of PL throughout the process (section 6.2.1). Secondly, the reduced amount of time allocated to the PL workshops (section 6.2.2) compromised the extended and scaffolded nature of the PL which was designed to overcome such ever-present contextual obstacles (section 3.7). So, these two factors worked in combination to limit some aspects of the uptake of the PL. While the teacher consciously designed and enacted the stages of the R2L pedagogy to scaffold student learning (section 6.3.5), motivated by her new theoretical understandings about genre (section, 6.3.7), some phases of classroom implementation revealed that more nuanced understandings about language and pedagogy (section 6.3.3) had not been taken up. In order to take up knowledge about language and pedagogy based on a new paradigm of learning, the participating London schools required equivalent workshop time to the schools that have reported positive outcomes in previous projects in other countries (section 3.7.2).

The impact of previous orientations to learning combined with limited time for teacher learning also impinged on the ability of the PL to address the specific PL requirements of the GCSE history teacher who was viewing her texts for the first time through the lens of SFL. As a result, the nature and complexity of the historical discourse in the GCSE textbooks (section 6.2.3) initially emerged as a further contextual challenge. Ultimately, however, the insights gained through the concept of *genre* revealed a cause of student difficulties in writing *argument* texts. This new knowledge about *genre* then emerged as a source of motivation to overcome the challenges presented by the nature of the historical discourse via the use of the R2L pedagogy. This inspired the teacher's design of the three-lesson *macrogenre* that has been analysed in the study (section 5.3.4). So, the initial linguistic challenge ultimately became a contextual factor that supported the uptake of knowledge about language and pedagogy. The lack of time to address the specific issues of historical discourse in the workshops was able to be compensated for by the scaffolding of teacher learning during school visits (section 5.2.4) at the early stage of the PL process which has been reported as an essential design feature in the PL (Hipkiss & Andersson Varga, 2018).

A related contextual factor that initially appeared to be a significant challenge for the history teacher's uptake of the PL was the time-pressured, high-stakes, examination-focussed GCSE curriculum (section 6.2.4). Nonetheless, when the examination orientated reading and writing requirements of GCSE history were viewed through the lens of genre

pedagogy, they foregrounded the unmet literacy needs of the students (mentioned above), thus creating an environment that was highly conducive to implementing the genre-based teaching advocated by the PL. In the GCSE context, both the teacher and student learning *mattered*, everyone was accountable, so the combination of the pressure of the context, the teacher's motivation to meet the challenge the PL offered to improve student learning, combined with support from the on-site teacher scaffolding converged to convert this contextual challenge into a factor that ultimately supported the uptake of the PL.

The next section discusses the findings related to the impact of the PL on the planning and implementation of the classroom pedagogy in the context of the ongoing influence of the underlying contextual factors.

7.2.2 The impact of the PL on teacher learning

In the face of the contextual challenges, the study found that the teacher consciously used key aspects of new knowledge about language and pedagogy in her planning and implementation of the R2L classroom pedagogy. The series of findings derived via the comparison of the teacher's perceptions of the PL and the observed influence it had on her practice with evidence from the classroom were also able to pinpoint aspects of the PL that were not taken up.

Two key findings regarding the impact of reading were identified from the study. The first finding related to reading was drawn from the data analysis to highlight new knowledge about *how* meaning is made during *detailed reading* to identify a previously unexamined use of semiotic resources to enact *detailed reading*. This finding was derived by combining discourse and selected aspects of multimodal analysis to reveal a more complex picture of the classroom interactions than previously reported (section 6.3.1). What the teacher perceived as 'engagement' in learning during *detailed reading* was able to be described as a process of 'semiotic assonance' that focused all the available semiotic resources on making meaning from reading (section 5.4.6). Thus, through comparative analysis with pedagogy during lesson phases where previous transmission style pedagogy was enacted (section 5.4.4), the interpersonal nature of the teacher-student relationship was foregrounded revealing how the teacher used her semiotic resources incongruently to give students conflicting messages creating 'semiotic dissonance'.

A further finding, associated with *detailed* reading and the resulting perception of 'engagement', is the overall positive perception the teacher developed about reading as a resource for learning (section 6.3.2). The teacher reported how participation in the PL had provided impetus for a more thorough reading and preparation of texts before lessons with the purpose of not only identifying the genres of texts but also to determine if they would provide models for writing. Furthermore, in contrast to her previous practices of using summarised or simplified versions of texts, the teacher reported increased confidence in using challenging texts from the GCSE coursebooks as resources for class reading. These interrelated findings concerning reading demonstrate how participation in the PL developed the teacher's skills in using reading as part of pedagogy due to a deeper understanding of reading as both a resource for learning history content and for developing skills in writing. Thus, literacy had become regarded as legitimate content for teaching history.

Nonetheless, findings also emerged to demonstrate that some of the more nuanced aspects of knowledge about language from the PL were not taken up. With regard to the issue of *nominalisation* which was a prevalent feature in GCSE history texts (section 5.5.7), the teacher's perception that she had understood this linguistic feature and had been using it as part of her pedagogy was not upheld by the classroom data (section 6.3.3). As a result of omitting to use *detailed reading* to identify and explain a key *nominalisation* in the reading stage of the filmed lesson, students lacked the necessary understanding to participate fully during the later writing stage and even then, the issue was left unaddressed (section 5.5.7). So, in this instance the teacher's perception of her knowledge was not consistent with her ability to consciously use it as part of classroom practice which showed that her understanding in this area had not been fully developed.

An associated finding concerning a lack of uptake of knowledge about language is related to the teacher's pre-existing bias against the use of grammar in history teaching (section 6.3.4). In this case she was resistant to taking up grammatical knowledge which she perceived as limiting for the teaching of history. Ironically, however, she was using this knowledge but without the terminology of traditional grammar that she rejected. The interview data suggests that the all too pervasive contextual factors of underlying pre-existing orientations to sentence level grammar and insufficient time to address these issues in more depth had also contributed to this lack of uptake (section 5.5.3).

Ultimately, however, three interrelated findings concerning the aspects of the pedagogy that were most readily taken up and impacted significantly on classroom practice were identified. Firstly, the finding concerning the impact of theoretical knowledge about pedagogy was verified by the planning and the enactment, towards the end of the school year, of the teacher designed, three-lesson curriculum *macrogenre* (section 6.3.5). The iterative PL process of workshop participation, reflective discussions, supported lesson planning and classroom implementation were all seen to contribute to this outcome (section 5.3).

Secondly, the enactment of the culminating *joint construction* stage of the planned three-lesson *macrogenre*, using information gained from reading as the resource for *argument* writing, demonstrated how knowledge about language and pedagogy from the PL had impacted significantly on the teacher learning (section 6.3.6). The classroom discourse showed how the teacher guided the class to produce a new text that combined the *field* of history and the *field* of historical discourse to meet the requirements of GCSE essay writing.

The key factor that underpinned all of the findings concerning the positive impact of the PL on planning and classroom practice was the impact of the theoretical understandings about *genre* (section 6.3.7). The understandings of this SFL-based concept enabled the difference between the *genres* of reading and writing in the GCSE history curriculum to become visible, this then motivated and guided the lesson planning and implementation of the three-lesson *macrogenre*. The combination of these factors is what essentially drove the teacher learning that resulted from implementation of the new pedagogy designed to resolve student difficulty in writing *argument* essays in the high-stakes GCSE history course.

The synthesis of findings from this research demonstrates that scaffolded literacy PL grounded in Systemic Functional Linguistics had a significant impact on the secondary teacher's knowledge about language and classroom practice, in spite of a lack of adoption of some more nuanced areas of learning. It enabled her to deepen her knowledge about historical discourse and to view it as legitimate 'content' for classroom teaching and learning. The PL supported her to plan and enact a sequence of lessons that made this content visible to students via explicit teaching based on the R2L classroom pedagogy. The data has shown that a discipline-based secondary school history teacher *can* take up

sufficient new knowledge about language and pedagogy to use productively in addressing the demands of the GCSE examination curriculum, even in the face of contextual challenges.

The next section discusses the implications of the research.

7.3 Implications of the research

The implications of this research focus on policy, initial teacher education, and additional possibilities for discipline-based teacher literacy learning.

7.3.1 Implications for PL policy

The implication of the first two findings related to research Question 1 concerns the issue of insufficient time currently being provided for transformational PL in England (*TALIS*, 2013). In the absence of national policies on PL, the implication of these findings is the necessity for school-based policies for PL. While this research focuses on PL in the area of literacy that has long been identified as a key area for improvement (section 7.1), the implication of the findings is also relevant to other priority areas in schools.

This study has provided an example of how the influence of a teacher's tacit theoretical orientations to teaching and learning can compromise PL by drawing a teacher back to previous practices when insufficient time is provided for extended, iterative PL. As secondary schools in England now have the responsibility for their own PL activities (section 1.7), it is important that they recognise the need to plan and budget for extended and scaffolded teacher learning to implement transformational change in teacher practice. However, due to the reliance of schools on government funding, I also argue that 'ring-fenced' budget allocations for PL would ensure that teacher learning needs are seen as a priority for schools.

The establishment of clear policy and guidelines for PL at the school or government level would accord teacher learning, particularly in key areas such as literacy, core activity status to position it on a par with student learning. Such a step would send a clear message that teacher PL should not be considered as an easily expendable 'add-on' (section 6.2.2). More than two decades of research into teacher PL offers advice (e.g. Hawley and Valli,

1999; McRae, et al., 2001; DE&T, 2005; Timperley, et al., 2007; Cordingley, et al., 2015;) that can be drawn on to establish policy for implementing the type of PL that goes beyond examination board updates and conference attendance to effect profound change in teacher practice. Without such policy and resources for implementation, transformational teacher learning initiatives run the risk of only partial adoption or teachers reverting completely to their previous practices (Timperley, et al., 2007).

