University of Reading

What is the effect of contextualised grammar teaching using Functional Linguistics strategies on the understanding of Year 9 learners in writing tasks?

PhD Education

Department of Education

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August 2019

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Submitted by Harriet Louise Speed to the University of Reading as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Education, August 2019.

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

(Signed) ……H. SPEED

ABSTRACT

This thesis presents an investigation into the effects of teaching grammar in a contextualised manner on the writing of Year 9 pupils. It explores the ways in which grammar can be taught as part of a pedagogy which seeks to use Functional Linguistics, more specifically Systemic Functional Linguistics and Cognitive Grammar, as an accessible pedagogy in the classroom.

The study used a case-study methodology to explore the impact of teaching grammar using Functional Linguistics strategies on the writing of Year 9 pupils. The study focused on two intervention lessons which introduced grammatical concepts in a contextualised manner. These lessons were recorded and analysed according to the links that participants made between the intervention lessons and the writing which they completed post-intervention.

Participants from a whole year group from the target site were included in the section of the study which analysed writing samples. A smaller sample of participants also took part in a 'think aloud' section of the study which included recording these participants as they were verbally considering how to construct their pieces of writing. These data were analysed to explore the impact of the teaching strategies used on participants' metalinguistic understanding.

The findings are presented using Systemic Functional Linguistics as a model which explores the participants' understanding of the writing task. The study is significant in considering how the metalinguistic understanding of pupils can be enhanced using pedagogies related to Functional Linguistics. It also provides a current method of teaching grammar using a pedagogy which is multi-faceted and responds to teachers' calls for the further provision of accessible grammatical pedagogies. It also allows for suggestions to be made as to further advancements which are required in policy and training.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all of my participants for their generous, and enthusiastic, contributions to this project. My colleagues also require a special mention for their unfailing support, good-humour and willingness to participate even when time is at a premium.

Professor Rhona Stainthorp, my supervisor, and Doctor Alison Silby have provided endless support and helpful critique throughout this process. My supervisory team has been endlessly patient, understanding and encouraging through even the busiest times of a teaching calendar.

Huge thanks also go to my husband, Doctor Jonathon Speed, whose tenacity rivals my own.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. The research problem

1.1.1. Teaching grammar for writing in the classroom

There has been a 'radical' 'reform of both curriculum and qualifications' (Gove, 2011, para.1) in recent times. These reforms continue to necessitate a discussion of content and form amongst teachers of grammar and educational establishments. Reform focused on the ways in which teachers can ensure that pupils leave education being able to construct a 'proper' sentence (Paton, 2010). This view is reminiscent of a time when grammar was taught in a formal, prescriptive manner, one which focuses on 'correctness' rather than 'scholarly analysis of syntax or morphology' (Norman, 2010:40). This culminated in a renewed focus on formalised grammar at KS1 and KS2[1] following the Bew's *Independent Review of Key Stage 2 testing, assessment and accountability* (2011). The new tests, undertaken for the first time in May 2013, focus on identification and parsing of sentences. These tests, alongside the suggestions that grammar is one of the 'metaphorical building blocks of language' (Department for Education [DfE], 2012a:5] suggest that teachers were, and are, expected to adopt rule-based methods of teaching grammar.

This approach not only ignored the difference between declarative knowledge and procedural facility but also contemporary research about how the teaching of grammar can support writing (Clark, 2010; Kolln & Grey, 2010; Myhill et al., 2012). There remains little guidance as to how to ensure that pupils in secondary education meet the requirements of examinations which ask for a range of different skills including accurate use of spelling, punctuation and grammar as well as varying sentence structures for impact and effect. This has resulted in a generation of teachers who not only had not been taught grammar in school themselves (Beard, 2000) but who often presented information to pupils in a 'confused and unhelpful way' (Fisher, Lewis, & Davis, 1999:11). There is concern that 'many subject teachers (particularly in secondary school settings) have no formal study of language and draw upon partially remembered folk-lore about language and grammar' (Derewianka & Jones, 2010:14). A more nuanced understanding of the causes of this indicate that teachers have a reasonable knowledge of grammar but experience high levels of anxiety, so they perceive their knowledge to be poor (Cajkler & Hislam, 2002). This, in turn, influences their pupils' perceptions and ability (Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013). As stated by O'Donnell (in Fraser, 1969:160) there is a 'clear distinction between teaching about language and teaching the use of language'; it is this difference that the study seeks to explore. Teachers need a knowledge of grammar, and

[1] In the UK education system, Key Stages (Key Stage 1, Key Stage 2, Key Stage 3, Key Stage 4 and Key Stage 5) are groups which have been set up to administer progressive, standardised exams during a child's education. Each Key Stage consists of a certain number of school years. Here, Key Stages are abbreviated to 'KS'.

confidence in their ability, in order to make appropriate pedagogical decisions (Kamler, 1995). The seeming current lack of both subject content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) alongside influential teacher perceptions of grammar (Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013; Watson, 2012) would indicate that the process of learning grammar is, for many pupils, confused.

The Framework for teaching English: Years 7, 8 and 9[2] (Department for Education and Skills [DfES], 2001) introduced a non-statutory, but in effect, obligatory (Andrews, 2008:77) 'direction as to how the curriculum was to be taught' (p.77). This assumed that the improvement of pupils' writing could occur by using activities which were in isolation from the rest of the curriculum for English (Clark, 2010). This resulted in teachers placing over-emphasis on 'technical matters, such as punctuation or complex sentences' (OFSTED, 2009:26). There continues to be no clarity or agreement about the role of grammar in the English curriculum (Myhill, 2011; Myhill & Jones, 2011). Teachers who need 'the pedagogical skills to use this knowledge [of grammar] to enhance learning' (Borg, 2003:100) are dependent upon 'teachers (and policy makers) having a clear understanding of what grammatical content knowledge is for, its purpose in the classroom' (Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013:80). The response from teachers has been to seek training (Watson, 2012) and 'belief in the value of grammar teaching has gathered momentum' (Clark, 2010:189). As such, the current climate is one which is ready for a range of grammatical pedagogies to be introduced and applied; the depth of research required to aid teachers in applying these different approaches with confidence does not, however, exist.

There has been recent interest in how approaches which use Linguistics can be used to aid pupils' understanding of language in the classroom (Giovanelli, 2013). The application of this, however, has tended to be in the L2 classroom (Boers, 1999; Boers & Demecheleer, 1998; Lazar, 1996; Littlemore, 2012; Littlemore & Low, 2006) and in L1 classrooms where the focus is on spoken language (Wheeler, 2000). There has been very little research into the ways in which Linguistics, and specifically Cognitive Linguistics, may be used to teach grammar for writing. The interest in teaching grammar within a rhetorical or contextualised approach (Watson, 2012) calls now for a range of new approaches to be tested and discussed. This need for reinvigoration has been identified; it must arise from a 'new model and theory of writing development' which takes into consideration the growing use and affordances of digital technologies, of the increasing multimodality of texts, and of the need to foster creativity and make connections between 'writing in the classroom and writing in the world

[2] In the UK school system, pupils in Year 7 are usually ages 11-12 years, Year 8 pupils are ages 12-13 years and year 9 pupils are ages 13-14 years.

at large' (Andrews & Smith, 2011:17). This links to Linguistic theories which are related to the social purposes of texts. Influential theoretical perspectives such as Halliday's (1985) which present language as a resource and a 'meaning-making system through which we interactively shape our world and ourselves' (Derewianka & Jones, 2010:9) can provide solutions to the needs of contemporary teachers and pupils. As Tchudi and Lafer (1996) state: 'without ties to the necessities they serve, the elements of the English curriculum provide students, at best, with a weak set of skills that may not prove to be useful when students are confronted with the language soluble problems of the world with which they will have to cope' (p.22). The current study considers the participants' writing ability and their cognitive development, which includes their understanding of rhetorical problems and real-world problems to be intricately intertwined. This is a time when new grammatical pedagogies, which focus on the social purpose of texts, would be highly valuable to teachers and pupils.

It might be that in order to provide 'authentic learning' in the English classroom there requires an interdisciplinary approach. As Tchudi and Lafer (1997) state:

> *Writing produced for the sake of learning to write, as exercise, is not the kind of work that helps one to learn what might be called the cognitive essentials of the writing process. Not only are "the rules" of writing somewhat incomprehensible outside the meaningful contexts to which they pertain, but outside the context of meaningful, purposeful communication, it is impossible for students to become engaged with the dynamics of the writing process. Exercises do not allow students to develop understanding of the "I-to-you-about-it" relationships that generate most of the problems writers must work to solve*
>
> *(*in Moffett, 1968*).*

It is the possibility of an interdisciplinary approach which the current study seeks to explore.

1.1.2. The emphasis placed on Literature

The current context of education places emphasis on the teaching and learning of English Literature in the English classroom to the detriment of English Language and Grammar teaching. Historically, the English teacher was a person who had a devoted relationship with the literary masterpieces: Cook (1901:101) urged English teachers to have 'an uncommon knowledge and a surpassing love' of a few masterpieces. Writers who defined an 'English teacher' in education's most influential early periods tended to be English Literature scholars. These men 'staunchly advocated English literature as the body of content to be mattered, understood, and loved by the English teacher.' (Marshall, 1984:65). This did exist alongside the belief that language study was also indispensable to the preparation of English teachers (Thurber, 1901). However, the majority of English teacher training

programmes by the early twentieth century placed emphasis on an English teacher who was 'a passionate reader…who knew and loved a few masterpieces, who understood English literature history, and at all times a lover of what is good in all literature and music and painting' (Dunbar, 1908:28). It was marked that 'when English study was available, it was decidedly literary in emphasis' (Marshall, 1984:68). Even further, 'Scholars, lacking any other model, taught what they were taught…worse,…these professors proposed preparatory programmes based on literature study…' (Marshall, 1984:69). Following the devastation of the war, the study of Literature was upheld as part of the spiritual and religious devotion required to rebuild the nation: 'Literature…[was] one of the chief temples of the human spirit in which all should worship' (Newbolt, 1921). The focus on English Literature in teacher training is detrimental to the English Language pupil, and pupil learning in general. As Parker (1967) states:

> *'It strikes me as ridiculous that we increasingly want 'English' to mean the close reading of word while we steadily increase our ignorance of the nature and history of language in general and the English Language in particular…' (*Parker*,* 1967*, p.*350*)*

It is, therefore, unsurprising that the contemporary English teacher values themselves against a system which judges them based on their literary knowledge and that they generally lack confidence when teaching grammar (Watson, 2012). Contemporary programmes of teacher training find themselves with, historically, fewer practitioners who are confident and comfortable with delivery: they often present information in a 'confused or unhelpful way' (Fisher, Lewis and Davis, 1999:11). A possible cause of this may be that at entry into postgraduate teacher education courses, there appears to be a distinct preference for teachers who have come through the literature degree route (Blake & Shortis, 2010). Cameron (1997) argued that the literature degrees of English graduates not only leaves them ill-equipped to cope with grammar teaching, but also generate anxiety and a lack of confidence towards grammar. Although there is a surge of new enthusiasm and interest in the teaching of grammar using rhetorical pedagogies (Myhill, 2012), alterations to teacher education and policy alone are unable to amend the historic 'phenomenon of of less secure, or absent, grammatical content knowledge' (Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013:78). Programmes advocating change in practice must particularly look for ways to encourage teachers to accommodate or adjust to new developments by relating them to their existing beliefs (Poulson et al., 2001:290). In this way, research, training and policy must take advantage of contemporary beliefs in the usefulness of rhetorical models (Watson, 2012) and acknowledge historic limitations placed on the English teacher. More recently, Literature is still regarded highly, although with 'far more pessimism, especially from experienced teachers who predicted the predominance of 'Functional English' and a much more Linguistic than literary orientation within the curriculum' (Goodwyn, 2012:219). The

focus on English Literature has ignored, and undermined, an academic school with huge potential to influence learners in a classroom setting. As Tchudi and Lafer (1997) state:

> *'English Language Arts teachers are in a powerful position in most schools…to create enormously exciting curricula that are both true to the conventional disciplines and…coherent with the patterns of growth and development we observe in the young.' (p.29)*

It might be that 'the penalty most fitting for this crime would be to make us [English Literature] a sub-department of Linguistics' (Parker, 1967:350).

1.2. The scope and significance of the study

The study presents an opportunity to offer an alternative grammatical pedagogy for use when teaching writing. It gives aid to teachers by bringing them 'in from the cold' (Clark, 2010:191) through considering their needs in the establishment of a new grammatical pedagogy. It is the first in-depth study which applies Functional Linguistics strategies to the teaching of writing in the L1 (Language 1 or native language) secondary classroom. It also combines a tight focus on the impact of teaching grammar using Functional Linguistics and its qualitative approach within a UK context. There are, therefore, implications for researchers, practitioners, policy-makers and those involved in teacher education. It provides an examination of actual classroom practice, which not only fills a gap in current research studies (Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013) but also presents a method of teaching grammar which integrates pedagogy and declarative grammatical content knowledge (Bartels, 2005). 'Teachers…need the pedagogical skills to use this knowledge to enhance learning' (Borg, 2003:100); it is in the provision of such a pedagogy that trainee teachers will be able to fully meet the needs of their pupils. For practitioners, it then provides an alternative way to teach grammar for writing and instigates a much-needed discussion of how pupils can be taught writing. The study allows the 'ideational curriculum' of traditionalist grammar teaching to be translated into an 'operational curriculum' that supports teachers and students (Tuchaai et al., 2012).

For researchers, it contributes an interesting discussion on the use of Functional Linguistics strategies in the L1 classroom. It also furthers current research into the teaching of grammar for writing (Hillocks, 1984; Myhill, 2012; Watson, 2012) and supports findings which suggest there is a place for the rhetorical model when teaching grammar as well as strengthening the belief that the teaching of grammar can have an impact on writing (Andrews at al., 2004a; Braddock et al., 1963; Graham & Perin, 2007; Hillocks, 1984). When using the definition of metalinguistics which is focused on the thinking processes which accompany text production (Gombert, 1992) the study contributes to the body of research on the nature of writer cognition and the complexity of writing (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Humes, 1983). Flower and Hayes (1981) explore the structure of the way that texts are

produced through the 'think aloud' protocol; the study produced evidence which could be used to support claims of such systems. By exploring the potential influence of Cognitive Linguistics and its role in the teaching of grammar for writing, the study responds to a need for a multi-faceted approach to grammatical pedagogies (Watson, 2012). It initiates and emphasises the need to continue rigorous research into the application of a range of different grammatical pedagogies and the way they might be used in the L1 classroom.

The study is important for policy-makers and those involved in discussion with these groups. It explores the relationship between the teaching of grammar and writing as well as outlining potential tensions between current curriculum requirements and pupil response via their writing output. Therefore, the study indicates aspects of grammar policies which may need re-configuration to incorporate a wider range of grammatical pedagogies for use with a range of pupil ability. The study's focus is to provide much needed 'grammatical pedagogical content knowledge of how grammatical constructions shape meaning in writing' (Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013:89); the indication of 'gaps' in policy were, therefore, emergent. These pedagogical suggestions provide a necessary alternative to formalised teaching of grammar and the application of rote learning of terminology – an approach which is likely to be rejected by teachers (Watson, 2012) and one which has shown to have a negative impact on writing (Andrews et al., 2006; Elley et al., 1976; EPPI, 2004). Furthermore, it provides a renewed opportunity for policy-makers to revitalise the teaching of grammar (Micciche, 2004).

Finally, the investigation offers a suggested way of teaching grammar for writing which could be integrated into current teacher training. Further to this, it generates suggestions to help teacher trainees explore and develop more confidence in their teaching of grammar. It also offers an outline of a potential method of teaching grammar which could be debated in teacher training programmes acting as a prompt for reflection on perspectives and practice in the grammar classroom. It responds to the need to empower teachers to resist the deficit discourse that characterises much public discourse about grammar (Hancock, 2009) and bring grammar back into the public consciousness in a positive manner.

1.3. The structure of the thesis

The thesis is divided into 9 chapters.

Chapter 2 presents an overview of the context of the research in terms of current views and policy on grammar teaching, Linguistics in the classroom and any recent links made between grammar and writing. It reviews the current state of research into the teaching of grammar and outlines its possible limitations.

Chapter 3 outlines the context of the study through describing the wider educational climate, where the study site is situated in this climate, the demographic of participants, the researcher and their placement within the site and the teachers who participated in the study. It is intended to provide transparency to the study without breaking ethics.

Chapter 4 expounds on the research methodology and research methods. This is where the study's philosophical and theoretical basis is explained alongside the research questions, research paradigm and research design including the methods of data collection and information analysis. The ethical conduct for the investigation is also defined.

Chapter 5 outlines the findings of the pilot study and the alterations made to the main study considering these findings. The resources and data analysis techniques used are examined in depth in this chapter.

Chapter 6 responds to the first research question by presenting findings which demonstrate the relationship between the intervention lessons and the participants' output. Pupils' response to the grammatical pedagogy is examined at every stage of the study. It also outlines the commonalities between the intervention lessons including both teachers and pupils.

Chapter 7 presents findings which respond to the second research question. These findings are framed as narratives of individual pupils in order to engage with any potential alteration of their understanding of their writing tasks. This chapter shows participants' experiences as a continuum so that connections can be made between intervention and pupil development.

Chapter 8 discusses all the data presented in Chapters 6 and 7, while Chapter 9 offers conclusions and their implications for research, policy and teaching writing.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter outlines current research into the use of Linguistics in the classroom and how Linguistic strategies have been linked to grammar and writing. The relationship between grammar and writing to date has been investigated in relation to the context of the study. The climate in which teachers are expected to teach grammar and the outcomes expected of pupils at Key Stage 3 (KS3) level are presented. The history of teaching grammar including recent policies relating to the teaching of grammar within English, perceptions and discourse centred upon and surrounding grammar and its teaching in schools is defined. Finally, relevant studies are explored which link contextualised grammar teaching and writing, focusing particularly on those which show the use of Functional Linguistics strategies within the classroom.