7.3.2 Implications for initial teacher education

The implications of this study for teacher learning need not be limited to the PL context in schools as the genre-based knowledge about language and pedagogy could also be provided as part of initial teacher education, a current project in Spain (Garcia Parejo et al., 2017) provides an example of such an initiative. SFL-based courses for teaching reading and writing in the discipline areas have the potential to prepare all teachers to meet the literacy demands of their subject area. This pedagogy is particularly relevant to teachers of English as an Additional Language (EAL) and special education teachers and it is in fact in these areas where SFL-based genre pedagogy first developed in Australia (Rose & Martin, 2012).

7.3.3 Further implications for discipline-based literacy learning

Findings related to research Question 1 concerning the implementation of PL at the GCSE level have further implications for teacher learning at this level and more generally for PL in the context of the senior years of schooling. In spite of limited time and examination pressure, this environment proved to be conducive to teacher learning after only five days of workshops and additional school-based mentoring support. The implication is that, when support for teacher learning is provided, the highly specified nature of the GCSE course and the sense of 'urgency' created by the high-stakes examination environment can provide motivation and impetus for teacher learning. So, the examination environment should not automatically be regarded as too 'risky' for PL (section 6.2.4), instead the potential advantages of this context for PL should be considered.

Further to this, as the GCSE courses are specified by the examination boards and also have textbooks produced by their publication partners, genre-based teacher resources could be developed to accompany course books and materials to make more knowledge about

language and pedagogy explicit to teachers. Such resources could be designed to provide the type of guidance the history teacher received in workshops and school visits to identify and analyse the genres of reading texts and essay questions and also to model answers for essays, particularly in the under-represented but highly valued *argument* genre.

The extensive research that has taken place into genre pedagogy has developed a robust body of knowledge about how texts operate to make meaning in discipline areas including the senior years of schooling (e.g. Martin & Rose, 2008; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Dreyfus, et al., 2016). The use of technology for resource development (e.g. Dreyfus, et al., 2016) now also offers the potential to develop interactive resources for teacher learning that would avoid the type of problems associated with the reductionist version of genre writing that resulted from the use of static 'writing frames' for student learning in the NLS (section 1.4).

Apart from the GCSE years, teacher resources and even student textbooks that demonstrate how discipline-based reading texts make meaning and model how to develop genre-based academic writing skills using the content of relevant subjects could be developed by examination authorities, publishers, teacher organisations or universities. SFL-based genre resources for teachers that focus on both reading and writing could in fact be developed for any curriculum area and for any stage of education, from primary to tertiary.

The next section focuses on the strengths and limitations of the research.

7.4 Strengths and limitations of the research

This section draws on my reflections of the research process to review what I perceive as the strengths and limitations of the research. It focuses on the findings as well as my research journey, the design of the research, the practical constraints, the approach to the data analysis and the framework used for interpreting the data.

7.4.2 The design of the research

A strength in the design of this research has been the use of the methodological approach based on sociolinguistics which mirrors the approach to teacher professional learning and student classroom learning that are the basis of the study. This led to the use of

complementary data collection methods such as surveys, filming of classroom teaching, documentation of workshop and mentoring discussions, interviews and a review of curriculum and classroom documents. All of these methods produced a range of different types of data that contributed to the qualitative notion of developing a 'thick description' of the environment and the educational activities. The filming of the classroom teaching was a key method of data collection that produced not only detailed transcripts for linguistic analysis but enabled the classroom interactions to be analysed for other semiotic modes of communication.

Nonetheless, even with the collection of a broad range of data from the seven teachers participating in the PL, pragmatic issues affected most teachers in some way to put constraints on the data I could legitimately include in the research. School demands on teacher time and timetable changes restricted opportunities for filming and some teachers' attendance at the PL workshops. The submission of incomplete documentation and insufficient data effectively eliminated some teachers from the research process. These issues, however, can be used to provide a model for the type of contingencies that need to be planned for in future studies by other school-based researchers. Thus, the rich range of data provided by the history teacher combined with the unfulfilled historic call for *all* teachers to become teachers of English (Sampson, 1922) led me to focus my study on the uptake of the PL by the GCSE history teacher who had no previous experience of PL in the area of language and literacy (section 4.4.2).

While the scope of the study is limited to a single teacher, it has produced a unique set of detailed empirical findings that contribute to understanding *how* a discipline-based secondary teacher takes up literacy learning from PL and employs it in the classroom. As teacher uptake of learning from PL opportunities has been identified as an under-researched area (Timperley et al., 2007) in this context the contribution of this study can be seen as significant.

7.4.3 Approach to the data analysis

The approach to the data analysis is congruent with the qualitative research methodology and enabled me to develop new skills in discourse and multimodal analysis. My previous experience with SFL guided discourse analysis had been predominantly with the synoptic analysis of written texts, so the analysis of classroom discourse with a focus on the

interpersonal metafunction and the register variable of *tenor* presented new learning challenges.

As the synoptic approach to discourse analysis does not take account of the dynamic nature of classroom interaction, I also included some aspects of multimodal analysis which was also a relatively new experience for me.

Nonetheless, a further layer of analysis was needed to analyse the micro-interactions between the teacher and students to determine the uptake of the designed R2L discourse pattern which is the hallmark of the pedagogy. To address this issue, the SFL system of *negotiation* was drawn on to analyse the patterned ways in which teachers enact *exchanges* with students (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 219).

The strength of this combination of fine-grained linguistic analysis and aspects of multimodal analysis of the classroom interactions yielded some new and unexpected findings. This analytical approach revealed the teacher's use of multi-semiotic pedagogic practices that would have remained invisible without the multimodal aspect of the analysis. When spoken and body language were used congruently as a pedagogic tools, I was able to discern a phenomenon that I termed 'semiotic assonance' (section 5.3.8).

Furthermore, as the SFL system of *negotiation* has been applied to the analysis of classroom discourse in numerous studies, it enabled a comparison of the classroom interactions during *joint construction* in my study with the findings from similar studies (Dreyfus et al. 2011; Macnaught, 2015) which adds a measure of external validity to this component of my study (see section 4.3.2).

7.4.4 Framework for interpreting the data

The *BES* meta-research into teacher professional learning (Timperley et al., 2007) provided some valuable insights into PL that have been used extensively as a guide to the data interpretation and thus strengthened my findings. The *BES* meta-research represents a watershed in research into PL as it transcends the previous type of research that resulted in lists of recommended features for successful PL.

One of the key concepts from the *BES* meta-research that inspired my study is the notion of the under-explored 'black box' of teacher learning (section 3.5) that invites an investigation of the relationship between PL and classroom teaching. The *BES framework* of five typical teacher responses to PL has been repeatedly used in this study as guide to discern the teacher's level of uptake of different aspects of the pedagogy. The use of the framework has lent internal validity to this study of a single teacher by enabling her responses to have a certain level of comparability with the responses of large cohorts of teachers from multiple PL studies. I drew on a number of concepts from the *BES* that resonated strongly with the data generated by my study. Two of the meta-research concepts that were productive were the notion of teacher action being guided by tacit, personal theories of action, and the assertion concerning the need for teachers to experience dissonance between old and new theories and practices in order for substantive uptake of new learning to occur. The conceptual resources provided by the *BES* meta-research, however, were used to illuminate the interpretation of the data and are not considered as tools for data analysis.

In conclusion, as this study focuses on the case of a single teacher it has allowed the innovative use of a combination of SFL-based linguistic and multimodal analyses to provide a rich account of the teacher's uptake of the genre-based PL. This contributes to describing more precisely *how* the teacher took up the opportunities provided by the PL and moves beyond the anecdotal level of previous genre-based research (section 4.2.1).

7.5 Recommendations for future research

Many possibilities for future research can be proposed as a result of further questions raised by this study of the impact of SFL-based literacy professional learning on a discipline-based teacher's knowledge about language and classroom pedagogy. Further research could be undertaken on the uptake of teacher learning from this or similar SFL based PL with teachers from a range of school contexts: primary, secondary or tertiary. Nonetheless, to build on the findings of the research undertaken here, I make three specific suggestions for future research and conclude with a more general recommendation for the use of SFL based research techniques.

The notion of *impact* was restricted in this study by practical factors to the impact of the PL on a single teacher's classroom practice. However, future research could also study the

impact of teacher practice on student participation in learning and/or on student learning outcomes as this went beyond the scope of my study being undertaken by a lone-researcher in a time-limited PhD programme. The research could be carried out using the same multi-semiotic analytical approach that was used in this study and the qualitative data from the student perceptions and classroom participation could be compared with the parallel teacher data to build a picture of the *impact* of new learning from PL for both the teacher and the students.

To include an examination of the impact of teacher practice on student learning outcomes in a future study, the thwarted plans to include student data in this study could be considered (section 4.4.6). The plans were based on the notion of 'triangulation' or cross-examination of data (Jick, 1979), so a future study with a mixed methods approach could collect qualitative student learning data by using SFL based discourse analysis of pre- and post-programme writing samples to be cross-referenced with pre- and post-programme quantitative data in the form of scores from standardised reading comprehension and writing tests. This would enhance the validity of the findings concerning the impact of a new teaching approach from PL on student learning. The findings concerning student learning could be further compared with the student perception data from focus group interviews. An approach such as this could contribute to producing findings concerning a broader notion of *impact* than was able to be explored in this study.