2.1.Grammar: Setting the Current Political and Academic Scene

2.1.1. Definitions of Grammar and Partnering Pedagogies

There must first be a discussion around the most prevalent schools of thought that outline and define the boundaries of what 'grammar' and 'grammar teaching' are as one necessarily impacts the other. Grammar itself has many definitions, ranging from the syntactical where grammar is considered to be the set of formal patterns in which the words of a language are arranged (Francis, 1954 in Hartwell, 1985) to the functional where grammar is perceived to be a structure which is used to construct the functions of language (Coffin et al., 2009). The most polarised views in the world of grammar teaching are those that centre around the traditional or formalist grammar teaching and those that centre around rhetorical or functional schools of grammar. For pedagogical stances this means that teachers are exposed to a variety of ways of teaching grammar from rote learning and the parsing of sentences to explorative tasks that require a focus on the social function and the meaning of grammatical concepts. This section will align the study with a school of thought, evaluate this school of thought and defend this according to the research questions.

When grammar is defined as, 'the internalised system that native speakers of a language share' (Kolln, 1985:150) there ultimately follows an element within the pedagogy of the learning of patterns, and the labelling of these. The teaching of grammar then allows native speakers to 'understand the system they know unconsciously as native speakers, to teach the necessary categories and labels that will enable them to think about…their language' (Kolln, 1985:150). This necessitates the conscious study of language as a formulaic set of rules, whereby the learner is tested on their knowledge of the labels used to describe their language rather than their ability to use language. It is also argued that 'it is not necessary that we be able to discuss these patterns [syntactic patterns within language] self-consciously in order to be able to use them' (Francis, 1954

in Hartwell, 1985). The ability to label parts of language does not necessarily lead to the most successful use of that language within the speaker's or writer's context (Graham & Perin, 2007).

The teaching of the use of language echoes the functional teaching of language, where grammatical concepts are contextualised for the learner. This type of grammar is based upon perceiving grammar as a lens with which to consider 'real-world communication problems' (Coffin et al., 2009:1). This more functional view of grammar is aligned with a more rhetorical teaching of grammar whereby grammar is perceived to be 'grammatical conventions as resources to be exploited, rather than rules to be followed' (Lefstein, 2009:380) placing it in opposition to the more formalised, rule-based teaching of grammar. This is founded upon a theoretical perspective that assumes that grammar can be used to shape and craft meaning to adapt according to writer's intentions (Myhill, 2010). Furthermore, this type of view of grammar does not specify a labelling or descriptive system but is a lens through which to understand grammar and its use (Kagan, 1990). The fundamentals of rhetorical grammar teaching are suitable for the definition of grammar which is adopted by the study. Rhetorical and Functional approaches overlap in their pedagogy in that both explore the choices available to the writer; however, Functional Linguistics approaches have a particular focus on how texts are constructed socially and linguistically (Watson, 2012). The current study aligns itself with the Functional Approach.

The current study also uses the school of grammatical thought that is provided by the Functional Grammar of Halliday (1994) as the system followed by Systemic Functional Linguistics. As Watson (2012) states: 'its perspective on the role that grammar has to play in the study of texts and the development of writing skills is remarkably similar…in descriptions of rhetorical approaches' (p.26). Functional grammar focuses on how language is used, a view which underpins all elements of the study. The main research question is interested in 'understanding' rather than 'knowledge' as such it seeks to explore how pupils understand rhetorical problems. Therefore, it is not the accuracy of grammatical concepts that the study is interested in or the labelling of these, but how grammatical constructions are used in writing tasks to fulfil the social function of text. The English KS3 National Curriculum (2013) states that pupils should be able to 'write for a wide range of purposes and audiences' including 'arguments, and personal and formal letters' (DfE, English Programmes of Study: KS3, 2013:5). The definition of Functional Grammar is therefore a suitable basis for a pedagogy that supplies choices and options for writers who aim to fulfil the current National Curriculum requirements at KS3. As such, it is not interested in grammar as categories and labels but as 'literal stuff, verbal clay, to be moulded and probed, shaped and reshaped, and, above all, enjoyed' (Kolln, 1981:125). By using the metaphor of malleable 'clay', this directly links to rhetorical

grammar which allows learners of grammar to be provided with choices and adaptable concepts which they can then shape into meaningful texts.

2.1.2. Grammar: The Political and Academic Debate

The 'grammar debate' continues, being traced back by Hudson and Walmsley (2005) who suggest that the demise of grammar teaching in the 20th century, as well as the dichotomy between Literature and Language, was brought about by the decline of the academic study of Linguistics in between the 1920s and 1960s. Traditional grammar teaching largely disappeared from UK schools at this time following research that found it had no benefit to pupils' writing (Elley, 1981). It was then considered that not only was it ineffective to teach grammar for writing but 'the process of learning grammar interferes with writing' (Elbow, 1981:169). In this way, policy, research and academia are intertwined within grammatical debate as grammar teaching continues to remain a policy concern due to reports that focus upon the role grammar could play in the teaching of English.

With the introduction of new Key Stage 2 tests taken at 11 years old which focus on formal, traditional learning of grammar, grammar teaching has remained at the forefront of public discussion for the past few decades. Much of the associations that the general public currently hold concerning the teaching of grammar is bred from a prescriptive attitude or 'linguistic etiquette' whereby people are judged by how accurately they use grammar: Francis (1954) calls this 'grammar 3' where grammar is often paired with a derogatory adjective: 'he ain't here' then becomes labelled as 'bad grammar'. It is not necessarily the labelling of grammar itself that causes such attention, but the labels that are then applied to the user of that 'bad' grammar. Clark (2005) critiqued the perspective of grammar at the time suggesting that the ideals of 'standards' have shifted to mean that a person's linguistic behaviour becomes linked to their moral behaviour. This argument was continued by Locke (2010) who suggested that a lack of attention to grammar has at times been equated with a decline in standards, delinquent behaviour and social dissonance. As stated by Carter (1990:106): 'it is only one small step from splitting infinitives to splitting heads on a football field'. Although an outdated view amongst researchers, the public perception of teaching grammar is that it is a necessity as 'educational theory that rejects grammar does so because of a mad idea that children are noble savages better left to authenticity and the composition of rap lyrics. That way lies the scrapheap and jail.' (Wordsworth, 2012: para.10) and so the causal relationship between the teaching of grammar and standards of behaviour still exists in the public arena. Therefore, certain public discourse associates grammar both with accuracy and the prescriptive teaching of a correct standard of English: 'clearly, to the public, grammar is Standard Grammar. Anything else is broken, deficient, non-language, and the speakers are deemed broken, deficient, nonstarters' (Wheeler, 2006:81). This can be related to 'school grammar' (Kolln, 1996:26) which prescribes a 'correctionist

sentence' – a prescriptive approach which 'aims to find fault in language and tried to fix them...' (Hudson, 2010:105).

Popular criticism of incorrect grammar or use of punctuation can be seen with regularity in the press- one of the most recent being the 'Grammar Vigilante' of Bristol reported by the BBC news in 2017 with 'vigilante' connoting a heroic action in the replacing and correcting of apostrophes. The association between grammar and 'moral behaviour' has been aided by such media opinion pieces as Pullman's response to Andrews et al. (2004a) EPPI review in which he satirised Tebbit's slip between standard English and the standards of English behaviour quipping that 'of course teaching children about syntax and parts of speech will result in better writing, as well as making them politer, more patriotic and less likely to become pregnant' (2005). Although this view would receive much criticism in 2019, its presence in public discourse is of note. Thus, the grammar which individuals use is perceived to be a gauge for their future behaviours and an outward sign of their class and beliefs. This has led to judgements of grammar teaching being focused upon 'correctness'- a prescriptive approach whereby there is a correct and incorrect use of grammar, and therefore a correct and incorrect way of teaching grammar. This ideologically driven view of grammar and, by association, grammar teaching still influences public opinion from '1700 to the present day' (Rimmer, 2008:29).

This type of discourse leads to a focus and a 'preoccupation with surface error that reduced the input of grammar into the writing process to little more than editing and error correction' (Rimmer, 2008:29). Following *Bew's Independent Review of Key Stage 2 testing, assessment and accountability* (2011), the focus on correctness and error has been aided by the introduction of KS2 grammar tests. These contain questions such as 'Which sentence has been punctuated correctly?' and 'circle all of the pronouns in the sentence below' (gov.uk (accessed 2017)) with marks deducted for incorrect answers. The focus on error has arguably led to learners becoming disenfranchised with learning grammar (Ehrenworth, 2003) as well as leading teachers into 'an ill-informed fixation on correctness' (Lindblom, 2006:95). This belief around 'correctness' adheres to the meaning of grammar referred to as 'grammar 2' by Francis (1954) which is the branch of linguistic science rooted in the analysis of formal language patterns. 'Grammar 1' is defined by a set of formal patterns in which the words of a language are used to convey meaning. Throughout time, these meanings have become confused and used synonymously leading to alterations and adaptations to both political policies on grammar and pedagogy. The most recent changes have coincided with an interchangeable use of these meanings and the belief of a causal relationship between the differing meanings: for example, that the teaching of 'grammar 2' will improve 'grammar 1'. It is this confusion, alongside the continuing focus upon the surface details of language which have converged to create the current, unique, climate of

grammatical debate. Alongside this, academic discussion and literature has begun to move away from a focus upon correct usage and foreground a more rhetorical and diverse range of methods for teaching grammar. Watson (2012) showed that there is a disparity between governmental expectation of the ways in which grammar should be taught and teacher belief as to the methods that should be used.

Due to the above debates, there has been a resurgence of focus upon how grammar is taught in the native English classroom. The interest of governmental bodies has thrown practitioners' knowledge and pedagogy in the spotlight generating a more dynamic discussion of the purpose of teaching grammar than has been seen for some time. It is generally accepted that grammar teaching has some place within the curriculum and that pedagogies need to be tested, recorded and adapted (Clark, 2010). It is crucial to consider the aims of leading governmental bodies, the factors that have led to such policy and the impact that these types of messages have on the intricacies of classroom teaching in order to contextualise research. It is important to consider factors influencing current grammar policy and explore these through detailing the results of relevant government funded projects. The impact of curriculum decisions on the attitude of teachers is also important as these have a direct impact on teaching (Watson, 2012; Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013; Myhill, 2011).

Intertwined with the academic debate surrounding whether grammar should be taught, there have been a plethora of both government-funded and independent research studies into how grammar should be taught and the effectiveness of grammar teaching across the past decade. Most of these focus on teaching of grammar at primary level and KS3; it can be argued that many are funded and then forgotten, or promptly contradicted when the research does not fulfil the requirements of the funding political party. One of these was the LINC project, led by Carter (2007) whose findings suggested that there is a need for contextualised grammar teaching within the modern English classroom. It argued that a new theoretical grammar is required but that this must be accessible to teachers who both have no linguistic background or no desire to learn grammar in this depth: 'If a theoretical grammar is re-contextualised into a pedagogic one…there needs to be the possibility of selecting and drawing upon theory in ways that transform it into a pedagogical grammar, which all teachers should be able to understand…' (Carter, 2010:192). However, the findings of these projects did not adhere to the priorities of the Conservative government that commissioned and funded them. The disappearance of the materials of the LINC project imply that the funding government believed they were too informal and decontextualized in character and that it was taken out of public consciousness due to the results being deemed unsuitable.

The crux of the problem is that 'Policy is subject to political whim, to power games, to the zeitgeist, to events, to personal conviction and belief as well as to research and debate.' (Andrews, 2008:80) a flaw that is discussed through the evaluation of the National Literacy Strategies by Andrews (2008). If policy, and therefore grammatical pedagogy, is a 'whim' it is altered according to the beliefs of the current political party, instead of being based upon knowledge of researchers and practitioners, causing confusion in the implementation of testing and teaching (Earl et al., 2003). Although pedagogy may have at one stage been successfully rooted in research and displayed improvements in the writing abilities of pupils, the method of recording such successes is too changeable. The amelioration of these problems is far outside the scope of the study, but it is worth noting that the current context and attitudes surrounding the teaching of grammar are mercurial and what is now required is a more long-standing discourse.

Formal grammar teaching was discontinued in schools following in the wake of studies such as Elley et al. (1976) who argued that there was no benefit to pupils' writing when formal grammar was taught. This was supported in The Bullock Report (Department of Education and Science [DES], 1975) which noted that the use of prescriptive grammar teaching, with a focus on the identification of errors in usage was not beneficial to a pupil's writing development. It was suggested that 'the teaching of formal grammar has a negligible or, because it usually displaces some instruction and practice in composition, even a harmful effect on improvement in writing' (Hartwell, 1985:105). The use of decontextualized grammar activities, whereby pupils learnt grammatical concepts by rote was then not recommended by researchers and policy-makers. This left sustained gaps in the teaching of grammar, where grammar was either taught using outdated pedagogy and resources or not taught at all. Grammar as a separate topic within a curriculum was predominantly extinguished, leaving grammar to be linked to other, skill-based topics.

Against evidence, as a response to context, what followed these contemporary studies into the effectiveness of teaching grammar, was a return to traditionalist ways of teaching grammar. This approach considers the parsing of sentences and the elimination of errors in written standard English to be ideological (Hillocks, 1984; Hancock, 2009) and considers grammar a set of rules to be followed (Lefstein, 2009) rather than creative possibilities. The contrary stance taken indicates a return to the traditionalist way of teaching grammar, in opposition to the views and findings of more contemporary research (Carter, 2010; Kolln & Grey, 2010). Pupils are expected to begin their KS3 career with a knowledge of linguistic terms such as 'antonym', 'grapheme', 'progressive', 'subjunctive' (English Programme of Study, National Curriculum, 2013). Although it is stated within the glossary that 'it is intended as an aid for teachers, not as a body of knowledge that should be learnt by the pupils' (p.7), the labelling of such linguistic concepts has become necessary due to the

recently reformed Standard Assessment Tests (SATs, first sat by pupils in Year 6 in May 2013). The grammar, punctuation and spelling component of these tests require pupils to be able to identify, and be able to use, high level linguistic concepts, including clausal structures. Sample questions include: 'tick one box to show which part of the sentence is a relative clause' (National Curriculum Tests, Key Stage 2, 2016:10). The parsing of sentences clearly replicates a system of traditionalist grammar, one where the identification and labelling of grammatical structures is lauded above the understanding of the meaning behind such concepts. The importance of understanding of the purpose of these grammatical concepts and how they can be used to construct meaning is diminished in comparison to the more traditionalist focus on grammar.

The current assessments of grammar, in their focus on traditionalist elements such as the parsing of sentences, are either in direct opposition to, or have contrary elements, to researcher suggestions. In contrast, current research findings (Graham & Perin, 2007) on the benefit of learning about the use of grammar suggest a more rhetorical approach rather than a return to the formalised teaching and learning of grammar. The study seeks to provide alternative options for learners, and teachers, of grammar, one which will 'help writers to develop a repertoire of linguistic structures' (Myhill, Lines & Watson, 2011b:2) and allow the 'ideational curriculum' of traditionalist grammar teaching to be translated into an 'operational curriculum' that supports teachers and students (Tuchaai, et al., 2012). Its purpose is to 'investigate the benefits or otherwise of teaching grammar in the context of writing lessons' (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013:1234).

2.1.3. Teachers of Grammar

Classroom practitioners must then navigate the ambiguous context of teaching grammar. It is these practitioners that must ensure that the pupil remains central and that their development is at the forefront of educational policy. Despite the importance of clarity for practitioners, teachers still often find it problematic to reconcile prescriptive grammar and rhetorical forms of grammar (Lefstein, 2009). Wheeler (2010 in Denham and Lobeck, 2010) suggested that the lack of grammar knowledge shown by teachers greatly interferes with the teaching of grammar for writing.

Watson (2014) considers the extent of teacher belief upon pedagogy and how far teacher belief about grammar can impact or alter grammatical pedagogy. The study found that teachers naturally link grammar to writing within schemes of work without any direction from external parties, and that this grammar is taught in a decontextualized way. It is also the case that teachers instinctively link grammar to meaning and creativity in their pedagogical practice. It can be seen from this case study, that the teachers of focus considered writers as 'creative agent[s]' (Watson, 2014:339) who, therefore, must have access to useful creative tools. There was an indication that the debate that

continues in the wider political world about how to teach grammar is embodied within the individual practitioner, as the focus teacher held views that indicated a dichotomy between creativity and grammar. Generally, beliefs about grammar were found to be deficit and negative as they were initially linked to formulaic, decontextualized teaching of grammatical concepts. Watson (2012), overall, found that teacher belief is linked to pedagogical practice and that teacher belief can hold ramifications for classroom practice.

There are particular etymological and ontological questions in Watson's study that the current investigation seeks to explore. Firstly, Watson's (2012) study was focused upon the teacher of grammar, not the student, which ignores the fact that students are individual entities, with their own thought processes; therefore, only the way that grammar is taught is considered, not the way that the particular pedagogical method is received. Watson also sought to 'provide one example which will have resonance for the wider profession' (Watson, 2015:334) in which a variety of teachers were used as a sample. These teachers were mainly teachers of Year 8 pupils, which means that the pressure to produce written work that is in preparation for public examinations is lessened. The current study seeks to consider the teaching of grammar at a stage in writing development, which may have an impact on public examination results.

Clark (2010) argued that there is a current need for a new theoretical grammar and that this must not only be accessible for teachers who have no linguistics background but also those who have no desire to learn about grammar in depth. The advent of the new SATs and KS3 curriculum with its linguistic glossary, places emphasis, not on student knowledge, but practitioner knowledge. It is this expectation, with the history of grammar teaching being so complex, that is unrealistic. Those current classroom practitioners who have a lack of training in grammar and linguistic concepts (Myhill et al., 2012) are beginning to have to manage the consequences and ramifications of their training as expectations of the English practitioner are altered and changed. It can be assumed that with the decline of teaching grammar in schools from the 1970s (Kolln & Hancock, 2005) teachers who were themselves students at this time were not taught even the most formative grammar. Interestingly, teachers are more likely to hold prescriptivist, rule-bound views of grammar if they are insecure about their grammatical knowledge (Harper & Rennie, 2009; Kamler, 1995; Macken-Horarik, 2012). The findings of the study seek to provide a new theoretical grammar that is so urgently sought by Clark (2010) and provide practitioners with an alternative to complex linguistic terminology by focusing more upon meaning rather than intricate linguistic concepts.

It is assumed that grammar should, and must, be taught but now that the focus is upon 'what kind of teaching and what theories underpinning it have the greatest chance of success' (Clark, 2010:190).

However, the study will 'investigate the pedagogical conditions which support or hinder the transfer of grammatical knowledge into written outputs' (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013:1259) rather than attempting to simply deciding on 'what works' (p.1259). This is important in meeting 'the need for teachers to be able to transform their content knowledge into pedagogical content knowledge of learning activities which address learners' needs' (Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013:77). Given the predilection towards deficit discourses around teachers' grammatical knowledge (Alderson & Horak, 2011; QCA, 1998) it is important to note that the study does not seek to judge teachers' grammatical knowledge. Instead, it attempts to provide clarity for what type of grammar should be taught, how and at what stage in a pupil's development.

It should not be ignored that a shared metalanguage allows teachers and pupils 'to communicate about their performance and to explore complex links such as those between grammatical structures and functions' (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005:594). The labels associated with syntactic structures are helpful in this regard: they allow an ease of communication about language between practitioners and pupils enabling them to co-exist within the same conceptual framework. However, there is also a requirement to teach the meaning behind the labels used by metalanguage: to lead 'students to an appreciation and curiosity about language and its many facets' (Clark, 1975:1074) and a learning environment of exploration rather than of rote learning. Metalanguage and grammatical terminology certainly have their own places within the grammar classroom, but the focus upon these should be questioned under the current KS3 and KS4 climate where writing tasks place emphasis on language use rather than the identification of discreet grammatical concepts.

2.2. Contextualised Grammar Teaching

2.2.1. Definitions of Contextualised Grammar Teaching

Contextualised grammar is characterised through the fact that it is embedded within language teaching and acts as a smaller part of a whole. Its definitions follow those of Carter (1990:4-5):

1) It is situated in real text exploring language in use rather than requiring learners to rote learn grammatical concepts or parse sentences. It introduces language in context.

2) It gives pupils an explorative method of learning about language before discussing it in a more conscious way.

3) It is experimental and student- led.

The study also adds the following:

4) It emphasises the link between the grammatical concept and meaning through use of visual, symbolic representation.

5) It allows pupils to recognise the social purpose of language, and to begin to use this purposefully in writing.

The study then seeks to provide classroom activities, and a pedagogy, that allow teachers to teach grammar in a contextualised way: a way that naturally avoids the prescriptive teaching and rote learning of grammar. It uses Functional Linguistics strategies to create a pedagogy that allows pupils to explore language in context, a method, due to its central focus on the audience and purpose of grammar and text, allows them to consider the social purpose of language.

2.2.2. Contextualised Grammar in the English Classroom

There are several different definitions of 'contextualised' grammar teaching. These definitions focus on overlapping concepts. Therefore, the current study incorporates aspects of a range of different definitions. Wilkinson (1986) sees contextualisation predominantly as a matter of teacher and pupils taking account of the purposes of the texts they create and assess: 'the function and situation of the actual writing produced' (p.14). This has some accordance with Rimmer's (2008) definition which argues there should be an understanding of the complexity of the interaction of grammar and context. Pupils must then be 'aware of both the grammatical options available to them and the contextual conditions in which they operate most effectively' (2008:34). Weaver (1996) suggested ways that contextualised grammar teaching should be incorporated into the classroom: the use of 'mini-lessons' is advocated which focus on the grammatical feature relevant to a writing assignment (1996). Further to this, Gregory (2003) suggested that links should be made between the texts that pupils read and the grammatical awareness of the texts that pupils write within a grammar lesson. There are examples of trainees who have managed to 'make links between the pupils' developing skills as writer's and their awareness of the grammatical choices available to them' (Turvey, 2001:142). The intervention lessons seek to forge 'connections…for the student writer between the grammar under focus and the learning focus for the writing' (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013:1243). The ability that contextualised grammar teaching has of linking writing and grammatical choices is invaluable to the current study; it is this which it seeks to replicate.

2.3. Functional Linguistics and its place in the classroom

Both Cognitive Linguistics (CL) and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) are united under the umbrella term 'functionalism' and are therefore sub-sets of Functional Linguistics for the purposes of the current study. There are very few research studies which have explored how elements of Functional Linguistics can be integrated into pedagogy and applied to a classroom setting. The few

which have been completed have focused on teaching about language in the L2 (Language 2 or second language) classroom. By thinking about grammar as a dynamic pattern formation dependent on time, place and context of use and about grammar learning as a skill for selecting formal structures to express meaning in various communicative situations, CL and SFL approaches can be combined (Liamkina & Ryshina-Pankova, 2012). Grammar learning can then be termed as '*grammaring*' (Larsen-Freeman, 2003) in which there is an opportunity for pupils to interact with meaning.

Liamkina and Ryshina-Pankova (2012) investigated the use of Functional Linguistics in the classroom by linking CL and SFL. As Liamkina and Ryshina-Pankova state: 'they both understand language as a semiotic tool that serves – and is simultaneously shaped by – the functions it is called on to perform in a speech community' (p.271). The study was conducted in the L2 German classroom and was applied to the teaching of German dative case and the grammar of German tenses. The findings of Liamkina and Ryshina-Pankova's study suggest that Functional Linguistic can be applied to other L2 learning contexts. They state that 'more classroom-based studies are needed' (p.271) to engage with how elements of Functional Linguistics can be applied to language-specific areas of grammar.

2.3.1 Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) defines grammar as 'functional' (Coffin et al., 2009:1): an aspect of a text which can be used to solve 'real world communication problems' (p.1). It uses the labels of the formal grammar system to present how grammatical forms are used and how these forms contribute to meaning. It is considered to derive from speakers' need to simultaneously make three main kinds of meaning: experiential, interpersonal, and textual (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2002). This directly associates the SFL approach to the philosophy of Myhill (2011), where grammatical constructions are meaningful and are used purposefully to establish a certain meaning.

SFL assumes that language has several communicative functional purposes, and that grammar aids in the construction of these communicative functions. One of these functions is the ideational metafunction focusing on representing experiences to the reader. The other is the interpersonal metafunction the exploration of which exposes 'the grammatical systems that are deployed in interacting with others' (Coffin et al., 2009:347). From an interpersonal perspective, a communicative situation established by the text is 'one of roles and relationships, identity, perspectives, and power' (Coffin et al., 2009:354). In order to successfully communicate and establish the required interpersonal relationships between text creator and text receiver or 'manage' the interaction, the writer must have a range of 'highly flexible and delicate language resources' available to them (ibid.). The current study attempts to provide and broaden the creative

resources available to the writer through introducing grammatical concepts with a focus on meaning.

SFL has been applied as an approach to classroom settings, although these have predominantly been the L2 classroom (Teruya, 2009; Byrnes, 2009; Crane, 2008; Ryshina-Pankova, 2006, 2010; Cafferel, 2006; Colombi, 2002, 2006; Achugar & Colombi, 2008; Mohan and Huang, 2002). Most of the findings from these studies suggest that the application of SFL to the teaching of grammar continues to be unexplored with the rigour necessary to develop it into a useful pedagogy.

2.3.2 Cognitive Linguistics and Cognitive Grammar

Cognitive Linguistics is a general area of Linguistics that uses a cognitive approach to language. It assumes that language is a 'psychologically real phenomenon' and that the 'processing and storage of information is a crucial design feature of language' (Geeraerts, 2006:3). Cognitive Linguistics assumes that language is 'an integral part of cognition' and that the wording we chose to 'linguistically encode a situation rests on the manner in which the situation has been mentally construed' (Taylor, 2002:11). A concern of Cognitive Linguistics has then been to focus upon languages from the perspective of the 'palette of resources' that they make available for the purposes of construal (Taylor, 2002:11).

Cognitive Grammar (CG) is a sub-set of Cognitive Linguistics. Langacker (1990) states that he considers grammar of a language to be 'merely providing the speaker with an inventory of symbolic resources' (p.45 in Geeraerts and Gruyter). It follows that CG assumes that 'language is inherently symbolic in nature' and that it is 'in essence a means for relating sound and meaning' (Taylor, 2002:20). CG does not regard the syntactic level of language as relevant, but instead considers the phonological level of language to be directly related to the semantic, with the syntactic level acting symbolically. Symbolic can be defined as the relationship between the phonological and semantic levels of language. This is not to reduce language to only the semantic but rather to suggest that syntactic aspects of language are motivated by semantics, and therefore meaning.

It is, therefore, important to define the meaning of the language elements which will be focused upon within the study's intervention lessons. For the purposes of the current study, 'verbs' are a major lexical category which share general characteristics. Therefore, 'verbs' have a relational profile which shows a temporal profile (Taylor, 2002:221). The study uses the definitions of 'modal' verbs as outlined by CG and argued by Taylor (2002).

Modal verbs are defined as those which:

1) are considered to 'semantically…offer a special perspective on a situation' (p.406).

2) can be understood in terms of some notion of force. The root modals construe the force as emanating from the laws of the physical world.
3) can be expressed without the use of modal verbs. Therefore, the use of the modal indicates a decision on the part of the speaker or writer.

The study uses definitions of the 'passive' voice as outlined by Langacker (1982) for CG and 'Space Grammar' and used as a term by Taylor (2002).

The passive voice is defined as:

1) a meaningful unit and is 'semantically distinct' (Langacker, 1982:75)
2) a temporal relation: the relation holds over a span of time that is part of the expression's profile (p.210).
3) a statement which could be stative in that it is unchanged throughout the duration of the time segment as indicted by the past tense of the verb *be* but which could also be 'processual' or indicating a process which is occurring in the time frame indicated.

Cognitive Linguistics has been used experimentally in A Level English Language[3] classroom as a pedagogy to consider whether this new theoretical model of teaching grammar is successful in aiding pupils in understanding the meaning behind grammatical concepts. Such grammatical concepts include clausal action chains including the passive voice, modality, deixis and metaphor. Giovanelli (2013) applied Cognitive Linguistics strategies to the teaching of grammar in the A level English language classroom and provided interesting support for the success of establishing teaching methods on a new theoretical pedagogy as well as the success of using Cognitive Linguistics as a theory underpinning a grammatical pedagogy.

However, the vague terminology used brings the validity of Giovanelli's theory into question, and the current study then seeks to use 'Cognitive Grammar' as its key term to provide detail and a more valid link between linguistics and the pedagogy proposed. Giovanelli consistently used the term 'Cognitive Linguistics' which is 'a descriptive label for a rather broad development within modern Linguistics' (Taylor, 2002:3), of which Cognitive Grammar is a subset. Furthermore, an opportunity exists within the study to return to the original label given to Cognitive Linguistics by Langacker (1982) of 'Space Grammar'. Although his reasoning was that a theory called space grammar could not be taken seriously, this fun and accessible labelling may allow a new theoretical grammar to become more attractive to teachers who require a new pedagogy and to younger learners who

[3] The A Level (Advanced Level) is a subject-based qualification conferred as part of the General Certificate of Education which pupils take over two years in the UK usually from ages 16-18.

could also find the label attractive. The current study will endeavour to link Cognitive Grammar, more specifically, with writing at a critical stage of writing development in order to provide grammatical concepts as useful available options or choices within the writing process. Therefore, the term used will be 'Cognitive Grammar' as a more specific label than 'Cognitive Linguistics'.

2.3.3. Cognitive Grammar and its place in the English classroom

There has been a clear movement into introducing linguistics into the classroom as a tool for pupils to learn about language. This movement has used linguistics in an explicit way as a structure for pupils by including the teaching of linguistic metalanguage. The application of linguistics in this way, and more specifically to writing, can prove 'even more disastrous' as 'linguistic concepts seemed even more difficult for students to grasp' (Noden, 1999:viii). There has recently been a surge of linguists training teachers to develop grammatical knowledge (Giovanelli, 2015) in response to 'a recognition of contradictions in the teaching context' (Golombek & Johnson, 2004:323-324).

However, there exists a distance between researchers of linguistics, teachers and policy makers. This was exemplified by Peng and Ann's study 'Positioning Linguists as Learners in K- 12 schools' (in Denham and Lobeck, 2011) in which it was found that linguistics is needed in schools, particularly in those that require analysis of language development of L2 learners of English. They perceived the difficulty of introducing linguistics within schools to be that linguistics is not considered relevant in solving these problems. They also found it hard to introduce something that is not appropriately linked to the curriculum. The Bullock Report (Department of Education and Science [DES]:1975) not only suggest that the teaching of grammar move away from 'the teaching of traditional analytic grammar [which] does not appear to improve performance in writing' (11.19, p.172) but that attention should be paid to language in context (11.24, p.173) so that children 'should learn about language by experiencing it and experimenting with its use' (11.25, p.173). They also suggested that pupils explore the social elements of language: 'we believe that the influence linguists can exercise upon schools lies in the concept of the inseparability of language and the human situation' (11.26, p.174).

There has been a plethora (Honda, O'Neil & Pippin, 2000; Peng & Ann, 2000; Wheeler, 2000) of attempts to bring linguists into schools to discuss the learning of grammar language, and even writing ability but there still remains confusion around the role that linguists can play in the classroom. Wheeler (2000) reported her research as a linguist in schools looking particularly at whether students' patterns of vernacular language was transferred into their writing. The summation of her experiences relates to the response of teachers within the school alongside participants and the professionals who were included in her work. Her advice for other linguists who

intend to commence research within schools is based on how linguistics is perceived: 'never name the language variety' and 'anchor in teacher's needs' being two instructions. It seems that linguists and teachers are not speaking the same 'language', and there remains some discussion around exactly what a linguist's role might be within the English teaching classroom. Wheeler summaries that 'for a linguist to gain traction in the public schools can be challenging indeed' (p.148). However, the study carried out by Wheeler gave the linguist as a researcher a very prominent and public role as the face of the expert within the school context. There remains scope for exploration as to how a linguist's knowledge can be used in conjunction with a practitioner's rather than attempting to dictate and communicate between two professions with differing requirements and needs.

One way in which a linguist's knowledge could be used is the way in which grammatical concepts can be taught and which ones are the most pertinent within the English L1 classroom. According to Holme (2012) Cognitive Linguistics can be incorporated into four principles that could be of use within the English classroom: embodied learning, conceptualisation, the lexico-grammatical continuum and usage. He argues that Cognitive Linguistics naturally lends itself to the teaching of language, above that of formal approaches due to its assumption that 'language's mental and social representations are the same' (p.6). This means that, with the use of Cognitive Linguistics, there is an opportunity to explore language through 'how language encodes the different perspectives from which an embodied cognition construes the same scene' (p.6). This links directly to the type of symbolisation used within Cognitive Grammar. This can be presented within pedagogy as 'freezeframes' or tableaus which are completed by pupils to explore the meaning of grammar constructions through embodiment; Giovanelli (2013) applied such a pedagogy to the A level English Langauge classroom. The current study uses freezeframes within the intervention lessons [Appendix 3 and Appendix 4] in order to lend pupils the opportunity to explore the meaning of the grammatical concept.

There are several grammatical constructions that are currently being taught in classrooms that lend themselves to being explained or explored through a Cognitive Grammar lens; one of these is the passive tense as it allows a particular scene to be organised in and expressed visually in order to clarify its purpose and meaning (Talmy, 1988). Using Cognitive Grammar, the passive then can be explained as a highly abstract conceptualised symbolic unit; symbolic status is attached to not only the more detailed unit but also the syntactic unit for which it is an instance. This idea is important for the study, as the theoretical pedagogy presented is one in which syntax is considered, but only as an embodiment of meaning. Cognitive Grammar links with ideas concerned with meaning and creativity as it assumes language is 'a set of resources that are available to language users for the symbolisation of thought and for the communication of these symbolisations' (Taylor, 2002:30). This

lends itself to a theoretical pedagogy which teaches grammar as a carrier of meaning, where syntax is not ignored but the structure of a sentence is not prioritised rather it is meaning which is given prominence.

The attempt of Giovanelli (2013) tested a new descriptive framework for grammar which was based on Cognitive Linguistics. This was trialled in an A Level English Language classroom where pupils already have a knowledge of Linguistic terminology. His study provides support for the contextualised teaching of grammar as well as introducing alternative pedagogies that focus on the meaning of grammar rather than the 'set' language rules of traditionalist grammar teaching. His rationale was to 'get them thinking in non-linguistic imagistic terms' (Giovanelli, 2013:63). This idea links to the study's interest in establishing a new pedagogy that aids teachers who have no background, or desire to learn, linguistic terminology. The pedagogy, created by Giovanelli, consisted of pupils engaging with and presenting the meaning of modal verbs in a physical or 'imagistic' way. As the study was carried out in the A Level classroom, pupils find value in the exploration of linguistic terms due to this being their A level qualification focus. Generally, the application of Cognitive Grammar to text or discourse has been fragmentary (Holme, 2012) and research has been limited.

It is also important to consider the link between 'actual embodied experiences' and the grammatical concept being used (Hope, 2012). In Giovanelli (2015) an argument is made that grammatical concepts on the page can be re-configured as conceptual space where the physical basis of concepts can be shown. The fundamental nature of the theory when acted out as a pedagogy within the classroom is kinaesthetic in its approach echoing Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences (1983). This theory outlines several competencies that seek to understand a learner's unique aptitude and ways in which they might prefer to demonstrate intellectual ability. The critique of this theory is outside the scope of the study; however, its importance lies in its recognition of pupils as individuals and therefore 'the need for teachers to be able to transform their content knowledge into pedagogical content knowledge of learning activities which address the learners' needs' (Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013). Included within these competencies is bodily kinaesthetic intelligence, an intelligence that means that these types of learners prefer accessing information through bodily actions. Therefore, it can be argued that the grammatical pedagogy explored in the current study enables a wider range of learners to access complex grammatical concepts. The study seeks to take this idea further in applying this theory to the Year 9 classroom, where students are less likely to have the same confidence in their linguistic knowledge as an A level language student.

There are also arguments concerning the status of grammatical categories. Langacker's (1987) Cognitive Grammar approach suggests that nouns and verbs are categories derived from our

experience of the world, but Croft's (2001) Radical Construction Grammar states that grammatical categorisations are metageneralisations of the ways words are used by grammatical constructions. The commonalities of these two exist in the realms of Applied Linguistics, the most important commonality for grammar teaching in the classroom being that 'lexis and grammar possess category meanings derived from the conceptualisation of embodied experience' (Holme, 2012:7). It is this commonality which has driven the use of commonly derived terms in the current study.