A further possibility for future research into a similar PL process would be to focus on more than one teacher and conduct comparative studies. Using a qualitative approach, data could be collected from two or more teachers from one subject area, either from the same or different year levels. Alternatively, teachers at similar year levels but from different subject areas could be the focus of a study. Such comparative studies would contribute to building a more comprehensive picture of how SFL-based PL is taken up in different contexts. It would also allow for specific issues that emerged from this research to be explored further. For example, the finding concerning the teacher's lack of uptake of the more technical aspects of language at the level of the sentence is an area that warrants further exploration. The cumulative effects of such studies could begin to explain more precisely the cause and effect relationships between PL and its impact on classroom teaching.

Beyond the sphere of research into PL, educators involved in initial teacher training could similarly include genre-based pedagogy in courses for prospective teachers in any subject area and conduct research into the development of their students' subject knowledge by investigating the uptake of the pedagogy their classrooms.

I conclude the discussion of future research possibilities with a more general recommendation arising from this study. In addition to demonstrating more precisely *how* a teacher uses the opportunities from PL in classroom teaching, this study has highlighted the potential contribution that SFL-based discourse analysis combined with multimodal analysis can make to understanding the complex nature of classroom interaction. I am particularly interested in the findings concerning the use of the multi-semiotic classroom practices that were identified as a result of this analytic approach. I would therefore suggest that this study be used as springboard for further research that pursues this potentially productive area of investigation.

This approach to analysis has the potential not only to account for classroom practices that are specified as part of a pedagogical sequence, but it may also be able to account more specifically for the unexamined intuitive practices of classroom teachers. This would enable a broader range of classroom practices to become visible and their articulation would allow for further discussion and critique of a range of pedagogical practices.

7.6 Final reflections

In conclusion, I argue that this detailed qualitative study of a teacher's uptake of SFL-based literacy professional learning makes a significant contribution to understanding what is in fact the essence of teaching discipline-based knowledge. The findings have demonstrated how a teacher can learn to use new knowledge about language and pedagogy to analyse the meanings in curriculum texts and plan classroom interactions to support students to understand the content of the texts and also learn to guide students to read texts as resources with patterned ways of making meaning that can be used to scaffold writing. By making visible the multi-semiotic classroom interactions around reading and writing, the study has exemplified *how* a teacher can learn to enact a scaffolded approach to discipline-based literacy teaching.

In the current education climate quantitative measures of student learning have become the arbiter of teacher efficacy (section 3.2) but the focus on quantitative outcomes elides the detail of associated classroom practices that promote the valued learning. However, the type of fine-grained qualitative work produced by this study can contribute to building a description of the equally important, yet more elusive, aspects of *how* discipline-based learning might take place. Therefore, an opportunity exists for this type of research to work synergistically with quantitative data to emphasise teaching processes that focus on instructional discourse and foster learning so that the interpersonal aspects of classroom interaction can also be identified, valued and promoted alongside measurable examination outcomes. Qualitative descriptions such as these need to be highlighted by the education research community in order to emphasise the complex and interpersonal nature of teaching and learning processes, thus, building a more comprehensive picture of *how* classroom teaching contributes to learning.

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Appendices

I.   Proposal for teacher participation in the professional learning and the research

Proposal for *Reading to Learn (R2L)* teacher professional development in selected London schools 2015-2016 as part of a PhD research scholarship from the Open University, UK, Centre for Research in Education and Education Technologies (CREET).

Synopsis:

The professional development will be cost free as the researcher's costs are covered by a stipend from the Open University. It is suitable for schools that are seeking improved literacy and learning outcomes for students. Teachers who volunteer for the programme should be open learners who use (or would like to use) reading and writing regularly in their classrooms and are willing to:

1. participate in a cross-curricular literacy professional development programme; and,
2. progressively apply the knowledge about language from the programme to the selection of texts, lesson preparation, implementation of the pedagogy in the classroom and assessment of student learning during the 2016-2017 school year.

Teachers will participate in 5 days of professional development (e.g. 2 two-day, and 1 one-day workshops spaced over the course of a whole school year), at [name of school] (dates TBA). They will be provided with print and video resources to support their learning and the workshop leader will visit them regularly at the school to support them in all aspects of their learning, lesson preparation and classroom implementation.

Concurrently, the workshop leader, in the role of researcher, will collect a range of data from the teachers and their students. Pre- and post-programme reading and writing data will be collected from a representative sample of students in each class: 2 high achieving, 2 students from the middle range and 2 low achieving students. Students will also be asked to complete group response surveys about their perceptions of the impact of the pedagogy.

Teacher data will consist of online surveys, segments of filmed classroom talk while 'preparing for reading' and other stages in the (R2L) pedagogy cycle, teacher interviews about lesson preparation and perceptions of the pedagogy as well as samples of curriculum texts and lesson planning documents.

Background

Reading is a fundamental resource for learning in school, but students have widely divergent skills in learning from reading. Differences in the capacity to learn from reading underlie the inequalities in outcomes that continue to plague education systems (e.g. PISA, PIRLS). The ongoing debate (Harvey et al., 2012; Gibb & Rosen, 2013) over which teaching methods are most effective often elides the complexity of this issue. To achieve equity in education, a better understanding of how to teach reading and how to learn from reading well beyond the early years of schooling is needed. Further research into this issue has the potential to contribute new insights capable of providing additional pedagogical tools for teachers to address inequity.

Since 2002 I have been a leader of large-scale in-service teacher education programmes in Australia and Europe that aim to enable teachers to understand and manage the complexity of the task of teaching reading (Acevedo 2011; Coffin, Acevedo & Lövstedt 2013; Culican 2005; Rose & Acevedo 2006a) using the genre-based *Reading to Learn* pedagogy (Rose 2008, 2011, 2015; Rose & Martin, 2012). The pedagogy is designed to embed the teaching of reading and writing within curriculum learning at all levels of education. It provides teachers with the linguistic and pedagogic tools to support their students to read curriculum texts with comprehension, and to write texts of all types. The programme data and project evaluations have shown that learning outcomes improve for all groups of learners with the greatest gains being made by the lowest achieving students (Acevedo, 2011; Coffin, Acevedo & Lövstedt, 2013; Culican, 2005; Rose, 2011; Rose & Acevedo, 2006).

The knowledge about language provided as part of the professional development programme is informed by Systemic Functional Linguistic theory (SFL) and 'Sydney School' genre theory (Martin, Christie & Rothery, 1987; Rose, 2008). The knowledge about pedagogy is informed by social learning theory (Bruner, 1986; Vygotsky, 1978), and sociology of education (Bernstein 1996/2000). However, the knowledge about language and pedagogy provided in the programme is deliberately 'recontextualised' from these

informing theories, to be directly applicable by teachers in their tasks of lesson planning, teaching and evaluation of students' progress (Rose & Martin, 2012).

II.   Teacher information and consent form

Information sheet and consent form for research participation:

Title of research: Bringing language to consciousness: teacher professional learning in genre-based reading pedagogy

Aims of the research project

I am a doctoral student at the Open University, and I plan to deliver 5 days of teacher professional development in Genre based reading and writing pedagogy underpinned by the Functional Model of Language. This approach to both reading and writing, developed in Australia, has recently been trialled in projects in continental Europe but is relatively new to the UK. Each workshop will provide new knowledge about language drawn from Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1975 & 1989) and, along with subsequent classroom practice, will provide new skills in teaching reading and writing in the subject areas. Each workshop will also involve planning lessons within teachers' curriculum programmes, and assessing students' growth in literacy and learning. I am interested in finding out how teachers' tacit knowledge about the role of language in pedagogy develops, as it is brought to consciousness during the programme by collecting data on how teachers use the knowledge from the professional development to teach curriculum genres in the classroom over the course of an academic year. Secondly, I will investigate the extent to which this developing teacher knowledge impacts on student learning outcomes.

Involvement of schools and teachers

The professional development will be provided at no charge to schools as part of the research process with the Open University. It is suitable for schools that have literacy improvement as a development priority. Teachers who volunteer for the programme should

be open learners who use (or would like to use) reading and writing regularly in their classrooms and are willing to:

1. participate in a cross-curricular literacy professional learning programme, and,
2. progressively apply the knowledge about language from the programme to the selection of texts, lesson preparation, implementation of the pedagogy in the classroom and assessment of student learning during the 2015-2016 school year.

Teachers will participate in 5 days of professional development (spaced over the course of two schools terms). Print and video resources will be provided and will be used to support the learning and the workshop leader will visit teachers regularly at the school to support them in all aspects of their learning and in initial lesson preparation and classroom implementation.

The workshop leader will also act in the role of researcher and will collect a range of data from the teachers and their students. Teacher data will consist of two brief online surveys, the first one to collect background information about teachers and their "research class" and a second survey to collect information about the classroom implementation. Segments of classroom talk from different stages in the pedagogy cycle will be filmed (for transcription and analysis) to determine how teachers are using knowledge from the professional development to teach in the classroom. Teacher interviews about lesson preparation and perceptions of the pedagogy as well as samples of curriculum texts and lesson planning documents will provide important contextual information for the classroom videos.

To gauge if there is an impact on student learning, pre- and post-programme reading and writing data will be collected from a representative sample of students in each class: 2 high achieving, 2 students from the middle range and 2 low achieving students. Reading comprehension scores on standardised tests will provide an "objective" measure to guard against bias in the researcher graded writing samples. Students will also be asked to complete group response surveys about their perceptions of the impact of the pedagogy.