2.3.4. Movement as a Learning Tool

The Embodied Learning Principle (Holme, 2012) suggests that the learning of language can take place in the classroom through connecting articulation, action and gesture. The use of embodied learning within the classroom is prevalent across the globe with Islamic schools associating rote learning with rhythm and movement (Jacques-Dalcroze, 1988). The pedagogical practice of linking movement or gesture with learning of concepts is, within itself, not a new one. The Total Physical Response Method (Asher, 1969) was introduced through experimentation and showed that students who respond to commands accompanied by actions achieve higher scores on comprehension tests. The embodied learning experience attributed this success to the movement of learners which allowed them to experience meaning in a profoundly memorable way. The success of such methods has often been difficult to research as judging the success of such methods have either been unqualified or researched only from the perspective of the students who took part in the research (Brice Heath, 1993; Di Pietro, 1987).

Merleau-Ponty perceived the body as the 'third term' shaping how the mind experiences reality (1962:115): meaning is conceptualised from a mind which is the extension of the body. This is supported by neurological and anatomical understanding: meaning develops from movement and the physical grasp of forms (Gallagher, 2005; Gibbs, 2005). There are also schools of thought which believe in language originating from gesture (McNeil, 1992) which assume that we use the body for meaning making or 'semiotic material' (Hartshone & Weiss, 1931-1958). In this way, language and articulations are infused with the imagery of physical experience through the association of gesture, locomotion and articulation. This theory states that grammars use spatial relationships to conceptualise those that exist in words (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999). Therefore, Cognitive Grammar is often referred to as 'Space Grammar' as it constructs grammatical relations from spatial imagery. This theory seems to lend itself to activities that allow a physical exploration of grammar within the classroom. This links to the Virtual Embodied Principle which suggests that meanings can be made clearer when shown how they derive from physical interactions with forces and objects: Tyler (2008) demonstrated how graphics or drawn symbols can illustrate the embodied experience of forces within English modality particularly.

Cognitive Linguistics, and Cognitive Grammar, has been explored within the L2 classroom where it can be linked to aiding pupils in developing a new understanding of meaning through exploration of grammatical concepts that are new to them as they are learning a new language. There is a range (Boers, 1999; Boers & Demecheleer, 1998; Lazar, 1996; Littlemore, 2001; Littlemore & Low, 2006) of experimental evidence to suggest that the cognitive framework can assist L2 learners in acquiring figurative expressions in an effective manner and aid long term retention. Many studies such as Kovecses and Szabo (1996) have investigated whether memory of lexis can be enhanced with the explanation of conceptual metaphor theory (CMT), focusing primarily upon the retention of lexis in long term memory. This is supported by a more recent study by Youmei and Yun (2014) focusing upon Chinese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners with the aim of verifying the validity of a Cognitive Linguistics (CL) approach in the process of teaching learners English as a second language. This study used comparative classes: an experimental and control, with a pre-test, immediate post-test for short term recall and a one-week delayed post-test for middle term retention culminating in a final test four weeks later to test comprehensive effect and a follow up test six months later with think aloud protocols to confirm long-term retention. The results of the study were summarised: 'CL pedagogy facilitates L2 [second language] or FL [foreign language] acquisition in terms of learning lexical metaphors, verb-particle constructions, idioms and proverbs with respect to comprehension and memory' (p.477). The use of CL was beneficial for learners in understanding target materials due to its 'encouraging thought to learners who recognise that large amounts of the target language actually 'make sense' under the proposed CL approach' (p.479). The adoption of Cognitive Linguistics, and consequently Cognitive Grammar, can, therefore, lead to a positive effect on learners and could be beneficial to long-term learning behaviours (Arnold, 1999).

Furthermore, Holme (2012) conducted two interventions in Hong Kong where sixth formers were taught to identify useful English constructions when writing up their English project. The premise of the study being to get the students to schematise the 'useful' expression and generalise it in order to understand it with more clarity. They were then challenged to use generalisations within the appropriate context. It was found that students made fewer grammatical and lexical errors in their writing in the post-intervention writing task. Overall, the CL approach modelled by Holme (2012) predominantly focuses around the L2 pedagogy with no discussion of how CL can be applied to the first language (L1) classroom. The theory is also untested in the classroom with limited discussion as to how to translate the theory into practical classroom activities. Holme (2012) does suggest, however, that one must also consider age, culture, and learner predisposition as the principle can achieve little if learners cannot be convinced that they should be moving and acting in class. There are certain caveats, then, to the Embodied Learning Principle being applied in a classroom setting

but the principle itself does invite new research into the ways in which Cognitive Linguistics can be applied in the classroom. The current study attempts to translate Cognitive Linguistics, and Cognitive Grammar as a sub-set of this, into practical classroom activities with an awareness of the influence of social context on the effectiveness of the pedagogy (Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013).

There are fewer studies which are concerned with the teaching of grammatical concepts over the retention of lexis; Boers (1996) did, however, advocate that conceptual metaphor theory is efficient in teaching English prepositions particularly when attempting to facilitate comprehension of unfamiliar uses.

These studies all centre around the L2 classroom where Cognitive Linguistics is more often tried and tested (Meex & Mortelmans, 2002; Strauss, 2006; Sprang, 2003). Holme (2012) makes the link between the embodied learning experience and the teaching and learning of grammar within the L1 classroom stating that there is 'a further possibility…to use such procedures to clarify meanings that do not exist in the students' first language' (2012:9). The suggestion is that students are given the opportunity to explore language by feeling the force dynamics from which meanings are derived. There are a few ways in which Cognitive Grammar has been tested within the L1 classroom, although these centre more on smaller grammatical concepts: Lindstromberg and Boers (2005) showed that retention of English's inventory of verbs can be improved when learners enact them. The current study attempts to replicate this using 'freezeframes' as practical tasks in order to explore the meaning behind grammatical concepts.

2.3.5. Cognitive Grammar and Writing

The links between the teaching of Cognitive Grammar and writing are under researched. Holme (2009) makes a tentative suggestion that writing in, and of, itself is a 'frozen gesture' (Holme, 2012:12) or an act of recording the symbolisation of meaning in movement. The current study then seeks to explore the links that can be made between teaching grammar using a Cognitive Grammar pedagogy and writing.

2.4. The Link between Grammar and Writing

2.4.1. The nature of the link between Grammar and Writing

There has been much discussion in academic circles as to whether the teaching of grammar can be linked to pupil's writing. Further to this, the debate continues as to whether teaching grammar can improve the quality of writing, whether it has no impact or whether it can make the quality of writing worse. This has an impact on the structure and construct of schemes of work that teach grammar and whether links between grammar and writing can be made in the classroom. The

intricacies of a new pedagogical grammar are at the centre of an ongoing debate between policy-makers and researchers concerning the nature of the relationship between teaching grammar and writing ability. This section will discuss the key elements of that debate and will examine contemporary studies into the ways grammar can be taught to have an impact on the writing abilities of learners.

There have been a wide variety of studies that have taken place across the UK and US that have failed to provide suitably valid evidence to suggest that teaching grammar has a positive effect on writing ability (Braddock et al. 1963; Hillocks, 1984; Andrews at al., 2004a; Graham & Perin, 2007). These studies have concluded that teaching grammar either does not have an effect or has a negative effect on writing. Braddock (1963) summarised his study by stating that 'the teaching of formal grammar has a negligible or…even a harmful effect on the improvement of writing' (p.38). The idea that teaching grammar can be harmful to students' writing was supported by Harris (1962) in which classes of students in London were divided into two matched groups, both groups following the same curriculum but one group being provided with one lesson a week devoted to the teaching of 'formal grammar' (Braddock et al., 1963:78) whereas the other was supplied with 'direct instruction' on writing tasks. Harris found that the direct method group improved to a greater extent than the 'formal grammar' teaching group. The study has been criticised for the form and content of both the 'formal grammar' instruction and the direct method instruction with Tomlinson (1994) suggesting that the teaching of formal grammar was not rigorous or linked in any useful way to the writing tasks presented. Wyse (2001) responded by stating that the formal grammar was accompanied consistently by a constant application to the composition in question. These arguments seem to centre around the definition of formal grammar (Tomlinson, 1994) and the intricacies of the teaching methods used rather than considering whether, generally, the teaching of grammar can be linked to writing.

These studies also tended to focus upon the composition process, a fact which drew the attention of Hillocks (1984) who completed a survey of 500 studies of writing compositions in a statistical meta-analysis comparing a wide range of interventions into the composition process. He concluded that 'the study of traditional school grammar (i.e. the definition of parts of speech, the parsing of sentences, etc.) has no effect on raising the quality of student writing' and that 'taught in certain ways, grammar and mechanics instruction has a deleterious effect on student writing' (p.160). It is worth noting that studies which have found no relationship between grammar teaching and writing tend to use formal grammar teaching as a pedagogy. The findings Hillocks (1984) show that there is still discussion to be had as to not only if teaching grammar can have a beneficial impact on writing but what type of grammar teaching would be beneficial.

McCleary suggests that the most useful type of grammar for teaching is one which is 'pedagogical': 'grammars which intended to be used in teaching writing' (1995:2). What is needed, in his view, is a pedagogical grammar which is both 'accurate' and 'simple' (p.2). There are research studies which have used pedagogies which are Linguistic in approach, are accurate and simple, and have had a beneficial impact on writing. Bateman and Zidonis (Hunter, 1964) used a grammar which was based on the generative approach of Chomsky and reported that there was a statistically significant improvement in the writing of the experimental group. This was followed by Thompson and Middleton (1973) which applied transformational grammar approaches to grammar teaching and compared a group which received this treatment to a control group. There was not a statistically significant improvement in writing but there were greater gains for these pupils studying transformational grammar. Historically, there is evidence to suggest that the teaching of grammar does have a link to writing and that this can have a beneficial effect in terms of pupils understanding how to take control of the process of writing.

There currently exists the assumption in governmental policy that there is a link between Grammar and Writing. The government led improvements in literacy introduced as The National Literacy Strategy (DfEE, 1998) was established, linking the teaching of grammar to writing improvement. This was followed by studies establishing a strong link between grammar teaching and writing improvement; these focus particularly on how, rather than why, grammar is taught to improve writing ability. For the purposes of the current study, an improvement in writing ability is demonstrated through a clearer understanding of the rhetorical problem; metalinguistic knowledge of participants is an indication of their understanding of the writing task. It is the ability to manipulate and control the grammatical options available to writers that is most important (Myhill, 2012). This will develop writers that have a clear understanding of the social purpose of their writing.

Many contemporary studies argue that evidence exists for the relationship between grammar teaching and writing development (Myhill, 2012; Andrews et al., 2006; Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2012). Myhill (2012) reported upon a study which provides evidence for the beneficial impact of teaching contextualised grammar in a contextualised way on pupils' writing. This study is pivotal in the debate of how grammar should be taught with emphasis placed on 'playful experimentation' (Myhill, 2012:139) above the decontextualized learning of grammar. The central idea of Myhill's study is that 'being able to articulate linguistic knowledge is less important than being able to demonstrate it' (p.143).

The current study agrees with the key ideas present within Myhill's research, although there are a few areas that the study explores beyond the bounds presented by Myhill. Myhill's (2012) sample consisted of the intervention group of teachers who were provided with suitable pedagogical material to teach and the comparison group who continued to teach grammar as they would ordinarily. The current study focuses on the students as independent agents who understand classroom activities, in a myriad of different and individual ways, rather than the delivery of that activity, as well as the reception of such materials.

There has also recently been a governmental movement towards using complex linguistic grammatical terminology and theories with learners rather than using the linguistic theory as a hidden vehicle for grammatical pedagogies (DfES, 2001). There is disagreement among commentators 'about how far it is usefult to share the metalinguistic concepts and terms with the pupils themselves…' (Keen, 1997:435). The relationship between writing and a better understanding of grammar has been considered by many, including rhetorical grammar (Kolln & Gray, 2010) in order to understand what type of knowledge is required in order to have an impact on learners' writing. It is however inaccurate to state, as Giovanelli (2013) does, that the relationship between 'fully understood linguistic knowledge, and better reading and writing outcomes' has been confirmed (p.62). If linguistic knowledge equates to writing performance then linguists would be our best writers (Hartwell, 1985:115). It is not a fuller linguistic knowledge, but a knowledge of meaning and how one can use grammatical constructions for a social purpose that now must be considered when discussing a writer's development. The study attempts to present the linguistic theory of Cognitive Grammar as an initiating force that would not be used by learners in its raw form but will inform and construct the practices used within the classroom to teach grammar in an accessible and approachable way.

2.4.2. Defining Metalinguistic Understanding

It is first appropriate to define 'meta' in terms of writing. Gombert (1992) argues that all 'awareness', by definition, must be 'meta'; he distinguishes between what he conceives of as spontaneous and automated awareness which is different from conscious awareness and reflectiveness. Similarly, Masny (1987) considers metalinguistic awareness as implicit knowledge, whereby a learner can produce accurate stretches of language without declarative knowledge of the rules and processes used to produce it. The research study considers 'meta' to mean examples of conscious awareness and reflectiveness which does not require the use of declarative knowledge. Therefore, the study follows the definition of metalinguistic provided by Gombert (1992, 2003:13): '[a] subfield of metacognition concerned with language and its use…comprising:…subjects' ability

intentionally to monitor and plan their own methods of linguistic processing (in both comprehension and production).'

The research study assumes that there is a distinction between metalinguistic knowledge and metalinguistic understanding where metalinguistic knowledge is synonymous with explicit grammatical knowledge (Hulstijn, 2005; Roehr, 2008). Grammar then serves as a 'semiotic mediating tool, to develop knowledge about language [as a] means to becom[ing] metalinguistically aware' (Jones & Myhill, 2011). By providing the creative tools, the study seeks to aid learners in becoming more metalinguistically aware and, therefore, develop their metalinguistic understanding.

Metalinguistic understanding necessitates an awareness of language; the study assumes that the 'intuitive feeling for language [and] the skilful control of creativity and convention' (Van Lier, 2010:136) is as important as a conscious awareness of the rules of language. It also assumes that having an awareness of language 'does not require the ability to describe a linguistic feature using grammatical terminology' (Van Lier, 2010:136). Therefore, the research study assumes a distinction within the metaconsciousness, where metaconsciousness is an awareness of formal linguistic properties (Van Lier, 2010), of individuals.

In Van Lier (2010), the metaconsciousness level is split into two sub-categories:

a) A practical awareness manifested in language play and wilful manipulation of linguistic resources.

b) An academic or technical awareness.

This shows that metaconsciousness is considered to be hierarchical; it is suggested that a) precedes b) which infers that b) is a more complex skill than a).

However, when related to writing, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) define metalinguistic understanding as learning how to mean (p.15). Vygotsky (1986) supports this by suggesting that writing requires 'deliberate semantics- deliberate structuring of the web of meaning' (p.182). In this way, if a hierarchical construct of metalinguistic understanding is adopted, it may be that a purposeful and deliberate manipulation of meaning is a more complex skill than a conscious technical awareness. Gombert (2003) supports this by suggesting that linguistic competence precedes conscious linguistic control; therefore, indicating that the control of language and the conscious manipulation of it is a more complex skill which requires the acquisition of prior language development. Gombert (1992) frames this within an understanding of what it means to have explicit metalinguistic knowledge which, he argues, includes declarative knowledge and procedural

knowledge: declarative knowledge belongs to the knowledge of and ability to state rules and principles, whilst procedural knowledge is the ability to put this knowledge into action (p. 191).

Furthermore, Gombert suggests that 'we think that declarative knowledge precedes metalinguistic control and the application of this knowledge' (p. 191). In a similar way, Bialystok (1987) argues that linguistic development is centred around analysis and control where the ability to talk about their own writing is conceptualised as analysis and transferring that metalinguistic understanding into their own writing is framed as control. This is a system which allows developments of learners metalinguistic understanding can be described (Myhill & Jones, 2011). Given the increase in complexity, the movement from conscious technical awareness to purposeful manipulation can then be framed as a development or enhancement of understanding.

2.4.3. Writing and Cognitive Development

The study considers the participants' writing ability and their cognitive development, which includes their understanding of rhetorical problems, to be intricately intertwined. This section discusses writing theories that are considered to be of relevance to the study with the assumption that writing and cognition are not separate. But an attempt is made to clarify which elements of writing theories are of more interest to the main research question's focus of 'understanding'.

The study considers the metalinguistic knowledge of participants to be an indication of their understanding of the writing task. The definition of 'metalinguistic knowledge' is the intentional monitoring which the subject applies to the processes of attention and selection (Cazden, 1976; Hakes, 1980). It also assumes that the declarative and procedural aspects which are contained with the definition of 'metalinguistic knowledge' are separate: reflection on and the manipulation of structural aspects of language and the control of mental mechanisms are initially believed to be separate entities but with the overall assumption that cognition is more complex than this. The study therefore follows the ideas presented by Menyuk (1985) who argues that these two are not independent and that one precedes the other: 'we cannot use knowledge that we do not have' (Menyuk, 1985:256). The study instead assumes that the cognition around writing and understanding is not so easily defined and should be discussed within its context.

The study seeks to 'identify the 'metalinguistic' by examining verbal productions in order to find those linguistic features that indicate the existence of self-referential processes' (Gombert, 1992:4). The self-referential processes are also indicative of effective learning 'when a learner can notice, monitor and review how their learning is going.' (Watkins, Carnell & Lodge, 2007:19). Gobert's taxonomy states that the less able writers may find it difficult to explain their objectives and anticipate the needs of their readers (Gobert, 1992). Inexperienced writers appear to be more

interested in surface errors rather than checking the meaning and communicative adequacy of their productions (Humes, 1983). These inexperienced writers appear to suffer from a lack of knowledge (Pintrich et al.,1986) and a difficulty in knowing when to apply the knowledge they do possess (Bryant & Bradley, 1980). The study includes these ideas when considering the ability of the participants to 'understand' the rhetorical problem given.