Confidentiality and data security

All names and identifying features of participants in the research, including the name of the school, will be made anonymous and every effort will be made to ensure no harm will

come to participants in the professional development. Data will be treated securely and stored on the researcher's computer and not used for any purposes, other than those described below, without prior consent and will be destroyed after five years. It is hoped the research will be published at a later date and will be available on the world wide web so student literacy results, samples of analysed curriculum texts and lesson plans may be used in these publications. Transcribed and analysed excerpts of teacher classroom talk and comments from teacher and student surveys may be quoted directly in publications but direct quotations will be anonymised. Classroom films will not be used for any purposes other than researcher transcription unless prior consent is obtained. You will be provided with a summary of the research findings on request.

Ethical safeguards

The research will adhere to the standard BERA (British Educational Research Association) and BPS (British Psychological Society) guidelines. Links to the guidelines can be found below.
https://www.bera.ac.uk/researchers-resources/publications/ethical-guidelines-for-educational-research-2011http://www.bps.org.uk/what-we-do/ethics-standards/ethics-standards
You have the right to withdraw from the research at any time until the end of Summer term 2016 before the data processing has commenced by emailing myself claire.acevedo@open.ac.uk.

Further information

If you have any questions you would like me to answer before deciding whether or not to give your consent, please email me as above.

If you would like to consent, please sign and return the form to me below by (insert date).

Centre for Research in Education and Educational Technologies

Consent form for persons participating in a research project

Title: Bringing language to consciousness: teacher professional learning in genre-based reading pedagogy

Name of participant: _____

Name of principal investigator(s): Claire Acevedo

1.   I consent to participate in this project, the details of which have been explained to me, and I have been provided with a written statement in plain language to keep.

2.   I understand that my participation will involve case study methodology and an examination of my classroom talk and I agree that the researcher may use the results as described in the plain language statement.

3.   I acknowledge that:

(a) the possible effects of participating in this research have been explained to my satisfaction;

(b) I have been informed that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without explanation or prejudice and prior the end of the summer term 2016 any unprocessed data I have provided will be returned to me;

(c) the project is for the purpose of research;

(d) I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded subject to any legal requirements;

(e) I have been informed that with my consent the data generated will be stored on the researcher's computer and will be destroyed after five years;

(f) data from me will be referred to by a pseudonym in any print or online publications arising from the research;

(g) I have been informed that a summary copy of the research findings will be forwarded to me, should I request this.

I consent to my classroom teaching being audio-taped/video-recorded   ☐ **yes** ☐ **no**
(please tick)

I wish to receive a copy of the summary project report on research findings
☐ **yes** ☐ **no** (please tick)

Participant signature: _____

Date:_____

Claire Acevedo

Claire.Acevedo@open.ac.uk   Tel: 07826814284

The Open University,
CREET (Centre for Research in Education and Education Technology)

III. Student parental information and consent form

Study: Bringing language to consciousness:
teacher training in a language-based approach to teaching reading and writing in secondary school subjects

Claire Acevedo (doctoral researcher)

Parent/ Guardian Consent

I …………………………………………………………… (name), give my consent for my child ……………………………………………………………..(name) to have his/her comments recorded (anonymously) for transcription during filming of classroom teaching as part of Claire Acevedo's PhD study into teacher training in a language-based approach to teaching reading in secondary school subjects.

I understand that stretches of language taken from the films may be quoted in Claire Acevedo's PhD thesis and may be used in future academic research presentations and publications in print and on the world wide web but that any direct quotations will be anonymous.

I understand that I may withdraw my consent at any time both during the filming in Spring and Summer terms in 2016 and any data collected from my child will be discarded.

   I agree that direct quotations may be used in PhD thesis and may be used in future academic research presentations and publications in print and on the world wide web. (please tick)

Signature ………………………………………………………………………

Date ……………………………………………

Study: Bringing language to consciousness:

teacher training in a language-based approach to teaching reading and writing in secondary school subjects

Claire Acevedo (doctoral researcher)

Information for Parents and Guardians

Dear Parent/Guardian

My name is Claire Acevedo and I am a researcher from the Open University. I seek your permission to allow your child to participate in a research project that his/her teacher ………………………………………………….. is participating in as part of his/her continuing professional training in teaching reading and writing in secondary school subjects.

As part of the data collection for the research your child's teacher has agreed to be filmed in a small number of lessons during the Spring and Summer terms, 2016, so that his/her talk can be transcribed and analysed as part of the research.

Your child **will not be filmed** but if your child speaks to the teacher or the class during the segment of a lesson that is being filmed, those comments might be recorded on the audio tape of the film. If your child's voice is recorded, this form seeks your consent to allow your child's comments to be used anonymously in the transcription of the classroom talk for the purposes of the research.

If you agree, please sign the accompanying form and return it to your child's teacher before (insert date). You can withdraw permission for your child to participate in the research at any time during the filming period and until the end of summer 2016 when the research data collection process will be completed. If you would like to discuss the research with someone at the school, or of you wish to withdraw at a later date please feel free to contact: ………………………….. (insert telephone and email address) and your child's data will be discarded. All data from the project will be discarded after 5 years.

If you do not wish your child to participate you do not need to do anything. Any children who have not returned consent forms will have any comments they might make during the lesson deleted from the film.

Best wishes

Claire Acevedo
(Claire.Acevedo@open.ac.uk)

IV. Open University Ethics Committee Approval

The Open University

From	Dr Duncan Banks
	Deputy Chair, The Open University Human Research Ethics Committee
Email	duncan.banks@open.ac.uk
Extension	59198
To	Claire Acevedo, CREET
Subject	*"Bringing language to consciousness: teacher professional learning in genre based reading pedagogy."*
HREC Ref	HREC/2015/2133/Acevedo/1
AMS ref	n/a
Submitted	8 December 2015
Date	17 December 2015

Memorandum

This memorandum is to confirm that the research protocol for the above-named research project, as submitted for ethics review, has been given a **favourable opinion** by the Open University Human Research Ethics Committee. Please note the following;

1. You are responsible for notifying the HREC immediately of any information received by you, or of which you become aware which would cast doubt on, or alter, any information contained in the original application, or a later amendment which would raise questions about the safety and/or continued conduct of the research.

2. It is essential that any proposed amendments to the research are sent to the HREC for review, so they can be recorded and a favourable opinion given prior to the any changes being implemented (*except only in cases of emergency when the welfare of the participant or researcher is may be effected*).

3. You are authorised to present this memorandum to outside bodies such as NHS Research Ethics Committees in support of any application for future research clearance. Also, where there is an external ethics review, a copy of the application and outcome should be sent to the HREC.

4. OU research ethics review procedures are fully compliant with the majority of grant awarding bodies and their frameworks for research ethics.

5. At the conclusion of your project, by the date stated in your application, you are required to provide the Committee with a final report to reflect how the project has progressed, and importantly whether any ethics issues arose and how they were dealt with. A copy of the final report template can be found on the research ethics website – http://www.open.ac.uk/research/ethics/human-research/human-research-ethics-full-review-process-and-proforma#final report.

Regards,

Dr Duncan Banks
Deputy Chair OU HREC

V. Enhanced Certificate from the Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS)

Enhanced Certificate

Page 1 of 2

Disclosure & Barring Service

DBS Fee Charged	**Certificate Number** 001512851200
	Date of Issue: 11 DECEMBER 2015

Applicant Personal Details

Employment Details

Surname: ACEVEDO

Forename(s): MARGARET CLAIRE

Other Names: ATHERTON, MARGARET CLAIRE

Date of Birth: 01 APRIL 1954

Place of Birth: FRANKSTON AUSTRALIA

Gender: FEMALE

Position applied for:
CHILD WORKFORCE RESEARCHER

Name of Employer:
ST THOMAS MORE CATHOLIC SCHOOL

Countersignatory Details

Registered Person/Body:
STRICTLY EDUCATION LIMITED

Countersignatory:
EVELYN FARRANT

Police Records of Convictions, Cautions, Reprimands and Warnings

NONE RECORDED

Information from the list held under Section 142 of the Education Act 2002

NONE RECORDED

DBS Children's Barred List information

NONE RECORDED

DBS Adults' Barred List information

NOT REQUESTED

Other relevant information disclosed at the Chief Police Officer(s) discretion

NONE RECORDED

Enhanced Certificate

This document is an Enhanced Criminal Record Certificate within the meaning of sections 113B and 116 of the Police Act 1997.

THIS CERTIFICATE IS NOT EVIDENCE OF IDENTITY

Disclosure and Barring Service, PO Box 165, Liverpool, L69 3JD Helpline: 03000 200 190

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VI. Copy of Questions for Online Teacher Survey No. 1. Background information

Screen capture of a page from Survey No.1 administered online using SurveyMonkey:

N.B. The questions that follow are those that were approved by the Open University Ethics Committee. The approved questions were used to generate the online survey questions which in some cases had to be reworded to be compatible with the template options available in the SurveyMonkey programme.

Questions used to generate Online Survey No. 1.

This survey has 14 questions and should take around 15 minutes to complete. It is designed to collect information about you as a teacher, the class you have chosen for implementation of the *Reading to Learn* pedagogy and some information about how you currently use and explicitly teach reading and writing with this class. Comments boxes have been included after some of the questions so that you can provide additional information.