The study also recognises that there is a difference between the verbal production of language and the written. It therefore perceives 'understanding' to be the ability of the written language to 'fulfil higher requirements of explicitness' (Gombert, 1992:151). This includes a clear awareness of the audience and purpose of written language. This is not to say that clear 'understanding' of the rhetorical problem is shown through conscious, deliberate and structured alteration of writing. The study anticipates that writers with an 'understanding' of the problem will produce written texts that 'possess a coherent overall configuration' (Gombert, 1992:166). It therefore examines the written text holistically in order to consider the writer's overall 'understanding' of the task and assumes that the process of writing is not linear. Flower and Hayes (1981) outline a cognitive process theory of writing, the fundamentals of which are that the writing process is not linear and that there are cognitive stages that overlap and are interwoven by the writer.

It is important to make the distinction here between the cognitive processes involved in writing which would indicate 'understanding' and the physical act of writing. It is the writer's skill in juggling the demands of 'the rhetorical situation and the audience which prompts one to write' (Flower & Hayes, 1981:367) which indicates what is perceived as a 'good writer'; a definition which includes the writer understanding the rhetorical problem they face. This means that developing the ability to understand rhetorical problems is embedded within the cohesiveness of the written text produced, and the nature of the utterances made during think aloud tasks. Flower and Hayes (1981) use 'protocol analysis' to uncover the cognitive processes in writing. 'Thinking together' is also a method used more recently by Mercer (2007) as a sociocultural approach to consider the development of children's thinking. The less able writer may not have the ability to comprehend that the social function of the text is not contained within the surface aspects of the text. Less able writers tend to be more interested in the detection of surface errors (grammar, spelling, punctuation) than in checking the meaning and communicative adequacy of their productions (Humes, 1983). If, therefore, there is a conscious focus upon surface errors or a focus on these errors is paired with a discussion of how this might alter the text's social function the writer can be considered to be less able in their understanding of the rhetorical problem.

2.4.4. Models for Writing Development

In order to pinpoint features of sophistication and maturity in writing development, it is necessary to discuss outlines of pupils' writing development. 'Writing is a relatively new area of empirical enquiry' (Myhill, 2005:77) and models of writing development are, therefore, relatively under-developed themselves. Cognitive models of writing which attempt to describe the internal processes of pupils as they undertake writing tasks are centred upon judging the varying levels of writers' competence (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Bereiter & Scaramalia, 1984; Kellogg, 1996). The more linguistic models focus primarily upon the external indications of writer capability. The key areas of focus for these models tends towards discrete instances of use of linguistic constructs such as sentence level subordination, variety of syntax and use of lexis (Perera, 1984; Loban, 1963). This is also the focus of Nippold et al. (2007) who judge maturity and complexity of the writing of pupils in Grade 12 (ages 16-17) by their ability to increase the mean amount of words per sentence. It is also important to note that although students can produce a high level of academic writing at this stage they still require 'teacher guidance in planning and revising their writing' (Grise- Owens, 2012). Student knowledge is also considered to be important in the process and quality of writing within these type of theories (Nippold, 2007) as those who know more about the topic are more likely to write essays of a high quality than those who know comparatively little. In this way, Linguistic models were concerned more with density and knowledge rather than conscious manipulation of language choices.

This reductive view of writing development, which simplifies the complexity of the writing process into a 'linear model of growth' (Myhill et al., 2008:27), limits the lens through which writing is perceived and discussed. Literacy cannot be assessed through such a reductive accumulation of skills and linguistic maturation as it is 'not solely dependent on intellectual and physical maturation' or simply just as a set of skills which can be acquired and applied (Czerniewska, 1992:71). The production of text is more complex than these writing development models suggest in that 'good' writers are assessed not simply through complex syntax or subordination. Watson (2011) found that 'good' writers can make use of simple sentences but that these are used for 'design purposes' (p.278) suggesting that it is the control shown by writers in the decision of which linguistic construct to use and how they establish particular effects which allows them to be defined as 'good' or 'able' writers. The importance of context must also be discussed, particularly concerning the type of text which is being constructed by the writer: the Technical Accuracy Project (QCA, 1999a) carried out by Verhoeven et al. (2002) found that there is a difference between the use of clause structures in narrative and expository texts. This suggests that the context of a text has ramifications upon not

only the wider form but also the grammatical concepts used within any written text; therefore, grammatical concepts must be a consideration of the text's writer as they construct a text.

This means that any judgement of writer ability must take into consideration a wider range of factors than simply the syntactic structure of the writing produced. Judgement must also be informed by the writer's 'design choices' (Sharples, 1999) which, being centred on the individual's thought processes are invariably difficult to assess. 'Good' writers must have the ability to select from the range of their syntactic repertoire and make choices to suit the text under construction and make conscious decisions in crafting their work. Therefore, maturity in writing must be linked to a deliberate and purposeful use of syntax (Rimmer, 2008). Although there are elements of syntactic structures which can lead one to conclude that syntactical complexity can be related to development in writing, it must also be the writer's ability to manipulate 'syntactic structures within the writer's repertoire' (Myhill, 2011:286) which must also be considered. In this way, the writer is meeting the individual requirements for that text. Myhill et al. (2008) also concluded that complex syntactic structures are not enough to be able to judge a piece of writing as 'good', but one must also consider how the constructs link to 'audience' and 'purpose' (2008:8).

The decisions of a writer are not only notoriously difficult to 'assess in a comparative way' (Beard, 2000:9) but there remains an ongoing discussion as to whether writer's choices are conscious or unconscious and the extent to which 'design ability' may be influenced by 'metalinguistic awareness' (Myhill, 2008:286). Despite these ongoing uncertainties, there can be no question that writing remains a complex and difficult procedure the assessment of which requires careful and focused attention to a variety of aspects which are explained within Chapter 4. As human language development is 'protracted and continuous [in] nature and it is a lifelong process' (Nippold, 2007) it must be remembered that language development and understanding will never be able to be conceived as 'complete'. This can also be true of writing development in that it is ongoing and, therefore, the current research must also be aware that it can only make a judgement on writing development within a range rather than making any assertive claims about writing development being fully complete or writers being fully formed in their abilities.

2.5. Summary

There exists a need for a new pedagogy which is 'both accurate and simple' (McCleary, 1995:2). The gap that continues to exist between governmental policy and teacher belief of how to teach grammar for writing (Watson, 2012) indicates that the current context is one which values exploration and experimentation. A range of Linguistic approaches are being used in the grammar classroom including a multi-faceted approach which includes aspects from Cognitive Linguistics and

Systemic Functional Linguistics (Liamkina & Ryshina-Pankova, 2012). Although the majority of these approaches have been tested in the L2 classroom (Achugar & Huang, 2002; Byrnes, 2009; Cafferel, 2006; Colombi, 2002, 2006; Crane, 2008; Mohan & Huang, 2002; Ryshina-Pankova, 2006, 2010; Teruya, 2009;), there exists an interest in how teachers can use Linguistics to teach grammar in the L1 classroom (Giovanelli, 2013). There exists the belief that the teaching of grammar has a relationship with writing ability and that the way in which grammar is taught can have an impact on the quality of writing produced by pupils (Myhill, 2011). This belief also suggests that the way to construct 'good' writing is to consider how constructs link to 'audience' and 'purpose' (Myhill, 2008:8). This requirement seems to link well with the theoretical position of both Systemic Functional Linguistics in which an aspect of a text which can be used to solve 'real world communication problems' (Coffin et al., 2009:1) and Cognitive Linguistics in which the way we 'linguistically encode a situation rests on the manner in which the situation has been mentally construed' (Taylor, 2002:11).

Therefore, the investigation will seek to explore a new pedagogical grammar which is multi-faceted in its approach and one which uses linguistics as a tool. It will draw on the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 to develop a model of teaching grammar which is practical, accurate and detailed enough to ensure that practitioners are able to access, and apply, it. There are no studies which apply both Systemic Functional Linguistics and Cognitive Linguistics in the L1 classroom and link them to writing. The current study will therefore endeavour to address the gap by exploring the impact of these methods on the writing of Year 9 pupils.

CHAPTER 3. CONTEXTUALISATION

This chapter outlines the context of the investigation. It details the wider educational climate, the context of the site of the study, the placement of the researcher, the teachers who taught the intervention lessons and the participants themselves.

3.1. Wider Educational Climate

The research study was completed in the academic year 2016-17 over the Spring and Summer Terms (beginning in January 2017 and ending in June 2017). GCSEs and IGCSEs [4]are the qualifications taken in the UK as the focus in Year 10 and 11; the final examination for GCSEs and IGCSEs are commonly taken at the end of Year 11. 'New' GCSEs were introduced across the UK in September 2015 with the first results being published in August 2017. 'New' GCSEs were those which were different in content and percentage of assessment allocated to both written examination and coursework with the 'new' format placing a higher percentage of the marks on final examinations. The grading system for these new GCSEs was also different to the previous courses (a 1-9 system rather than an A-G system). GCSEs and IGCSEs were the most common assessment at 16 years at the time of the study. These qualifications tended to be more academic and classroom focused than many of the others such as BTECS which were generally considered more vocational. GCSE English Literature at Grade C or above was required as a benchmark for most professional jobs in the UK.

The site where the research was conducted was an independent school based in the UK. UK independent schools are those which are funded by parental fees- these are day or boarding schools. Independent schools are generally perceived to be schools of academic excellence: 'attending an independent school in England is associated with the equivalent of two additional years of schooling by the age of 16' (ibid p. 15). This could also be seen through the perception of pupils' success at university where the percentage of UK children who were taught in independent schools goes from 7% to 12% in Sixth Form and 82% of pupils from independent schools receive a 1st or 2:1 compared to 73% nationally. The ratio of teachers to pupils in an Independent school has an impact on this perception with the ratio being 8.7:1 in independent schools and 17.1:1 nationally. Academic excellence translated to GCSE and IGCSE as independent schools in 2016 were gaining five times the national average (34.5%) of entries receiving A* grades at GCSE. IGCSEs were an option

[4] GCSEs or the 'General Certificate of Secondary Education' examinations were introduced in 1986 and replaced the previous GCE 'O' Level and CSE systems by merging them together. IGCSEs or the 'International General Certificate of Secondary Education' examinations IGCSEs were introduced in 1988 and are internationally recognised qualifications. Candidates can sit IGCSE examinations all over the world.

which retained the A-G grading system and many independent schools chose IGCSE to retain the grading system.

IGCSE English Literature and IGCSE English Language were offered by Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) in 2016-17 with both courses having a route which focused 100% of the marks on the final written exam. Many schools, including the research site, made the decision to begin studying courses earlier than Year 10 with the skills required being taught much earlier than the IGCSE years. CIE IGCSE English Language could be gained through the sitting of two papers from a choice of three all of which had a focus on the skills of reading and writing. The Writing Paper (Paper 3) requested that candidates read a section of unseen text and that they then responded to the text through a written communication which is given within the question; this could be a newspaper report, a journal entry, a letter or a speech. Marks for both reading and writing were awarded within the response with more weighting given to the writing in the Paper 3. There were marks awarded specifically for spelling, punctuation and grammar but there were also marks available for voice and tone.

3.2. Site

The research was carried out at Lowood Hall School (pseudonym) which was a single sex boarding school in a South East county of England, taking girls from 11-18 years of age with a high percentage of those boarding in the school full time. There were 1,280 independent schools open in the UK in the year the study took place (Independent Schools Council, 2017) with an average of 405 pupils; thus, the research site contained an above average amount of pupils for an independent school at 603 pupils. Many pupils came from a similar socio-economic background with professional parents. There were a higher than average ratio of second language English speakers in the community, with most pupils being bi-lingual or even tri-lingual.

The site held independent status and was a registered charity funded primarily by parental fees and donations. The school charged £36,000 a year which placed it above the average fee amount for independent schools at £30,951 a year in 2016-17 (ibid.). Pupils gained a place at the school on completion of common entrance and scholarship examinations that could be taken at 11+, 13+ or entry into the sixth form. The most recent ISI (Independent Schools Council) report stated that the site's IGCSE results were above the UK and world average with results at GCSE also being above the average of maintained selective schools. Its independent status meant that it does not have to follow the statutes as outlined by the National Curriculum at KS3. This allowed the teaching and learning to be based more upon teacher understanding of how pupils learn and how this could be

supported by effective teaching pedagogies and methods. Teachers were encouraged to gain the best results they could for their pupils but to also inspire a love of learning for its own sake.

Year 9 (13+) was one of the main entry points into the school with pupils sitting an entrance paper which assesses comprehension and the accuracy and creativity of writing. There were often new pupils in Year 9; at the time the study took place, any new pupils would have been in the school for over a term. On average, there were just less than 100 pupils in Year 9 in any one given year at the time the study took place with most of the pupils being full-time boarder and, therefore, on site 24 hours a day.

3.3. English at Key Stage 3 within the Site

To assess pupil progress, the school had its own system of both formative and summative assessment at Key Stage 3 (KS3). English was sectioned into three strands: Writing, Reading and Speaking and Listening, all of which were assessed through both formative and summative assessments throughout the academic years (Year 7, Year 8 and Year 9) of KS3. Writing development in Year 9 was implicitly maintained through schemes of work that indicated the skill of focus (see Appendix 1) with grades given based on the characteristics of written work that 'best fit' the elements within a centrally constructed mark table. There was a close focus on preparing the pupils for their CIE (Cambridge International Examinations) IGCSE English Language examinations that were taken in the November of Year 11. There was also a focus on IGCSE English Literature through the study of *Romeo and Juliet* in Year 9 (a Shakespeare play was also taught at IGCSE).

The scheme of work for Year 9 covered a wide variety of genres (see Appendix 1) that pupils may be expected to use within an IGCSE English Language examination. Lessons which were recorded over two terms during the study captured the teaching of writing tasks that focus particularly on audience and purpose with the genre of focus being letters. A 'lesson' or 'period' can be defined in the school's setting as a thirty-five-minute session whereby pupils interact with a teacher, with a clear set of activities that are completed to develop a teacher-led goal. The culture of the site was highly academic, with small class sizes (between 15 and 19 pupils per class) to ensure that pupils had a high level of contact time with the teacher. Emphasis was placed upon achieving highly whilst also ensuring that pupils leave the school as well-rounded individuals that enjoy the process of learning. These classes were mixed ability in order to incorporate a range of different opinions in classroom discussions.

Pupils received five 'lessons' a week of English which incorporated both English Language and English Literature in the IGCSE sense. The study focused on one double lesson for the first intervention lesson (or two out of the five single lessons) for each Year 9 group with the contact time

with the teacher amounting to seventy-five minutes. For the second intervention lesson, one single lesson was recorded. Pupils are given 'prep' (more widely called 'homework') which usually amounted to one hour's worth of work per week which was then marked by their classroom teacher. These tasks could be completed whenever or wherever the pupils choose on the school site; as there was no set 'prep' area or monitored time pupils were given freedom to complete prep when and where they thought was pertinent. The pupils had a range of potential areas around the site where they completed 'prep' tasks including studies in their boarding houses, libraries within the main building and computer suites around the main building. As prep times were not monitored by staff, the areas in which work was completed were often bustling and pupils were more than used to working within a lively environment whilst they completed their work. Two of the writing tasks which were completed for the study were 'prep' tasks with the 'think aloud' participants completing their writing in a computer suite.

The end of year English Examination at Year 9 was made up of two sections: one which asked them to complete an essay on the Shakespeare play they studied throughout the year and one which was invariably a past CIE IGCSE English Language Paper 3 in which they responded to an unseen piece of text using a given type of text (e.g. a newspaper report). These were marked according to the CIE IGCSE English Language mark scheme (see Appendix 2) but this was applied with more generosity (with the overall mark being out of 50). The Language question used for the end of year examination in the year the study took place can be seen in Appendix 8. Pupils practiced answering these types of questions throughout the year within class and for prep tasks; the study used these practices and end of year exams as writing samples.

3.4. The Researcher

The researcher was also a practitioner within the school site having worked at the school for five years at the time of the study; therefore, the researcher may have taught many of the participants as they progressed through Year 7 and Year 8. The researcher held a managerial role as Deputy Head of English whilst completing the study within the English department which means that she organised extra curricula activities and was present for many of the evening discussions and events. The researcher had a reputation within the department for being the 'grammar' expert as the researcher was also the linguistics advisor for pupils taking linguistics on to University level.

The researcher has a background in linguistics, having studied English Language and Linguistics at University to BA level, as well as gaining a Masters degree in Education with Applied Linguistics. She also holds a PGCE as a teaching qualification and was involved in training and mentoring new staff as they began their teaching careers within the school in the capacity of her role as Deputy Head of

English. She taught the full range of year groups within the school including Years 7, 8, 10, 11 and Sixth Form in the year the study took place; she incorporated her knowledge of linguistics and language into her lessons at every level.

3.5. The Teachers

The year group was split into six groups which were mixed ability. Teachers were allocated to a group according to timetabling, so each teacher in the study had one group assigned to them apart from one who taught two groups of Year 9 (Groups 3 and 4). This meant that there were five teachers in total who were teaching year 9 in the year the study took place. The teachers were all trained in English Literature, holding degrees in English Literature except for Teacher 3- who is also teacher 4 in this instance- who held a doctorate in Religious Studies. All had an academic qualification up to degree level and, in some cases, up to masters or doctorate level.

Teacher 5 had some experience of linguistics holding a doctorate in Sociolinguistics and learning of specialist vocabulary for learners with English as a second language but had no experience of the branch of linguistics associated with the research study. None of the other teachers had experience of linguistics and many of their teaching experiences were having taught grammar in a formalised way. Schemes of work for the department outline the grammatical concept to be taught in a particular week for example 'commas' giving considerable freedom to the teaching and learning methods used within the classroom. The teaching of grammar was focused on a more formal methods of accuracy and identification with 'SPaG' (Spelling, Punctuation and Grammar) tests once a term [see Appendix 1]. All members of the department held a teaching qualification, except for Teacher 3 (who was also Teacher 4) who was being trained at the time the study took place by the researcher in her role as Deputy Head of Department.

3.6. The Participants

The study used pupils in Year 9 as participants. These participants were a typical example of the type of pupils within the school with the scope of ability being average for any one school year. Pupils would be expected to take a range of subjects during Year 9- the most relevant to the study being English, and Classics which includes Latin and, in some cases, Ancient Greek. All participants would also have studied a Modern Foreign Language which could be French, German, Spanish, Italian or Chinese.