1. Pre-programme information

Name	
School	
Teaching experience (years)	
Subjects currently taught	
Year groups currently taught	

The following questions refer specifically to the class that has been chosen as your research class for 2015-16

2. Which group of students will be your research class?

Subject	
Year level	
Number of students in the class	
Number of lessons you teach these students per week	
Length of lessons (minutes)	
Provide some general background information about this class using percentages:	
English speakers	
EAL	

Learning difficulties	
Pupil Premium	

If Pupil Premium students are involved in any intervention programmes please comment:

Comments box

Additional information about your class e.g. Mixed ability, streamed, withdrawal group, elective subject etc.

Comments box

3. Before this professional development course, did you use **reading** as part of your usual classroom practice?   Yes ☐   No ☐   (X)

If yes, how often did you use reading in your class:

- ☐ Every lesson
- ☐ Once or twice a week
- ☐ Occasionally

Comments box

4. Before this professional development course, did you explicitly teach **reading** as part of your usual classroom pedagogy? Yes ☐   No ☐   (X)

If yes, name the method(s) you used (X) :

☐ Pre, During and Post Reading Activities [SRE framework],

☐ Guided Reading,

☐ DARTs:

☐ Cloze,

☐ Text Reconstruction,

☐ Text Marking

☐ Text Sequencing

☐ EXIT model,

☐ Skimming,

☐ Scanning

☐ Reading for Detail

☐ Other

Comments box

AND/OR describe how you taught reading e.g. Whole class reading aloud with teacher explanation and oral comprehension questions, pre teaching new vocabulary, group reading, silent reading and comprehension questions, drama etc.

Comments box

9. How often do you use the categories of texts below for teaching and learning in your research class? Use the comments box to provide additional information as necessary.

	Often	Sometimes	Never
Published textbooks for my subject			
Library books for curriculum learning			
Subject specific journals			

Newspapers			
Cached Educational Internet material			
Material from the World Wide Web			
Literary texts			
Easy reading materials			
Texts written for EAL learners			
Visual and multimodal texts			
Excerpts from a variety of sources			
Self-authored Materials			
Other (name or describe)			

Comments box

10. Before this professional development course, did you use **writing** as part of your usual classroom practice? Yes / No

If yes, how often did you use writing:

Every lesson ☐

Once or twice a week ☐

Occasionally ☐

Comments box

11. Before this professional development course, did you explicitly teach **writing** as part of your usual classroom pedagogy? Yes ☐ No ☐ (X)

If yes, name the method(s) you used:

☐ Process Writing,

☐ Genre Writing

☐ Graphic Outlines

☐ Writing Frames

☐Teaching and Learning Cycle

☐Other

Comments box

AND/OR describe how you taught writing e.g. guide questions, text structure, models of writing, grammar exercises and word study, re-writing from notes, sentences starters etc.

Comments box

12. Roughly, how many written texts are students in your research class required to produce in a year?

None ☐

1-3 ☐

4-6 ☐

7-9 ☐

10 or more ☐

Comments box

13. How often do students in your research class **write** the types of texts below?

Use the comments box to provide additional information as necessary

	Often	Sometimes	Never
Fiction/Stories: e.g. personal recounts and narratives			
Factual/Informative texts: e.g. descriptive reports, historical recounts, biographies, explanations, instructions			
Opinion/ Persuasive texts: e.g. reviews, arguments, text responses			
Other:			

Comments box

14. Why did you decide to do the Reading to Learn professional development?

Comments box

306

Name: _____

1. What degree of impact do you think the Reading to Learn (R2L) professional development had on your understanding of:	Major impact Tick ✓	Some impact ✓	Not sure ✓	No significant impact
how language operates in different texts (or genres) to make meaning?				
how language operates in different school subjects to make meaning?				
the reading and writing process?				
Comments:				

2. How many hours did you spend during the year studying the course materials and preparing lessons? Tick ✓		
More than 20 hours		Comments:
Less than 10 hours		
10 - 20 hours		

3. How often did you use the Reading to Learn pedagogy in your classroom? Tick ✓		
6 or more lessons per week		Comments:
3-5 lessons per week		
1-2 lessons per week		
from time to time		

4. Over what period of time did you implement R2L in your classroom? Tick ✓		
Less than 10 weeks		Comments:

Between 10 and 20 weeks		
More than 20 weeks		

5. How many texts were you able to identify, analyse and prepare for Reading to Learn lessons? Tick ✓		
More than 7 texts		Comments:
4-6 texts		
1-5 texts		
None		

6. How frequently did you prepare and explore the following kinds of texts?	Often ✓	Sometimes ✓	Never ✓
Stories (i.e. Recount, Narrative genres, Anecdote etc.)			
Informative (i.e. Recount, Report, Explanation, procedural genres)			
Persuasive (i.e. Argument, Discussion, Review, Text Response genres)			
Comments:			

7. How often did you implement the different levels of the R2L pedagogy over the school year?	Regularly ✓	Often ✓	Seldom ✓	Never ✓
Level 1 strategies - Outer Circle – Preparing before reading, Paragraph by paragraph reading and note-taking, joint construction and independent writing				
Level 2 strategies – Inner circle – detailed reading, joint rewriting and individual rewriting				
Level 3 strategies – Centre circle- Sentence making, Sentence writing and spelling				

Comments:

8. What degree of impact do you think the Reading to Learn Professional development had on your approach to the teaching of reading and writing? ✓	Major impact	Some impact	Not sure	No significant impact
Comments:				

9. What degree of impact do you think the Reading to Learn Professional development had on your approach to the teaching of:	Major impact ✓	Some impact✓	Not sure ✓	no significant impact ✓
the structure of story texts				
the language of story texts				
the structure of informative texts				
the language of informative texts				
the structure of opinion texts				
the language of opinion texts				
Comments:				

10. How likely are you to continue to implement the Reading to Learn strategies in your classroom in the future? Tick ✓	Very likely	Likely	Unlikely	Not sure
Comments:				

VIII. Copy of Questions for Post-programme teacher interview:

(interviews conducted June - July 2016)

What effect do you think the genre-based PD had on your knowledge about language and learning, if any?

What effect do you think it had on your classroom teaching, if any?

What effect do you think it had on your students' language and learning, if any?

Thinking about our R2L PD: the knowledge about language, the genres and the Reading to Learn pedagogy cycle with its different strategies, can you tell me how you would go about planning a lesson or series of R2L lessons, for example how would you select and analyse a text/s to plan for reading?

How would you plan for the writing part of the lesson?

When you are teaching a R2L lesson (reading or writing), how important do you think it is to use the Genre terminology about the purpose of texts, stages phases? Would you prefer to use traditional grammar terms or the functional terms – who, what, what doing, where and when? Why?

Do you think it is important to teach this terminology to your students? Why or why not?

If you did teach this terminology, did the students use it? And do you think it helped them?

What if any difference did you notice in students writing after R2L lessons?

What do you think about the R2L lesson sequence compared to how you would usually structure a lesson?

Further comments invited.

IX. Analysis of a GCSE History text used by Carolyn

From: Chapter 17 - How much opposition was there to the Nazis in Germany during the war years? (*The USA 1910-1929 & Germany 1929-1947* (Wright, et al., 2010, p.189- 196).

Section C: War and its impact on life in Germany, 1939–47

What opposition was there to Nazi rule within Germany from civilians?

The Nazis faced opposition during the war from several youth groups as well as from religious leaders.

▶ **Young people**

Not all young people accepted attempts to convert them to Nazi ideas through education and youth movements. By the end of the 1930s a number of gangs emerged that opposed Nazi attempts to control all aspects of their life. As the war developed, however, these gangs began to organise opposition to the war itself.

▶ **The Edelweiss Pirates**

Many of the gangs eventually became part of a national resistance group known as the Edelweiss Pirates, named after the distinctive edelweiss flower they used as an emblem. Pirates wore check shirts and dark trousers. At weekends they would go on hikes, meet other groups and hope to beat up Hitler Youth patrols. The local groups gave themselves very distinctive names, such as the Roving Dudes, Kittelbach Pirates and the Navajos.

During the Second World War they collected propaganda leaflets dropped by Allied bombers

and pushed them through people's doors. They also provided shelter to deserters from the armed forces. In November 1944 Barthel Schink, the 16-year-old leader of the Cologne Pirates, was one of 12 members of this group publically hanged by the **Gestapo**. They were denied a trial and were collectively charged with killing five people and planning an attack on the Gestapo headquarters in Cologne.

Source B A song from the Edelweiss Pirates

Hark the hearty fellows sing
Strum that banjo, pluck the string!
And the lassies all join in.
We're getting rid of Hitler,
And he can't do a thing.

We march by banks of Ruhr and Rhine
And smash the Hitler Youth in twain.
Our song is freedom, love and life,
We're pirates of the Edelweiss.

Excerpt from textbook (p.190) analysed below for preparation for *Detailed reading*

Re-typed example of SFL-based genre text analysis (paragraphs 1 above)

Genre: Historical account, **Purpose:** to account for events in the past **Structure:** events unfold in time through causal links **Stages:** Background, historical stages	
1. **Background to the macro-account** on civilian opposition in this section of the chapter (pp.190 – 192) 2. **Background to the account** in this section of the chapter on youth opposition (pp.190 -191)	The Nazis faced opposition during the war from several youth groups as well as from religious leaders.