Year 9 was becoming increasingly used as a preparatory year for the year 10 and year 11 GCSE years, containing the introduction and practice of both the content and skills required to prepare for national examinations. GCSEs are often perceived by learners to have a major impact upon life

prospects (Denscombe, 2000); therefore, it becomes highly important to introduce concepts that will be assessed at GCSE in an inspiring and memorable way. The ways in which concepts are introduced at this stage is important for their understanding of assessed components of the subject area. By endeavouring to explore how grammatical concepts are introduced, the research study attempted to engage with how to improve the strategies used to improve writing ability when they engage with complex conceptual ideas within writing tasks. The whole of Year 9 was then selected as the sample in order to focus particularly on this stage of writing development. There were a potential 94 participants available within the year in which the study was carried out. Parental consent was withdrawn for 5 pupils based on concerns around anonymity, 4 pupils withdrew consent themselves and 1 pupil left the school half-way through the study and her data could, therefore, not be used as it was incomplete. The restrictions of ethics left 84 participants in total which numbered at 14 in each class.

Given the case study focus used by the study, an opportunity sample was deemed appropriate which considered the availability of the researcher and the class (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The opportunistic nature of this sample means that it also contains elements of randomness, increasing its representativeness. The sample size of 'a year group' consisted, in this instance, of 94 pupils which is an average size KS3 year group for Lowood School. The 'think aloud' participants were chosen from each class of 14 participants through discussion with the classroom teacher. This selection was of 4 pupils from each class that reflected the range of abilities within the class as assessed using the school systems and the comments of the current English teacher. This gave a possible 24 'think aloud' participants; 1 participant withdrew at a late stage in the study and was not replaced; 1 participant left the school before commencing the study and was replaced on discussion with the classroom teacher with another pupil; this left the study with 23 'think aloud' participants.

As the researcher was also a practitioner at the school at the time the study commenced this added to complexity of the relationship between the researcher and the participants. The researcher was not teaching this particular year group within the academic year when the study was completed, and some distance was achieved. However, many of the participants would have been taught by the researcher in previous years and so may have been exposed to contextualised teaching of grammar previously in their education. This effect can be mitigated by considering that the researcher would have been following the same schemes of work as the other teachers within the department; thus, the method may have been different, but the content must have been the same.

The Year 9 group used as participants were split into six groups of 16 pupils. 5 of these groups were taught by a single teacher throughout their year with one group (Teaching Group I- TGI) taught by

two different teachers. TGI had 3 out of their 5 single lessons with one teacher and 2 single lessons out of the 5 lessons with the other; the validity of the study was strengthened (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007) by ensuring that a similarity in delivery throughout by only using one teacher from the pair for teaching and recording the data. Two out of the six groups in the year were taught by the same teacher (TGIII and TGIV).

3.6.1 The Think Aloud Participants

For the purposes of truth and honesty, the study requires the researcher to declare any perceptions of the participants and their relationship with them when relevant to understand the researcher's potential impact on the participants (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The participants' reactions to the researcher are present in a few of the lesson intervention and think aloud transcripts; Table 1 below attempts to contextualise these. In order to retain an adherence to ethical guidelines of anonymity, only the most necessary details are included to give a general overview. This overview includes information about the pupil which may have impacted the way in which they undertook the 'think aloud task' such as Special Education Needs and Disabilities (SEND). It also outlines whether the participant had been taught by the researcher before which may mean that they had been exposed to the contextualised teaching of grammar, but not Functional Linguistics methods.

Table 1: Context of Think Aloud participants

Participant	Contextualisation
1G	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, weaker than those in the rest of the class; this weakness was exemplified in her writing through a lack of accuracy in spelling and punctuation. This participant was taught by the researcher in her previous year of schooling.
1K	She was put forward as an average or middle-range participant comparative to her class. She was taught by the researcher in her previous year of schooling.
2A	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, stronger than those in the rest of the class. This participant had never been taught by the researcher. This pupil was EAL (English as an Additional Language) as English was not her first spoken language.
2B	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' as an average or middle-range participant comparative to her class. She had never been taught by the researcher.
3A	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, weaker than those in the rest of the class. This weakness was exemplified in her writing through a lack of accuracy in spelling and punctuation. This participant had never been taught by the researcher.

3M	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' as an average or middle-range participant comparative to her class. She was taught by the researcher in her previous year of schooling.
4C	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, weaker than those in the rest of the class. She was dyslexic at the time of the study and was supported through additional English sessions outside of class and had 25% extra time in written assessments. She was taught by the researcher in her previous year of schooling.
4F	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' as an average or middle-range participant comparative to her class. The participant had never been taught by the researcher although the researcher had taught a member of her family in her previous years in the school.
4G	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, strong in relation to the rest of the pupils in the class. This participant had never been taught by the researcher.
5B	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' as an average or middle-range participant comparative to her class. The participant had never been taught by the researcher.
5C	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' as an average or middle-range participant comparative to her class. The participant had never been taught by the researcher.
5N	This participant was EAL (English as an Additional Language) in the sense that English was not her first language and was not the language she speaks at home. The participant had never been taught by the researcher.
6C	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, stronger than those in the rest of the class. This participant had never been taught by the researcher.
6I	She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, weaker than those in the rest of the class. This weakness was exemplified through a limited range of vocabulary in comparison to the rest of the class as well as lack of accuracy in punctuation.

3.6.2 Other Participants

Table 2 outlines relevant participants who did not participant in the 'think aloud' section of the study but whose writing is analysed closely in later chapters. This table attempts to contextualise these participants.

Table 2: Context of other participants

Participant	Contextualisation
2L	This participant had never been taught by the researcher. This pupil was considered EAL at the time of the study as English was not her first language and was not the language that she spoke at home. She was considered a high range participant in comparison to her class.
3D	This participant had never been taught by the researcher prior to the study. She was considered an average or middle-range participant.
4L	This participant had never been taught by the researcher prior to the study. She was considered as middle-to-high ability in comparison to the rest of her class.
5E	The participant had never been taught by the researcher. She was considered as middle-to-high ability in comparison to the rest of her class.
6H	The participant had never been taught by the researcher. She was considered as high ability in comparison to the rest of her class. She was known to be an exemploray pupil regarding classroom discussion.
6L	The participant had never been taught by the researcher. She was considered to be an average or middle range participant in comparison to the rest of her class.

CHAPTER 4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH METHODS

This investigation aims to contribute to the continuing debate around the way to teach grammar for writing to add an alternative pedagogical to grammar teaching. The study seeks to explore the impact on the writing of Year 9 pupils of using elements of Functional Linguistics (FL) including Cognitive Grammar (CG) and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). The impact of FL will be considered in terms of how, and if, participants' understanding of the rhetorical problem has altered or changed in order to show a development in metalinguistic understanding. The study includes evaluating the impact of two intervention lessons: one on modal verbs and one on the passive voice. The intention is to add to the body of research which explores the relationship between grammar teaching and writing as well as the limited field of Linguistic strategies being used in the classroom. The study also represents the first attempt at applying FL strategies to the teaching of writing in the L1 classroom.

4.1. Research Questions

As following the social constructivist approach: 'researchers pose research questions and generate or inductively develop meaning from the data collected in the field' (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008:8). The research is also an example of educational research which seeks to stand as a 'critical enquiry aimed at informing educational judgements and decisions in order to improve educational action' (Bassey, 1999:39). The study is designed to explore and reflect on the impact of certain pedagogical methods of teaching grammar; therefore, it is exploratory and reflective.

The purpose of the study is expressed in the following principal research question:

What is the effect of contextualised grammar teaching using Functional Linguistics strategies on the understanding of Year 9 learners in writing tasks?

This can be broken down into the following research questions:

1) What type of relationship is created between writing and metalinguistic understanding when learners are taught using Functional Linguistics strategies?

2) In what ways does the use of contextualised grammar teaching using Functional Linguistics strategies allow writers to engage with texts?

3) How does teaching writing using Functional Linguistics strategies aid the development of learners' metalinguistic understanding?

4.2. Research Paradigm and theoretical position

4.2.1. Research Paradigm

Not only are methodological decisions defined and shaped by the ontological assumptions of the research, but they are also intricately linked to the epistemological assumptions made (Hughes, 1995). The study adopts a qualitative approach which is interpretivist in nature; this is founded on the epistemological assumption that individuals are understood to construct their own social reality, rather than having reality external to individual's as the 'determiner of the individual's perception' (Gage, 2008:153). This is based on the ontological assumption that reality is viewed as mentally and subjectively constructed (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). By endeavouring to understand the subjective view of human experience (Cohen et al., 2011) the study therefore resonates with an interpretative paradigm. The study seeks to do this by producing 'multifaceted images of human behaviour as varied as the situations and contexts supporting them' (Cohen et al., 2007:22).

The methodological decisions are also shaped by the axiology which include the values and beliefs that we hold (Cohen at al., 2011). Learning is viewed as a social construct and learners are perceived to be initiators of their own actions with their own free will. This sense of voluntarism (Burrell & Morgan, 1979) means that learners' perception of learning differs when in the same environment: 'learners may differ in their responses to the same or similar situations' (Gage, 2008:153). The assumption is that learners can be provided with the transformative information required to support learning in the form of developed contextualised grammar teaching strategies. As the research focuses on differing perspectives of the grammar strategies it is dependent on the fact that learners cannot be seen as 'replaceable objects' (Tobin, 2009:155). Nor will the study look at 'one-sided, external expressions of the entity under investigation' (Roth, 2009:247) as it will consider the learners' internal perspectives. Learners will be seen as agentive: 'proactive, problem-oriented, attentionally focused, selective, constructional and directed to ends' (Bruner, 1996:93).

The research 'attempts to understand social phenomena from a context-specific perspective' (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008:9). This is inclusive of the researcher's position as practitioner within the research site. The researcher's role then becomes one of 'passionate participant' (Guba & Lincoln, 1998) whereby each interaction with the participant must be considered to be and established as meaningful. As a constructivist study, it is also clear that the researcher must attempt to 'acknowledge that their own background shapes their interpretation;' (Bloomberg at al., 2008:9). What is then attempted is a heightened awareness and reflexivity, as well as considered and consistent justification of every element of the study.

4.2.2. Theorisation of 'understanding' the writing task

Knowledge and understanding are conceptualised as tacit and unconscious for the purpose of the study, though tacit understanding can be made conscious using think aloud protocols. The think aloud protocols can therefore be potential examples of both explicit understanding whereby grammatical concepts are applied consciously and examples of where understanding can be inferred (in-use) from the writing completed during the think aloud protocol (Flower & Hayes, 1981). The study seeks to replicate the method of carrying out the think aloud protocol but diverges from Flower and Hayes in its analysis of the gathered data.

Borg and Burns' comment that 'the formal frameworks which theorists bring to bear on the description and analysis of pedagogical activities may very often not be isomorphous with the personal and practical pedagogical systems through which teachers make sense of their work' (2008:480) does argue that there are limits to pre-constructed conceptualisations of the grammar teaching shown as well as applying this pre-construction to written products. However, the study deliberately does not attempt to construct a conceptualisation which is in line with teachers' understanding of grammar; instead, it seeks to apply concepts which add clarity to the discussion of the texts produced and to categorise knowledge of writing for the purposes of replication and validity.

4.3. Research Design

4.3.1. Overview

The research was designed to use a case study approach with randomly selected participants in the sense that the research was carried out with whichever participants were part of Year 9 in 2017. This approach was chosen in order to produce complex detail about the writing tasks completed at each stage. The multi method approach was used in order to add to the thick description (Geertz, 1973). Given the study's alignment with social constructivism, it was appropriate to endeavour to gather data using a multi-method approach following Kagan's belief that multi-methods are useful 'not simply because they allow triangulation of data but because they are more likely to capture the complex, multifaceted aspects of teaching and learning.' (1990:459). This combined data allowed the capture and exploration of the phenomenon in a multi-faceted way (see Figure 4-1) allowing for the technique of constant comparison (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The study was centred around the effects of two intervention lessons which taught two different grammatical concepts. It was therefore necessary to gather both pre and post intervention data in order to provide comparison and to add to contextualisation of participants' grammatical abilities.

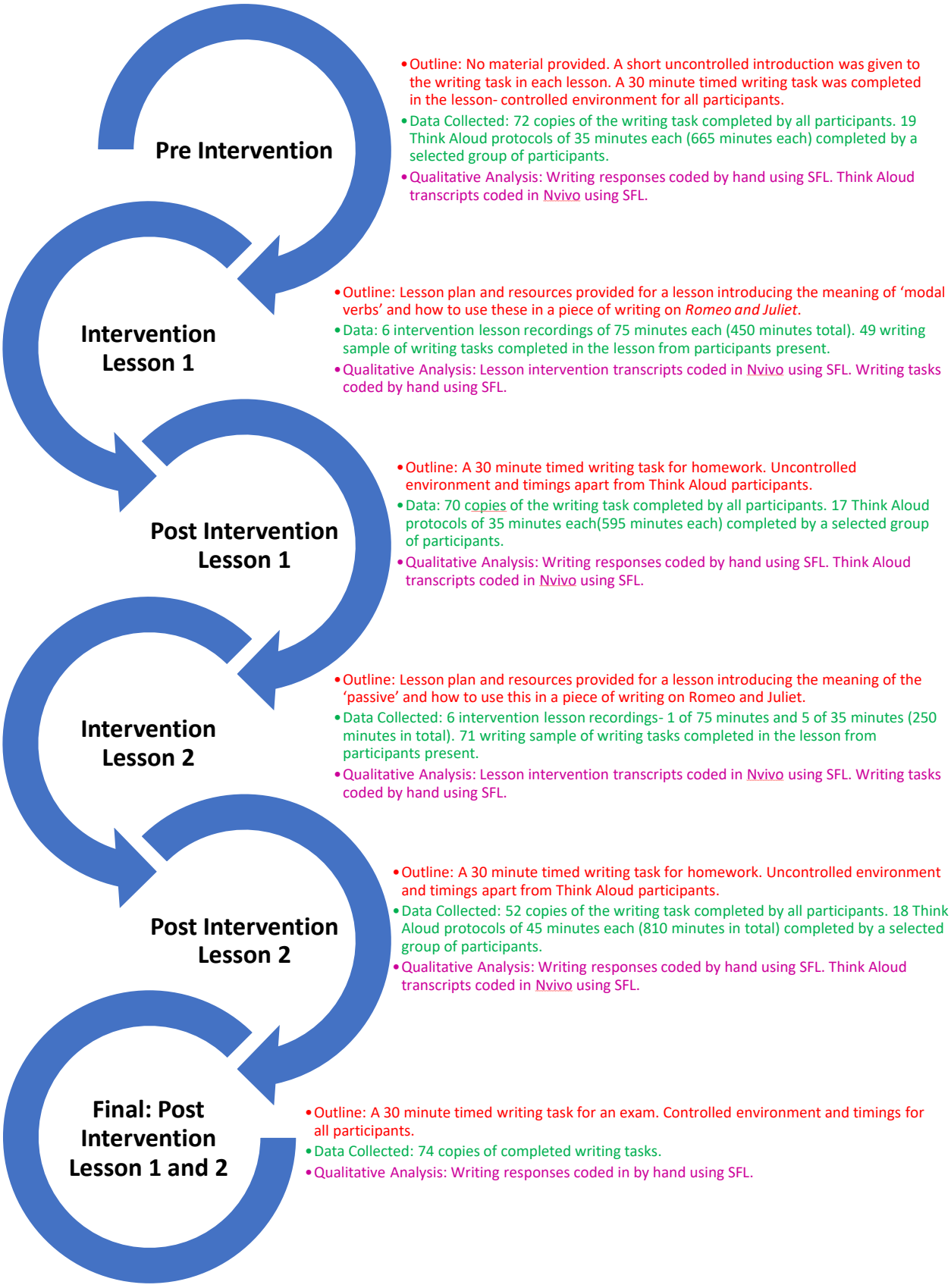

Figure 4-1 – Research Design Overview

4.3.2. A Case Study Focus

It is difficult to justify the placement of the discussion of case studies within methodologies considering that many researchers believe it cannot be classed as either a methodology or a method (Stake, 2005; Thomas, 2011). Yet as stated by Silverman (2013:113) 'a methodology refers to the choices we make about cases to study'. One of the fundamental methodological decisions made was what exactly to study within the world of the research. The choices made included what type of participants and what type of site to focus on. The study could not be divorced from its context as decisions were based on external influencing factors (Yin, 1994). This makes the case study an appropriate description to use to both explain and organise the research within suitable boundaries. In this way, the case study focus becomes a 'strategy' (Punch, 2009:119) with a holistic focus that is used as a paradigm to 'preserve the unitary character of the social object being studied' (Goode & Hatt, 1952:331). It can also be defined as a methodology because it provides suitable confines for what and who to study.

Yin (1994:4) outlines three types of case study: 'there may be exploratory studies, descriptive case studies or explanatory case studies'. It is suggested that it is the primary research question that decides the type of case study. The primary question that motivates this research is 'what is the effect of using contextualised grammar teaching using Functional Linguistics strategies on the understanding of Year 9 learners in writing tasks?'. This is to be explored through considering how the effects of this type of pedagogy can be defined which is intrinsically linked to the perceptions and interpretations of the learners. The research questions are concerned with the 'what' and 'how' of teaching this pedagogy and, therefore, indicate that the study is 'exploratory' in nature.

As stated in the introduction, the study seeks to ameliorate a ‘real-world problem’ (Brumfit, 1995:21) where real world research ‘lies in seeking to say something about a complete, relatively poorly controlled and generally ‘messy’ situation’ (Robson, 2002:3). The messy situation necessarily includes the ambiguity of where the boundaries of the phenomenon end and where the context begins, a situation that is aptly dealt with through using case study as a strategy. This is a choice as to the subject of study, rather than the way in which it shall be studied: 'it is a focus and the focus is on only one thing, looked at in depth and from many angles' (Thomas, 2011:9). As Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) suggest that case studies are distinguished less by the methodologies that they employ than by the subjects/ objects of their enquiry, the case study focus will also be justified through description of the philosophy around subjects of the study.