This first paragraph of just one sentence has an important dual purpose in the textbook. At the level of the *macrogenre* concerning civilian opposition, by answering the questions posed by the chapter title it provides a brief background to the six short texts and

accompanying primary sources on the following three pages of the textbook (three texts about opposition from youth groups and three texts about opposition from religious groups). At the same time, however, it acts as background to three texts that provide accounts of youth opposition. This is an example of the 'nesting' of texts within a *macrogenre* (see section 5.2.5).

Re-typed example of SFL-based genre text analysis (paragraph 2 above)

Subsection	Young people
Background to account of young people's opposition (double page spread pp.190 - 191) Explanation (<u>set in time</u>) - reasons why youth opposition to Nazis. Then, <u>developed over time </u>- purposes changed in response to the war.	Not all young people accepted attempts to convert them to Nazi ideas through education and youth movements. <u>By the end of the 1930s</u> a number of gangs emerged that opposed Nazi attempts to control all aspects of their life. <u>As the war developed</u>, however, these gangs began to organize opposition to the war itself.

The first sentence again provides background by specifying that *Not all..* (in *theme* position) young people opposed the Nazis, the inferential reading is that most young people had been converted to Nazi ideas. The *new* information in the second part of the sentence, clarifies this inference and is linked to the *macrogenre* of the textbook to clarify information in a previous chapter which explained how German children were encouraged to join Hitler Youth and to feel hate towards Jewish people via propaganda, classroom lessons and school textbooks (section 5.2.5). So, the opening sentence begins by qualifying the information provided in preceding chapters, *Not all… young people had been converted*. This is a further example of how texts nested in a *macrogenre* need to be read inferentially due to their links to texts in other sections of a textbook *macrogenre*.

The second paragraph (above) provides a brief *account* of the *reasons why* the youth groups (subsequently named as *gangs)* formed and then *how* their nature changed in response to the war. The final sentence then moves the text into the time of the *war itself* and the role of the *gangs*, providing the chronological setting for the next part of the text.

However, what follows in the next two paragraphs (below) begins as an *historical recount* of the activities of one gang, The Edelweiss Pirates. It is not until the final paragraph where the Nazi response to the resistance activities of the gang makes an inferential cause and effect link to the consequences for the group of their activities.

Re-typed example of SFL-based genre text analysis (Paragraphs 3 & 4 above)

Genre: Historical recount, Purpose: to recount events in the past, Structure: event organised	
The Edelweiss Pirates	
Background to recount of Edelweiss Pirates (p. 190) Recount of resistance activities Examples of strong local group identities	Many of the gangs <u>eventually</u> became part of a national resistance group known as the Edelweiss Pirates, named after the distinctive edelweiss flower they used as an emblem. Pirates wore check shirts and dark trousers. <u>At weekends they would go</u> on hikes, meet other groups and hope to beat up Hitler Youth patrols. The local groups gave themselves very distinctive names, such as Roving Dudes, Kittlebach Pirates and the Navajos.
Recount of wartime resistance activities Inferential cause and effect relationship between recounted activities of the group and the fatal consequences of their opposition to the Nazis	<u>During the Second World War</u> they collected propaganda leaflets dropped by Allied bombers and pushed them through people's doors. They also provided shelter to deserters from the armed forces. <u>In November 1944</u> Barthel Schink, the 16-year-old leader of the Cologne Pirates, was one of 12 members of this group publicly hanged by the Gestapo. They were denied a trial and were collectively charged with killing five people and planning an attack on the Gestapo headquarters in Cologne.

The authors of this textbook frequently provide a brief *account* of events together with more detailed *recounts* of events with specific examples that students are required to read inferentially as being related in different ways to the question that the section of the textbook addresses. Texts such as these provide information that students can use as evidence in examination style writing tasks where they are required to evaluate historical events. The textbook is produced by the examination board's publication partner, so it follows very closely the GCSE exam board's specifications. There are, however, very few examples of extended argument essays in the textbook for teachers and students to use as models for writing.

X. Example of Appraisal analysis of the post-programme teacher interview

Extracts from Carolyn's post-programme interview, some of which appear in the body of the thesis, are tabulated below. They have been analysed using tools selected from the SFL *Appraisal* system to enable Carolyn's perceptions of the PL to become visible. The analysis provided much of the data used to respond to RQ 3 which compared Carolyn's perception of her own learning with the empirical classroom data to determine the extent to which the perceptions she had of her own practice were in evidence in her classroom teaching.

As the interview elicited evaluative responses to the PL, the sub-system of *Attitude* from the *Appraisal* system was appropriate for the interview analysis. The most pertinent category used in the analysis is *appreciation* (of things and activities). *Appreciations* include valuations, reactions and complexity of things and activities. Other categories that were used to a lesser extent were *feelings* and *judgements* of people. Feelings include categories such as happiness, pleasure, interest, confidence and desire. Judgements include people's capacity, tenacity, normality and propriety. Each of these may be positive or negative, and they may be explicitly stated (inscribed), or implicit (invoked). In this transcript, many of the explicitly stated appraisals also carried additional implicit meanings.

Interviewer: Question 1	
So, the first question I wanted to ask was what effect do you think the genre-based professional development had on your knowledge about language and learning, if any?	Mitigated request – interviewer seeks a more *equal status relation* with teacher, to establish *close affective involvement* and *affiliation*

The interview transcript is organised as sequences of appraisals paired with the target of the appraisal (aspects of the PL) nominated by the interviewee in open-ended responses to the interview questions. The appraisals in the interview transcript are shaded and the related targets of the appraisals are underlined. The appraisals are analysed by category and whether positive or negative (+ or -) in the right-hand column where a brief comment is made where necessary concerning the target of the appraisal and the nature of any implicit and/or comparative meanings.

Carolyn:	Appraisal analysis
I think it had a big effect in being able to just identify…	+ appreciation of overall PL programme
It was very helpful, being able to identify exactly what kind of genre of text it was we were looking at as a class, or that I was asking them to write,	+ appreciation of *new* (implicit) ability to identify the genre of texts for reading and writing
because that enabled us to structure responses and models much more effectively, because we do use quite a lot of modelling in history.	+ appreciation of the consequences of *new* ability to structure responses and models; implicit comparison with previous practices
So, being able to, sort of, take the models and use the labels and the patterns in the text to be able to structure those models really helped.	+ appreciation of (*new*)ability to use and label models showing the patterns the structure a text
I found that did also come out in the pupils' work. What I started to see was some of that phrasing that we used in the models coming out in their writing, too.	+ + appreciation of resulting *improvement* (implicit) in student writing - inference that students are the ultimate beneficiaries of the PL
So, that was very good.	+ appreciation of outcome for students
It did also make me think much more carefully about the language I was using in the classroom. Sort of, unpacking some of those terms.	+ appreciation (implicit) *Improved* awareness of teacher role in providing access to complex classroom language (implicit comparison with previous practices)
You know, the thing I really remember is the Industrial Revolution and all the things which are in there. Those nominalisations, because, of course, we've got a lot of those in history.	+ appreciation (implicit) of *new* knowledge about language
So, I found that really helpful to think about unpacking those words in particular, that we come across a lot. I found myself in the lessons going, now, "In this word, there are all these things going on."	+ appreciation of new understanding about nominalisation
So, I really think it helped both my understanding of how essential it is to unpack that language for pupils,	+ + appreciation *Improved* teacher understanding of unpacking language

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particularly here in [name of area], because they're not vocabulary-rich at all.	(contrasted with) - judgement of students' language resources (implicit) = benefits for students
So, I found that really, really helpful, and it made me far more aware, when I was selecting text, and reading text, and making my own models for them about my own use of language.	+ appreciation of benefits of *new* KAL for text selection, reading, making models for writing use of language (compared to previous practice).

Interviewer: Question 2. What effect do you think the PL had on your classroom teaching, if any?	
Carolyn:	
I think it had a big effect,	+ appreciation of overall PL programme
because, as I say, choosing the text, it made me less afraid of using complex texts,	+ feelings about using complex texts (implicit comparison with previous practices)
because what I used to do was I'd dumb it down or, you know, I'd simplify it, or just use little sections of a textbook.	- judgement (of previous literacy practices) of using less-complex texts (implies that students *should* be able to read age appropriate texts)
But, actually, it made me much more confident in using, you know, the text as it stood on the page.	+ feelings about using texts without modifications
I found preparing for reading, going through how the text unfolds, really helpful.	+ appreciation of *preparing for reading*
The Year 10 class that I did it with, after a few times of doing that, I'd say, "Okay, here we go: We've got a double-page spread here. It's using this ___[0:02:49], so what's our first paragraph usually about?" They go, "Oh, that's context and background." I said, "Do you think we'll have to underline very much in this?" "No, no, no, miss. We won't," so it began to be ingrained in them as well.	+ judgement of the beginning of adoption by Year 10 class of new reading behaviours and understanding of text organisation (acquired through teacher's application of R2L strategies)
So, I found that very helpful,	+ appreciation of resulting *improvement* (implicit) in students' reading strategies

and it made me quite mindful of the texts I was choosing.	+ appreciation of increased linguistic awareness
You know, the power of something simple like preparing them for reading,	+ appreciation (implicit) pedagogy is not difficult, easy to have a positive impact
it's brilliant, because then they know where they are with it.	+ appreciation (implicit) increases student confidence with reading
It also forced me to be more familiar with a text before I used it with them. You know, sometimes when you're a bit late, ___[0:03:22], "Oh," you just pick it up, and you don't really engage with it in enough detail to make the most of it in the classroom.	+ appreciation of impetus/obligation provided by PL to use texts more effectively, compared to - judgement of previous practice of not reading texts thoroughly before lessons
So, that definitely helped.	+ appreciation of *preparing for reading*
Other aspects in the classroom teaching were, you know, doing the detailed reading. Doing the detailed reading was really very, very effective, I think,	+ appreciation of *detailed reading*
because, you know, getting them to identify the words in the text kept them engaged in it.	+ appreciation of engagement effect of R2L discourse pattern (implied)
Whereas, before, when you've been explaining what a text means, those difficult words or concepts, it tends to be very one-way.	- judgement of one-way transmission style pedagogy (implied)
It also cut down my teacher talk at the beginning of the lesson.	+ appreciation compared to previous practice - implies more time for student participation/ engagement in learning