The study seeks to provide a 'thick description' (Geertz, 1973) of the participants’ thoughts towards both writing and grammar after being introduced to write our FL strategies as well as their abilities

and depth of understanding both pre and post intervention. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that a 'case' is a phenomenon occurring in some form of bounded context. The boundaries of the case study will then be defined with reference to the characteristics of individuals and groups involved (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). As previously stated, it is difficult to provide boundaries for the case when the case and its context are not mutually exclusive. The prima-facie research question clearly states that the focus is 'Year 9' pupils who are involved in 'writing tasks'; therefore, outlining the characteristics of the individuals involved and bounding the study. The 'case' or 'phenomenon' can be outlined as the process of using FL as a pedagogy and how participants respond to this within their writing tasks.

The decision concerning the site of the study was also predetermined by the availability of the participants. Accessibility was at the fore of considerations concerning at which site to complete the study. As both primary and secondary research questions states 'Year 9' learners as the focus, the study had to focus upon an educational setting whereby classes of learners would be taught together. The site provides an 'ideal set of circumstances in which to try out a new approach or project, maybe to gain a fuller insight into how it operates before taking it to a wider audience' (Cohen et al., 2007:255) and is defined by Robson (2002:182) as an 'extreme' case study. The exploratory purpose of the study being to interpret the effects of a new pedagogy on learners means that descriptions could inform future attempts to teach grammar conceiving a research and development model.

There are several critical objections against using case studies as a methodology including Shaughnessy et al. (2003) who implied that case studies can lack control which means that casual effect is difficult to conclude. Equally, some suggest that it can be the lack of control that the researcher has that makes case studies so valuable as methodologies (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995:322). The study is unique in that the researcher was also one of the practitioners within the educational setting, with some control over the pedagogies and resources used in the school. The situation of the study therefore does not disrupt the normal context of the learners and yet has a considerable level of control which can lead to suggestions as to causality. There is, simultaneously, a lack of control at classroom level as it is the regular classroom practitioner that interprets the key resources provided. A case study focus then provides a suitable methodology to describe the study.

A further criticism is that case studies lack generalisability (Cohen et al., 2011; Nesbit & Watt, 1984; Yin, 1994;) and the lack of ability to identify patterns across history makes the case study a 'thing of the past' (Smith, 1991:375). The study concerned itself with one significant instance of the teaching of a new grammatical pedagogy; therefore, it is the quality of the description that becomes

important rather than its frequency. The study is also used as 'a representation of a single instance of the class of instances that it represents' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007: 254). This will allow the significant instance of grammar teaching to inform future teaching within the site, and be applied to future, similar sites. The study also recognises that it does not represent a sample and it does not generalise to populations or universals but endeavours to generalise findings of propositional theories only. It should be noted that the study's main aim is not to generalise, but to describe and explore the context of the individual case to develop a rich understanding of a particular situation and as such is valuable in its own right (Punch, 2007).

When considering the external validity of the study, the thick description must provide enough detail for other researchers to be able to identify what may or may not be transferable to other similar situations. The research was carried out with the utmost 'honesty and integrity' of the researcher which results in the reader believing in and understanding fully the suitability of the methods used and the date collected (Newby, 2010:121). The concern of transferability is discussed in later sections, alongside being included in the discussion of validity and reliability later in this chapter.

Yin (2003) also identifies two further prejudices against case studies: case studies as a method lack rigour and case studies take too long to complete resulting in over lengthy documents. To counteract these prejudices, the study seeks to ensure that all evidence is reported fairly with as little bias as possible by explaining both the selection process and where knowledge gives way to inference (Dyer, 1995). It will also endeavour to separate the case study approach from ethnography or participant observation through the methods used and the way in which the data is analysed; this will ensure that the data collected is not too long, nor too convoluted in nature.

Despite the problematic elements of using a case study methodology, this research method does allow creativity as it recognises each individual case's originality. It has the possibility of providing a 'rich picture with many kinds of insights coming from different angles' (Thomas, 2011:21). This creative approach lends the necessary flexibility required to describe the 'messy' situation of the classroom. Denzin (1989) outlined how qualitative researchers endeavour to gain an understanding of the fundamentals of social situations by providing thick descriptions: 'in thick description, the voices, feelings, actions and meanings of interacting individuals are heard.' (p.83). The position of the researcher as teacher-researcher aided this provision of a 'thick description' as there was the ability to describe the educational context of setting in detail and with the necessary subjectivity required to engage with both practitioners and participants on an emotional and informal level.

In order to ameliorate the criticisms surrounding case studies as a methodology, several actions were undertaken:

1) The study was clearly defined in order to avoid lack of clarity or precision in findings. This also allowed the study to make claims that are of value and lends reliability. This clarification of the strategy of the study allowed the validity of the case study to increase (Punch, 2007).

A framework initially created by Thomas (2011) was used to establish the precise characteristics of the study. This was created by summarising current views of theorists and encompasses the subject (or focus), purpose, approach and process (as exemplified in Table 4-1).

Table 4-1 – Summary of types of case studies (Thomas 2011:93)

Subject	Special or outlier case, Key case, Local knowledge case
Purpose	Intrinsic, Instrumental, Evaluative, Explanatory, Exploratory
Approach	Testing a theory, Building a theory, Drawing a picture (illustrative), Descriptive, Interpretative, Experimental.
Process	Single or multiple (nested, parallel, sequential, retrospective, snapshot, diachronic)

Based on Thomas' (2011) summary, the key characteristics of the study can be outlined as:

Subject: Thomas (2011) identifies a 'key case' as a good example of something, an exemplary case. This seems to fit well with Robson's (2002) definition of an 'extreme' case as both types are based in the characteristic of an 'ideal' situation in which the research can be carried out.

Purpose: It has already been argued that the purpose of the study is Exploratory.

Approach: It has already been argued that the approach is Interpretative.

Process: The study is a single case study as this was a 'snapshot' of a whole year within the school.

2) A pilot case study was carried out to inform any alterations to the main case study.

The pilot case study, therefore, was defined differently due to its purpose being one of reflection and alteration. The purpose of the pilot was to inform the methods of the main study and was therefore instrumental (Denzin, 2000) in that it provided a clearer understanding of the parameters of the main study. The pilot tested the suitability of the resources in producing useful data in response to the research questions. It also explored the relationship between the participants and the methods used, including whether these provided the most suitable data. It, therefore, sought to 'increase the reliability, validity and practicality' (Cohen et al., 2007) of the main study.

As the pilot is a part of multiple case studies, being replicated the year after in the main study, the pilot can also therefore be defined as a sequential study in that discoveries of the pilot will somehow

impact or have an effect on the main study (Morse, 2010). The pilot data can be used as providing a range of experiences, whereby the setting, age group, phase of education and gender are not altered but the calendar year does alter along with the teachers presenting the material and the pupils within the year group. This also allows issues raised in the pilot study to be explored by the main study strengthening the identity of this as an Exploratory case study (Yin, 1994).

4.3.3. Practitioner Research

Practitioner research cannot be definitively placed in either Methodology or Research Methods. Its ability to provide a structure for, and impact, a study implies that it can be considered a Methodology in its types of influences. There is also a distinction that can be made between action research and practitioner research.

The study could be defined as action research in its aims. It is exploratory in nature as it seeks to explore the impact of a using a particular pedagogy and is 'emancipatory' as it aims at 'transformation and change within the existing boundaries' (Zuber-Skerritt, 1996:5). The study considered whether the pedagogy used may also be able to be used more regularly in the same educational setting. It could therefore be defined as action research due to its interest in altering and adapting techniques of teaching grammar. However, the research cannot be wholly classed as 'action research' as it does not include the discussion between a group of teachers or researchers seeking to alter or adapt their practices. Instead, the researcher acted alone endeavouring to reflect on their classroom pedagogy and is therefore a 'reflective practitioner' rather than a critical theorist. The reflective practitioner seeks to improve a situation on a classroom level rather than for a political agenda (Kemmis, 1997); it is this in which the study is interested.

The study could also be argued to be action or practitioner research due to its structure. Lewin (1946) codifies the action research process into four stages: planning, acting, observing and reflecting. The study itself, through its use of a pilot case study replicated this structure with the planning of the resources exemplified through the yearly scheme of work, the acting upon this plan in the intervention lesson, the observing and analysis of data followed by reflection and modification.

The most persuasive argument is the status of the researcher within the study and how this role aptly fulfils that of a practitioner researcher. The researcher was also a practitioner at the site of the research and as such has an interest in the results and outcomes of the research. As the 'personal involvement of the researcher' is 'at the front of the research activity' (Robson, 2002:215) the study can be described as practitioner research. The study was initiated by the desire to 'produce practical knowledge that is useful to people in the everyday conduct of their lives' (Reason & Bradbury-

Huang, 2000:2). By providing an alternative method of teaching grammar, it is hoped that the scope of grammatical pedagogy will be widened beyond the point of formalized rigid grammar exercises.

There are several problematic aspects of action research as well as practitioner research. It could be considered that the label 'action research' itself is dichotomous as the teaching profession values action and translates generalized theory into specific action in a classroom setting whereas research seeks precision and replication (Marris & Rein, 1967). The combination of the two is challenging, as both require a suitable level of generalizability, each needing the possibility of this but in differing ways. The current study is then original in that it provides a view of the full scope of what it means to undertake research with an 'action' and 'research' approach. It provides a view of how pedagogy is written into specific action within the classroom and shows how this can be translated into theory and a research report. One of the interests of the researcher is to 'close the gap' between academic researchers and practitioners (Hammersley, 2007). As the research embodies all of these: academic researcher, practitioner and examiner, there cannot be in existence a smaller 'gap'. As stated in Shipman (1985): 'in an ideal world there would be one member of staff in each school who, through in-service training…is able to comprehend the latest research' (p.85). The study therefore sought to amalgamate the definitions of 'action' and 'research' and combine them so that both researchers and practitioners, as an audience, can benefit.

Due to the desire to investigate the impact of a specific classroom action, this thesis then seeks to provide interest to a wide range of audiences. Although 'the issue of the audience of action research reports is problematic' (Zuber-Skerritt, 1996), by providing a 'rich description' this thesis will allow readers to select elements that are transferable and generalisable to their own settings. As an '…individuals' behaviour can only be understood by the researcher sharing the frame of reference' (Cohen et al., 2007) the research will provide intricate detail and attempt to provide objectively framed descriptions of the setting, participants and results.

Due to the nature of action research, particularly this instance where the researcher is also a practitioner in the research setting, researchers undertaking research using the action research approach are often 'involved emotionally' (Bassey, 1995:39). This can mean that the researcher practitioner can be biased towards the participants and the way in which they interpret the data, particularly when reporting observed lessons or upon those participants with which they have a close relationship. In this specific educational setting, this problem is greater in the sense that the school is a boarding school and therefore the researcher practitioner also fulfils a pastoral role. The practitioner researcher can find the process too 'messy' (Robson, 2002) and this may increase the likelihood that the final report can be confused and confusing.

The current study could also be defined as 'close to practice research' (CtP) in that it is 'research that focuses on aspects defined by practitioners as relevant to their practice' (Research Excellent Framework [REF], 2014). One of the main criticisms of CtP research is that it lacks 'originality, significance and rigour' (REF, 2015:15). The researcher has ameliorated these problems by focusing data collection and data analysis carefully upon the research questions; by organising data accordingly and increasing the level of reflexivity. The researcher has ensured that bias is eliminated as far as possible and that the investigation fulfils requirements of high quality in CtP through a 'robust use of research design, theory and methods to address clearly defined research questions' (Wyse, Brown, Oliver & Poblete, 2018:15). Full disclosure means that the researcher has retained an open and honest report.

4.3.4. Validity

The study is not reported in such a way as to be a 'closed narrative with a tight structure' but more of a narrative which seeks to explore questions and 'partiality' (Cresswell, 2007:204). The report has, therefore, sought to illuminate rather than obscure the 'gaps, tensions and silences' (Peshkin, 2001:249) within the study. Blaxter et al. (2002:221) suggest that qualitative research must include a depth of reflection concerning its own usefulness and relevance through consideration of the 'four related concepts: significance, generalisability, reliability and validity'. It is not the aim of the study, as a case study, to be concerned with generalisability. The detailed context given within the report, however, will aid transferability (Cresswell, 2007:204) which is listed as an alternative by Guba and Lincoln (1989) alongside 'Dependability', 'Confirmability' and 'Trustworthiness'. The study's trustworthiness, validity and dependability must be of paramount importance in order to provide useful research. Cohen et al. (2005) provide a useful definition of validity as being achieved through 'the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, the extent of the triangulation and the disinterestedness of the researcher' (p.105). To achieve this, the report has been carefully crafted to ensure that every detail is included. This fulfils Newby's (2010) requirements for generalisability in the sense that a rich and detailed description should be provided for other researchers to glean which elements of the study are generalisable from one piece of research to another and in varying contexts.

Qualitative studies are also complex regarding their reliability as much qualitative research is concerned with interpreting idiosyncratic situations. The existence of multiple realities means that, if the study were to be transferred, there would inevitably be a range of different, and potentially conflicting, interpretations of the situations presented in the data. The study has followed Guba's (1981) guidance around applicability in order to increase the rigour of the research and provide a more reliable study: truth value, applicability, consistency and neutrality where applicability is

argued to apply to qualitative research which is intending to apply, or transfer, its findings to a similar setting. Truth value was established at the beginning of the report with an outline of the context in which the study was conducted. All classroom practices and routines were maintained throughout the study in order to achieve neutrality.

4.4. Data: methods of information collection

Larkin (2009) outlines several types of data which are suitable for the revealing of metacognition; data collection used several of these methods. Using a range of different data methods also allows for triangulation in that providing multiple data sets leads to methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1970b).

Data was collected using the following methods each of which is assigned the following code:

- Lesson Observation through recordings (O)
- Sample written work derived from classroom activities (W)
- 'Think Aloud' recordings transcribed (T)
- Analysis of resources provided (R)

The way that each of these data collection methods relates to the research questions is outlined below:

Table 4-2 Outline of the relationship between data collection methods and research questions

Research Question	Purpose of data	Data Collection Method
In what ways does the use of contextualised grammar teaching using elements of Functional Linguistics strategies allow writers to engage with texts?	To explain and describe the impact of teaching Cognitive Linguistics and Systemic Functional Linguistics strategies on the processes and writing of learners.	• Think Aloud recordings and transcripts (T) • Sample written work (W) • Lesson Observations (O) • Analysis of questions and resources provided (R)
What evidence is there to suggest an altered understanding of writing tasks in Year 9 learners when being taught using elements of Functional Linguistics strategies?	To explain and describe the nature of the learning which has taken place in the application of grammatical concepts in writing tasks.	• Lesson Observation (O) • Think Aloud Recording and Transcripts (T) • Sample written work (W)

4.4.1. Intervention Lesson Recordings (Observations)

Recordings took place during intervention lesson 1 and 2. The recordings are referred to as 'observations' in the sense that the researcher is privy to what is happening in each classroom as it is

happening. It was necessary to record lessons rather than observing them as the Year 9 lessons were timetabled simultaneously over the time when the researcher was also teaching. Recordings took place over the time period of one term. The timetable was such that 3 out of the 6 Year 9 groups had their double English lesson on a Wednesday and the other 3 had their double English lesson on a Thursday; therefore, recordings happened on these days within the same week. Two set of recordings were carried out: one for Intervention Lesson 1 and one for Intervention Lesson 2.

It can be argued that the observations were semi-structured in pattern as the observer did have 'an agenda of issues' (Cohen et al., 2007) for which data was gathered. The lesson also followed the lesson plan provided and was, therefore, controlled by the observer in some fashion. However, the flexibility and skill of the teacher presenting the lesson allowed for any necessary deviation from the planned stages of learning to clarify misconceptions or broaden discussion.

Recordings were carried out with as little active provocation by the researcher as possible with teachers starting and stopping the recording themselves, and in this way the observer was a complete observer rather than participant-observer (Gold, 1958). As an observer, the researcher was completely passive and did not engage with learners at all. Due to familiarity with the class, no participant felt the need to ask questions of the researcher. Although the researcher was completely non-interventionist in this sense, there is a discussion to be had concerning how far the researcher was, as a practitioner within the school, so much a part of the context of the school that by being present in the classroom there was a 'social' impact on the students. There were references made in the recordings to the researcher- the impact of this will be discussed in a later section. The closer relationship held by the researcher did mean that there was full immersion in the social situation; Morrison (1993) argues that this can lead to a more nuanced understanding of the emerging situation being observed. The benefits of holding multiple roles within the classroom setting means that the researcher can add to the aim of producing a 'thick description' making the observations aligned with the interpretive approach of the study.

The fact that the observer will have some form of impact on participants is a well-known weakness of the observation method (Denscombe, 2009). The presence of a researcher is bound to be disruptive in any situation. However, the impact of this presence was lessened because the divergence from 'normality' (Denscombe, 2009:157) was minimal for this educational setting. The site and its construction of professional development and requirements for professionalism dictate that each year teachers observe their colleagues. This is also part of the departmental development as if a colleague requests to observe a lesson, this is usually accepted particularly when there is a clear focus for the observation. This means that in the event of a teacher observing a class which is

not their own is not abnormal and is not considered to be something unique or disruptive. The learners have also experienced being observed on a regular basis, with trainees often in the classroom as well as teachers from other departments and senior leadership team members. Therefore, although the presence of an extra adult in the room causes disruption in the sense that that adult brings with them their own relationship with the learners, this problem is tempered by the frequency with which observations occur and the perception of these observations as 'normality'. By following the usual outline of observations in the school and adhering to these whilst also completing valid research observation the researcher was able to construct field notes that were 'strong on reality' (Cohen et al., 1997:405). This enhanced reliability because a detailed and accurate representation of situations was produced due to the multi-faceted nature of the researcher's role within the classroom setting. Effects were also ameliorated by using recordings rather than the researcher being physically present in the classroom; recordings were taken using iPads which were subtle in design and placement which allowed participants to behave naturally without being reminded that they were being recorded.