XI. Example of discourse and multimodal analysis during *detailed reading*

The teacher read aloud the following model paragraph for the argument essay prior to the *detailed reading*:

> 'Restrictions on employment caused serious problems for Germany's Jews.'
> Follow on your own paragraph. 'Restrictions on employment caused serious
> problems for Germany's Jews. One problem was that they were excluded from
> some jobs. For example, in 1933, a new law excluded Jews from government jobs.
> In addition, in 1938, the professional activities of Jews were banned or restricted in
> a number of professions, including vets, dentists, and accountants. This was a
> problem because it prevented Jews entering certain well-paid professions and
> singled them out from other Germans. A further problem was that some Jews were
> sacked from their jobs. For example, in 1933, thousands of Jewish civil servants,
> lawyers, and university teachers were sacked. These restrictions were a serious
> problem for the people who worked in these professions because they lost their job,
> their income, and their status. However, it did not affect all of Germany's Jews, so
> was not the worst problem that they faced.'

The analysis in the table (below) provides an example of eleven *detailed reading*
interaction cycles from Lesson 3. The interaction is shown as *exchanges* of information
between primary and secondary 'knowers' (*K1* and *K2*), in the first right-hand column. The
multimodal aspect of this transcript is captured by the action exchanges between the
teacher and students. The 'primary actor' represented as A1 carrying out the action and the
'secondary actor' (A2) demanding the action (section 4.5.2). The second right-hand
column identifies the R2L cycle phases and the final column shows *what* the interaction is
about (as explained in section 4.5.2).

Carolyn begins by directing the students to highlight the wordings as she also highlights on
the projection on the board but as the lesson progresses, she begins to omit giving the
verbal direction (in exchanges 2, 8, 9, and 10) and her body language signals the directive
which students follow. There was congruence between the oral discourse and the
multimodal signals as elaborated in section **5.4.6. Enacting *detailed reading*: semiotic
assonance**

Speaker/ exchange	Lesson 3, Stage 2, *Detailed reading* interaction	role	phase	matter
1. Teacher	Okay. So now we'll go through it *[the paragraph]* sentence by sentence.	K1	prepare	activity
	So, can anyone see the word that tells us that restrictions were a *big* problem? What was it?	dK1	focus	word
Student	serious?	K2	identify	word
Teacher	Serious, yes.	K1	affirm	
	So, could you underline 'serious problem'	A2	direct	highlight
T & Ss	*(teacher and students highlight words)*	A1		
2. Teacher	Now, at the beginning of that sentence, which three words tell us the *factor* we're looking at in this paragraph. Three words?	dK1	focus	item
	We've got 'employment'.	K1		
	What are the other two words?	dK1		
Student	restrictions	K2	identify	item
Teacher	Okay.	K1	affirm	
T & Ss	*(teacher and students highlight word)*	A1		
Teacher	Now, remember, restrictions means limits placed on employment. Employment is any kind of work or jobs that people do, so it includes a variety of different types of jobs	K1	elaborate	definition
3.	In the second sentence, which problem is identified?	dK1	focus	property
Student	excluded from some jobs	K2	identify	property
Teacher	Right, they were excluded from some jobs. That's our problem – excellent.	K1	affirm	
	Highlight that, please.	A2	direct	highlight
T & Ss	*(students and teacher highlight wording)*	A1		
Teacher	Excluded means – you know, if you were excluded from school, you're not allowed to come into school, are you? So being excluded from jobs means they were not allowed to go into those jobs. Okay?	K1	elaborate	definition
4.	The third sentence. 'For example, in 1933, a new	K1	prepare	sentence

	law excluded Jews from government jobs.'		
	So, in this sentence, which two words are used to introduce our relevant fact?	dK1	focus	con-junction
Student:	A new law?	K2	identify	item
Teacher	I can see why you might say that,	K1	reject	
5.	but I'm thinking of two words at the beginning of the sentence, which are introducing our examples.	K1	prepare	conjunction
Student	For example	K2	identify	conjunction
Teacher	'For example' – good.	K1	affirm	
	Highlight that.	A2	direct	highlight
T & Ss	*(teacher and students highlight words)*	A1		
6. Teacher	Okay. And I think, coming back to this.	K1	prepare	pedagogical activity
	Who said 'new law'?	K2	identify	item
Student	Me.	K1		
Teacher	Okay, Rxxxxx.	K2f	affirm	
	Because I was going to ask next – which two words tell us what that example was, and it's 'a new law', isn't it?	K1	elaborate	item
	So, we're going to highlight 'new law'. Okay – so 'for example', and 'a new law'	A2	direct	highlight
T & Ss	*(teacher and students highlight wordings)*	A1		
7. Teacher	Okay – and what did that law do? Which words tell us what that law did?	dK1	focus	activity
Student	excluded Jews.	K2	identify	activity
Teacher	Excluded Jews from where?	dK1	focus	place
Student	from government jobs.	K2	identify	place
Teacher	Okay – brilliant	K1	affirm	
Teacher	Highlight that.	A2	direct	highlight
T & Ss	*(teacher and students highlight wording)*	A1		
8. Teacher	Now in the next sentence, there's three things we're going to highlight.	K1	prepare	sentence
	First of all, what two words tell us there's going to be another example – which two words? You can just say them out	dK1	focus	conjunction

Student	In addition,	K2	identify	conjunction
Teacher	'In addition'. Good.	K1	affirm	
T & Ss	*(teacher and students highlight wording)*	A1		
Teacher	So, we know that's a new example, right?	K1	elaborate	conjunction
9.	And then which two words further on in the sentence tell us what aspect; what part of Jewish employment was affected?	dK1	focus	part
Student	professional	K2	identify	part
Teacher	Professional what?	dK1	focus	word
Student	activities.	K2	identify	word
Teacher	activities – good.	K1	affirm	
T & Ss	*(teacher and students highlight wording)*	A1		
Teacher	Now, professional activities – whatever is that? A professional activity – if you're a professional footballer, you've got to do a lot of training to do that job, so a profession is any job where you've got to do a lot of training, usually to go to university. So, a vet has to go to university for seven years; a doctor, six years; an engineer, four or five years; I had to go to university for four years. So, my job, as a teacher, is a profession.	K1	elaborate	definition
Student	Miss, what about lawyers?	K2		
Teacher	Lawyers as well, because they have to have a degree. It's usually a job that requires a degree. Okay?	K1		
10.	Lastly, which two words in the middle of the sentence, tell us what was done to these professional activities?	dK1	focus	activity
Student	banned	K2	identify	activity
Teacher	banned	K1	affirm	
	What's the other one?	dK1	focus	activity
Student	restricted.	K2	identify	activity
Teacher	restricted – fabulous	K1	affirm	
T & Ss	*(teacher and students highlight wording)*	A1		
11.	And then we've got some examples of those	K1	prepare	items

Teacher	professional activities.			
	We've got three, haven't we?	dK1	focus	items
Ss	vets, dentists, accountants *(students read out)*	K2	identify	items
Teacher	Okay.	K1	affirm	
	Let's underline them	A2	direct	marking
T & Ss	*(teacher and students highlight wording)*	A1		
Teacher	Fabulous	K1	affirm	

The subsequent interaction cycle in the detailed reading phase of the lesson is exemplified in the body of the thesis in section **5.4.6 Enacting *detailed reading*: semiotic assonance.**

XII. Example of discourse analysis, Phase 4, Task Deconstruction

Section 5.4 Teacher learning episode 3: *preparing for reading* (see Table 17, Carolyn's enacted R2L curriculum genre, Lesson No.3 Phase 4, Task deconstruction, focus on model paragraph)
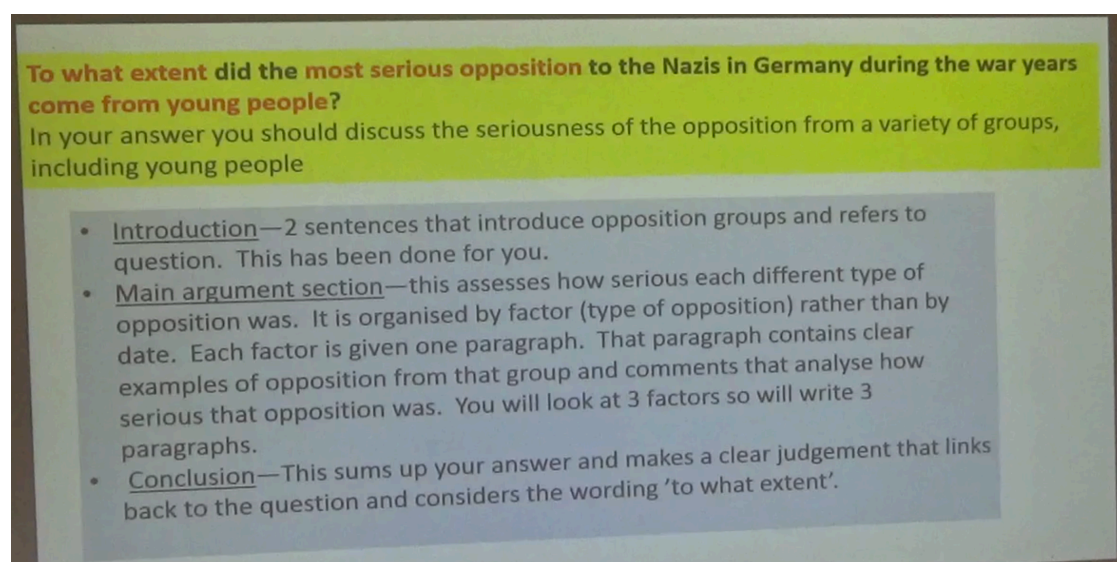

Figure 1 Essay question and instructions on how to structure an answer

As Carolyn continues with Phase 4 of the *Preparing for reading* stage of the lesson, *task deconstruction*, she focuses specifically on the content of the text in the *box* (in *Figure 1* above) which is her set of instructions designed to provide a procedure for the students to follow in order to write a successful response.

While the instructions in the text projected on the board are expressed as statements (in the declarative mood[1]), ostensibly focusing on the structure of the essay, she is simultaneously providing a set of instructions about how to write the essay in response to the previously deconstructed question (Phase 3). So, every step in the text is both about the structure of the essay and what the students *should do*. Every message 'enacts' interpersonal relations and 'construes' ideational meaning in the foregrounded *field* of *historical discourse* (KAL).

In the classroom she reads and interprets her written text for the students in a monologue which she initiates saying:

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[1] The choices available in the grammatical system of mood are imperative and indicative. If indicative is chosen, there is a choice between declarative and interrogative

Now here, in this box, (placing hands on the projection) is how your essay should be structured; how the answer will unfold as you write it. This is the structure of this type of essay. It always begins with an introduction. The introduction should be short, okay? And in your introduction, it introduces opposition groups, refers to the question – I've done an introduction for you, because I want us to focus on this middle section which is our main argument section. And this assesses how serious each different type of opposition was…

Table 1 below provides a *translation* of Carolyn's written text. The declarative statements are broken down into numbered steps on the left. The instructional meanings of each step are made explicit using commands in the imperative mood on the right. So, this re-instantiation of Carolyn's text as a procedure enables her instructional intent to become visible:

Table 1 Parallel *translation* of the metaphorical statements into direct commands

Essay question: To what extent did the most serious opposition to the Nazis in Germany during the war years come from young people?	
Aim (examiners instructions): to discuss the seriousness of the opposition from a variety of groups, including young people.	**Aim** (examiners instructions): discuss the seriousness of the opposition from a variety of groups, including young people.
Main argument section; 1. this assesses how serious each type of opposition was 2. It is organised by factor (type of opposition) 3. rather than by date. 4. Each factor is given one paragraph 5. That paragraph contains clear examples of opposition from that group 6. and comments that analyse how serious the opposition was 7. You will look at 3 factors 8. so will write 3 paragraphs **Conclusion;** 9. this sums up your answer 10. and makes a clear judgement that links back to the question 11. and considers the wording "to what extent"	**Main argument section;** 1. Assesses the seriousness of each type of opposition 2. Organise it by factor (type of opposition) 3. Do not organise it by date. 4. Give each factor one paragraph 5. paragraphs should/must contain clear examples of opposition from that group 6. comments should/must analyse the seriousness of the opposition 7. Look at 3 factors, 8. write 3 paragraphs **Conclusion;** 9. summarise your answer 10. make a clear judgement that links back to the question 11. consider the wording "to what extent"

By introducing the text written in the *box* to the class using the modulated[2] declarative statement ... *how your essay should be structured* – Carolyn expresses a high level of obligation to comply with this recommendation. She repeats the obligation when referring to the introduction: *should be short, okay?* – adding a question tag. This use of interpersonal metaphor to express obligation simultaneously re-instantiates the written text as a set of instructions via the use of the modal verb *should*. In Bernstein's terms (section 2.5.1) she uses the *regulative discourse* (shaded) to project the *instructional discourse* as a series of steps the students are obliged to undertake to successfully complete the required task. The use of interpersonal metaphor operates as in previous instances to reduce in the inequality in the teacher/student relationship, this contributes to a sense of *affiliation* between the teacher and students as the instructions are more akin to guidelines or advice from a more experienced peer, rather than authoritative teacher commands.

This phase of the lesson continues as Carolyn focuses on the model argument text she has written on a topic from a previous lesson:

> *Okay, I have given you a model paragraph.... On this piece of paper (holding up the sheet the students have been given) is a model for the essay you've just written for me, that I gave back to you on whether restrictions placed on employment were the worst problems faced by Jews in Germany.*

She introduces the model essay paragraph by carefully summarising its structure, sentence by sentence, using a re-instantiation of the R2L metalanguage (see *Table 2* below) that the class may already be familiar with, in a parallel fashion to her previous focus on the structure of the whole text.

In the Reading to Learn professional learning, the notion of the *rhythm of texts* [3] (R2L materials Book 8) was introduced using an argument text to identify the information flows at the level of the whole text, the paragraph and the sentence. So, Carolyn's foregrounding of what type of information is being given at each of these levels in her texts has been

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[2] Modulation is a way for speakers to express judgments or attitudes about actions or events. Between the two poles of *yes* or *no* compliance or refusal, it enables speakers to express degrees of obligation and inclination.

[3] The rhythm of discourse, know technically as periodicity, is concerned with information flow; the layers of prediction that flag for the readers what is to come, and the layers of consolidation that accumulate as the meanings are made (Martin and Rose, 2008).

inspired by the professional learning as she stated in her interview. Although the *field* of *historical discourse* is again predominant in her statements at this stage, she nonetheless begins to link the structure of the paragraph to the *field* of history as she did when looking at the structure of the whole text, using the word *problem* from the essay question as part of the metalanguage and referring specifically to: *restrictions on employment*. This foreshadows how the lesson will focus explicitly in the forthcoming phase on how the structure (*field* of *historical discourse*) works in combination with the relevant content (*field* of history) to produce a text that is an effective historical argument. So, even though she does not use the R2L metalanguage, the *field* of knowledge about language is foregrounded in commonsense, everyday terms that students might be more familiar with.

Table 2 Re-instantiation of R2L metalanguage

Carolyn's metalanguage	Model paragraph from a previous topic	R2L argument metalanguage [4]
Key point 1st problem • example 1 • example 2 comment and analysis 2nd problem • example 3 • analysis analysis	Restrictions on employment caused serious problems for Germany's Jews. One problem was that they were excluded from some jobs. For example, in 1933, a new law excluded Jews from government jobs. In addition, in 1938, the professional activities of Jews were banned or restricted in a number of professions, including vets, dentists, and accountants. This was a problem because it prevented Jews entering certain well-paid professions, and singled them out from other Germans. A further problem was that some Jews were sacked from their jobs. For example, in 1933, thousands of Jewish civil servants, lawyers, and university teachers were sacked. These restrictions were a serious problem for the people who worked in these professions because they lost their job, their income, and their status. However, it did not affect all of Germany's Jews, so was not the worst problem that they faced.	Position statement Supporting evidence • example 1 • example 2 Reason Supporting evidence • example 3 Re- statement of position Reason Evaluation

When Carolyn explains the structure of the paragraph to the class however, she does not treat the paragraph as an object to be described in terms of a static hierarchical structure (periodicity), she treats the text as a process of unfolding meaning. She explains to the

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[4] In the R2L professional learning the concept of a hierarchy of periodicity is described and modelled for teachers using sample texts written by students and the terms *macroTheme* and *hyperTheme* are replaced with the more familiar terms of Introduction and Topic Sentence.

class how the meanings flow dynamically through the text as it unfolds through time using the unmarked expectancy relations *and then* as follows:

> *The paragraph starts with a key point,*
> <u>*and then*</u> *it gives us some information about restrictions on employment.*
> *It <u>then</u> gives us a series of examples;*
> *it identifies two problems,*
> <u>*and*</u> *gives us three examples,*
> *and then we've got one comment and analysis sentence in the middle,*
> <u>*and then*</u> *we've got two analysis sentences at the end.*

This technique has been called 'serial expansion of discourse' (Rose and Martin 2007, p. 199), a chaining strategy where discourse is added on to what has gone before. So, the static hierarchical structure of periodicity and its associated metalanguage that Carolyn used to analyse the structure of her written text has been re-instantiated as a dynamic unfolding of meaning through time in her classroom discourse.

Furthermore, the dynamic presentation of the unfolding text foregrounds the register variable of tenor as she positively appreciates the model paragraph as a valuable source of information by repeating (x 3) that it *gives us…* the structure needed to write a successful paragraph. The repetition of *gives us* subtly attributes the characteristic of 'generosity' to the paragraph which is a type of *invoked appraisal*[5]. The encoding of the positive appreciation in the explanation of the structure of the paragraph is thus a metaphorical recommendation of the paragraph as a valuable source of information. This creates positive *affect* which again operates to build *affiliation* with the class by aligning herself more closely with the students as the discourse operates to offer some advice or 'insider information' rather than adopting the more distant authoritative teacher stance that results from commands.

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[5] *Invoked Appraisal* refers to the 'selection of ideational meanings … enough to invoke evaluation, even in the absence of lexis that tells us directly how to feel' (Martin & White 2005)