There is also invariably a response to the observation researcher by the teachers involved in the study. Although the focus of the study is upon the learners, elements of the research questions include an aspect of change and alteration of resources used by practitioners. This approach means that the study requires a 'democratic involvement of those on whom the study impinges' (Bassey, 1995:32). Complete openness and honesty were maintained in the relationships with the teachers involved in the study. The study and the focus of this was discussed with the teachers that were observed in the classroom and each was consulted on when the recording should take place. The fact that the researcher was attempting to be a complete observer (Gold, 1985) with as little participation as possible meant that the teacher experienced no challenge to their role in the classroom and avoided confusion from the learners as to who was teaching the class.

The focus of the observation recordings was the initiation of new knowledge in the learners and the integration of this knowledge in connection with the understanding of key concepts relating to the tasks undertaken. The observation organisational dilemma was alleviated due to the smaller group sizes within the school and a more focused attention upon the 'think aloud' participants when observations were taking place.

4.4.2. Writing Samples

The study defined 'sample work' as written work completed by the participants that was not constructed of documents completed with the research in mind (Finnegan, 1996), but as part of the wider scheme of work completed by participants over the terms in which the study was conducted.

In this way, the researcher could remain as unobtrusive as possible (Jupp, 1996) to have as minimal impact on participants as was conceivable in the context to reduce potential bias. Sample work was collected from every participant within the sample class, and therefore is subject to the same questions of representativeness as the sample. All sample work was handwritten except in those cases where a participant ordinarily typed their work for SEND (Special Educational Needs and Disability) reasons and was completed on separate sheets of paper for ease of collection and photocopying writing samples. Writing samples were not 'marked' or 'assessed' by the classroom teacher before being photocopied as such judgements were not relevant to the research questions.

The researcher followed the 'useful' suggestions made by Finnegan (1996) to ensure that the sample work was considered from every angle, and placed into context; therefore, continuing to adhere to the case study methodology in providing suitable explanatory context. The researcher ensured that the sample work was relevant for the research topic by selecting the rhetorical problem themselves, allowing the sample work to display the necessary data of interest to the study. This was not an abnormal event, as the researcher constructed the scheme of work for the year group from the sample ordinarily. The rhetorical problems posed followed the same formula as the rhetorical problem presented to participants in the intervention lesson allowing any necessary comparison between work produced pre and post intervention lesson. Equally, care was taken to ensure that all rhetorical problems were the same in difficulty and wording to avoid issues around reliability (Cohen at al., 2007). The analysis and discussion of all the rhetorical problems constructed and used can be found within the 'analysis of resources' section later in this chapter.

4.4.3. Think Aloud (protocol analysis)

'Think Aloud' is used as a term within the study to refer to a method which involves participants verbalising their thoughts as they complete the writing task. Think aloud then becomes a method which allows the revelation of 'processes that are normally hidden; they have the potential to make the covert overt' (Johnson, 2005:27) and were used to engage with pupils' understanding recording judgement… as it was being formulated (Wyatt-Smith & Castleton 2005:134). It is the method's ability to make the covert overt that is beneficial to the study as by making a participant's subconscious thoughts concerning writing accessible to the researcher, they can then be used to consider the stage of their writing development, and by extension their understanding of the writing task. When discussing the writer's understanding of the rhetorical problem, it has been stated in Chapter 2 that less able writers seem to find it difficult to explain their objectives (Humes, 1983) and to anticipate the needs of their readers (Martlew, 1983). It is then the nature and frequency of utterances that contain any reference to the requirements of the rhetorical problem and any consideration of the reader that are of interest to the study.

The selected 'think aloud' participants were asked to complete three 'think aloud' protocols across the research study as they responded to the given writing tasks. One which was pre- intervention, one post-intervention lesson 1 and one post-intervention lesson 2. Participants were given instructions in the first session of recording with suggestions as to how to 'think aloud' [Appendix 11] as well as instructions on how to begin and end the recordings. These verbal thoughts were recorded digitally using iPads and transcribed for analysis.

There have been several studies that have used 'think aloud' to consider the nature of the act of writing and the construction of writing itself. Flower and Hayes (1981) used this method when constructing a systematic 'protocol analysis' whereby transcripts from the 'think aloud' recordings were analysed according to their structure. Their study considered the structure of written responses and how writers enact their response to rhetorical problems. The 'think aloud' method allowed Flower and Hayes to construct a physical document in which patterns and constructs could be perceived meaning that the validity of their analysis increased due to the availability of the record of both the participant's thought processes and the source of their research conclusions.

There are aspects of the method that the study must be aware of. One of these is that 'most expert writers do not necessarily speak when they write' (Chafe, 1982). This means that the actual words which were recorded may not be the indication of a skilled writer, and therefore expert understanding, but it may also be the silences within the 'think aloud'. To combat this, the 'think aloud transcripts contained the length of pauses and fillers. Another consideration is that the method itself may have an impact on the thinking skills of participants as it can provide practice in reflexivity: rather than showing the impact of teaching a concept in a certain way on thinking it could show a higher order of thinking rather than a clearer understanding of the concept itself (Adey & Shayer, 1994). There may also be a residual effect of the method itself: the method can 'lighten the cognitive load' and therefore aid learners in producing successful writing. Equally, this could add to the cognitive load of the less able writers. What may be seen within the data if comparison is too heavily relied upon then is an impact or effect of the method itself; as participants become more practiced at verbalizing thoughts, what may follow is an improvement in their writing ability. There may also have been the temptation for participants to 'romance' the researcher- particularly as the researcher was also a practitioner in the school- by paying more attention to the grammar than they would usually (Wellington, 2000:144). However, Beard comments that an understanding of grammar is particularly useful for 'diagnosing weakness in writing' (2000:153), this aspect of pedagogy is important to explore, and it provides a further layer of data which helps to build a more holistic picture.

The study will not use this method to assess the participant's skill as a writer. This means that the analysis of the structure of the transcript or the 'protocol analysis' presented by Flower and Hayes (1981) is adopted not as the primary analytical method but as a tool to unpack the transcripts in order to access the utterances that are of interest to the study. It is not the purpose of this thesis to discuss the participants' efficiency at writing, although comments about this may be a by-product of analysis or included as additional commentary. The 'think aloud' will be used as a discursive tool to consider the quality of the participant's understanding by considering the quality and nature of the utterances made. Utterances of note then include how frequently participants engage with the rhetorical problem, how they comprehend it, the nature and type of alterations they make, the length and nature of pausing. This links more closely with 'understanding' the rhetorical problem as seen in the main research question, rather than considering their ability as writers. The 'think aloud' transcripts are also not simply used as a comparison for pre and post intervention but are one method in a myriad of methods that add to the study's aim of providing a 'thick description'. It is also not an argument of cause and effect but a holistic discussion which uses the method to provide relevant data.

4.4.4. Resources Provided by the researcher

The analysis of resources constructed, particularly the rhetorical problems presented to the participants, provided data to support an unbiased approach from the researcher and to construct a clear set of comparisons. The resources were selected to provide the best opportunity for an 'active, constructive and self-directed process' (Collins et al., 2010:6) of learning. The analysis of these used Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) outlined previously to ascertain the 'expected' social function of the constructed text and a clear outline for how the participant was 'understanding' the rhetorical problem. The lesson plans provided by the researcher can be found in Appendices 3-4 and the analysis of resources can be found in Appendices 5-8. These analyses followed a similar outline to the way in which SFL was used to analyse the data (see Chapter 4.5.2).

The lesson plans [Appendix 3 and Appendix 4] also make clear the link between the linguistic feature being studied and the specific context-relevant effect or purpose in writing, 'thus making meaningful connections for learners between the grammar under focus and the writing' (Myhill, Jones & Watson, 2013: 89) which is perceived to foster a greater learning about writing and the repertoire of possibilities open to writers (Wright, 2002).

4.5. Data: information analysis

4.5.1. Overview

The analysis of the data gathered endeavoured to ensure dependability and reliability; to adhere to this, several phases were adhered to which contributed to the rigour of the research (Lincoln, 1990:71). The several stages as outlined by Wellington (2000:134) including 'immersion' where the researcher engages with the data to get a 'feel' for it, 'reflecting' where the researcher looks at the data more critically, 'analysing' which includes coding, 'recombining and synthesizing' which involves altering and adapting codes and trying out different ways to analyse the data and, finally, 'relating and locating' where the researcher links their findings back to the academic literature and context. The research followed these stages in order to establish qualitative data analysis as 'a creative endeavour involving intuition and empathy' (Webb, 1999:328).

The research also used computer systems in order to make the analysis more systematic and, potentially, reliable. Although Webb argues that there is too much of an assumption that the use of computer programmes when analysing data is 'more objective…and thus more trustworthy' (1999:324) this does not necessarily have an impact on the study as it does not claim to be objective and does not aim for generalisability or representativeness. There may also be an argument that the use of computer systems decontextualize and fragment data particularly when the data sets are large. Methods of mitigation for this point are considered in the section for 'Think Aloud Transcripts' and the coding of these but the researcher's knowledge of the data gained through the aforementioned 'immersion' aids the continued contextualization and meaningfulness of analysis. The research study used Nvivo12 to analyse some of the data in the study; this aided the robustness of the study: it allowed the analysis of a large amount of data and systematized the comparisons between teaching groups and participants to show commonality and comparisons. Nvivo12 also allows the production of many themes through the production of nodes enabling the establishment of those themes which reflect the less frequent mentions of grammatical concepts. There was also some use of Excel in the production of graphs and tables using the 'think aloud' transcriptions- the use of this also allowed clarity of representation and comparison.

Overall, the analysis of the data was focused on reporting all findings and contextualizing the information as thoroughly as possible. The writing samples were coded by hand using the same coding as the 'think aloud' transcripts to ensure consistency. The coding that took place used discourse analysis in that it studied how sentences combine in order to 'create meaning, coherence and accomplish purposes' (Gee & Handford, 2012). Both sets of data were treated equally with a focus on coding as much of the data as possible in order to engage with the idea that 'distortion can

result not only from what it put in, but also from what is left out' (Eisner, 1981:8). Therefore, the reporting and discussion of the data seeks to be as holistic and detailed as possible with contextualisation of the research in Chapter 3 and a more in-depth discussion of each participant's writing in Chapter 7.

4.5.2. The use of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

It is important to note that SFL can be applied to both discourse and written text, thus it is essential that the aspects of SFL that can be applied to written text be identified and evaluated. The use of the systems of SFL to analyse both the resources used and the written data produced by participants is fitting based on the definition of grammar outlined in Chapter 2.

The analysis of the rhetorical problem (Appendices 6-9) presented to the pupils then focuses on understanding the relationship between text creator and text receiver that is required for the text to successfully fulfil its interpersonal metafunction. The analysis considers what types of grammatical structures are required, or expected, considering the type of relationship that is being suggested by the rhetorical problem. The analysis of each question, both pre and post intervention focuses upon the 'tenor' of the situation; Coffin, Donohue and North (2009) suggest that this is made up of the following aspects:

- Participants' social roles and relative social status.
- The social distance between participants.
- Speaker/writer persona, i.e general stance and assumed degree of alignment with others.

The analysis of the written work for each participant considers each of these aspects with the following grammatical structures:

Participants' social roles and relative social status: construction of tone and mood (imperative, declarative, interrogative, modal interrogative), modalising: propositions and proposals, interpersonal grammatical metaphor, social purpose/ genre.

Social distance: formality of language, terms of address, pronoun used, specialist lexis, written lexicogrammar.

Speaker/ writer persona: Modality showing open/ closed stance, evaluative language, accumulated evaluation, social purpose/ genre.

In this instance, modality was also used as evidence for the construction of social distance between the text creator and the text receiver as modal auxiliaries 'can be used to communicate indirectness'

(Coffin, Donohue & North, 2009:353); therefore, moderating the power or tone of a request. The analysis of the written tasks contains comments based upon the observation of the use of modal auxiliaries with the belief that the use of these display the text creator's understanding of both the interpersonal metafunction of the text and how to successfully establish this.

The outline of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) as applicable to written texts was simplified by the researcher. Each key idea (as outlined above) was pinpointed using bullet points to engage exactly what would be considered as exemplifying that aspect of SFL and, therefore, an understanding of the writing task and text. For the 'think aloud' recordings and transcripts consideration was given as to what type of utterance would indicate the nodes or categories created. These were used in Nvivo12 as nodes or categories to organise both the intervention lesson transcripts and the 'think aloud' transcripts (see Figure 4-2). For the writing task, as the data was non-verbal, a second outline was used which simplified the coding principles as examples of language features only rather than verbal references (see Figure 4-3).

Coding for both the 'think aloud' transcripts and written samples focused on the function of the texts being written; therefore, the coding was discovering the communicative purpose the form of the text carried out. This means that the analysis of these data sets follows that of discourse analysis, or, more specifically, the research study conducted an utterance type meaning task within its data analysis. The data analysis involved studying correlations between the form and function of the language in the written tasks at the level of utterance-token meanings (Gee & Handford, 2012). The fact that the study emphasised construction of meaning indicates that it uses discourse analysis (Coyle, 1995) as this assumes that discourse enable people to construct meaning in social contexts (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). As Christie (2002:16) states: 'language does not just passively reflect a pre-existing social reality. It is active agent in constructing that reality'. SFL recognised the interplay between language and context: it is for this reason that the study used SFL as a tool for discourse analysis (Schleppegrell in Gee & Handford, 2012).

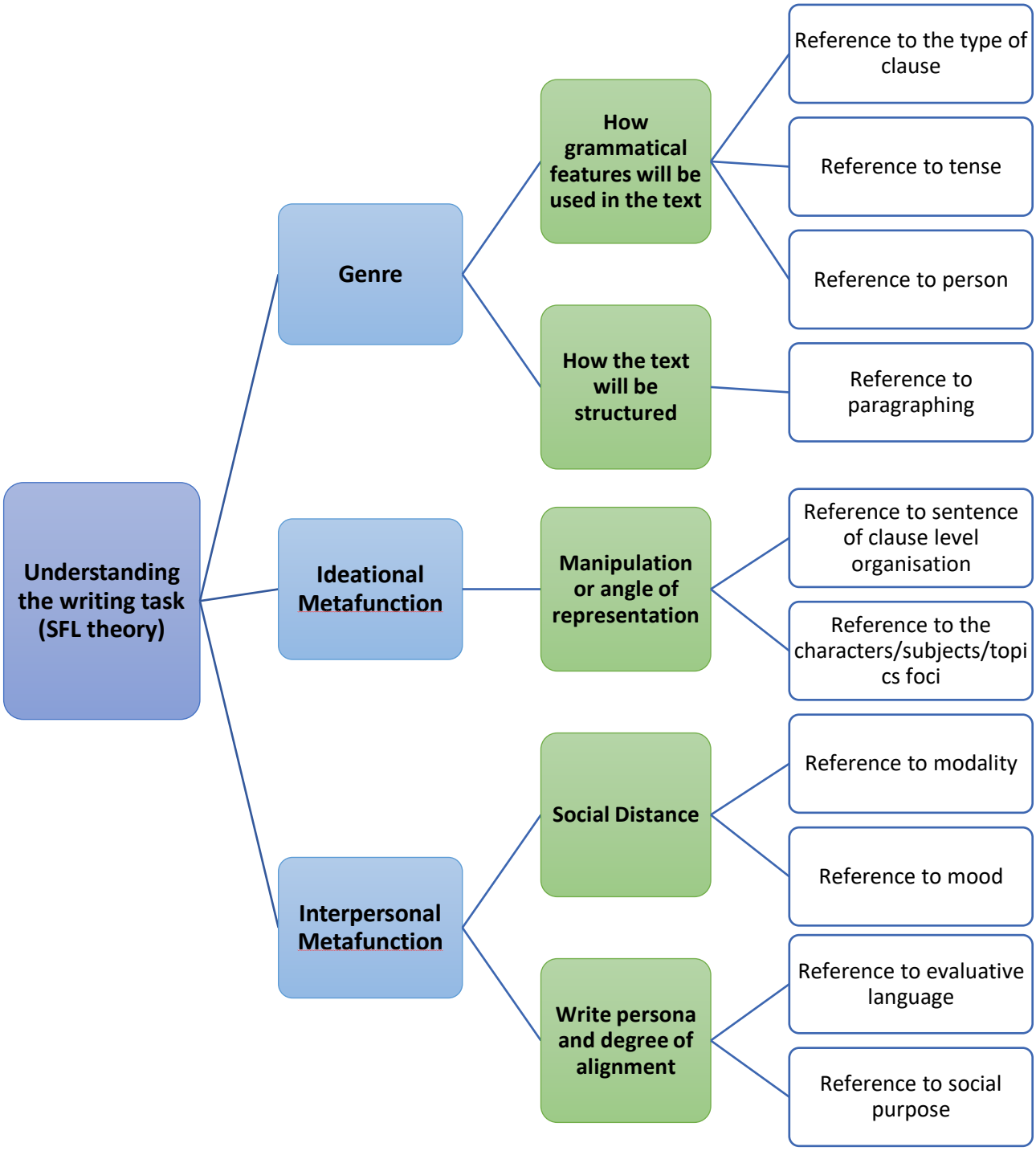

Figure 4-2 - Coding Principles for transcripts of recorded data

Figure 4-3: Coding principles for writing tasks

4.5.3. Transcribing

After the recordings of both the intervention lessons and the 'think aloud' were collected the researcher transcribed these. This allowed the researcher to achieve full 'immersion' and a real 'feel' for the data in alignment with Wellington's (2000:134) outline of useful data analysis. The transcription was undertaken in several stages to ensure that the transcription of raw data was useful to the study. The researcher was aware that transcription works as a noticing device (Jefferson, 1985:2004) and that phenomena only present themselves on listening to the raw data multiple times (ten Have, 2007). The transcription of the recordings was therefore undertaken in several stages to ensure that the transcriptions give the most accurate access to the 'lived reality' (ten Have, 2007:95) of the recordings.

The purpose of the transcriptions was to engage with the ideas uttered by the teachers and the participants and, as such, phonetic transcriptions which engage with the *how* rather than the *what* were of limited value in this instance. However, a few elements of how things were said were of relevance; therefore, the recordings were transcribed to provide some sort of 'compromise' as seen in 'discourse analysis' transcription (ten Have, 2007:94). This compromise consisted of ensuring that the transcripts were fit for purpose; therefore, when rendering the 'words spoken' the researcher used standard orthography whilst also modifying this to capture deviations such as sounds used as fillers (e.g pfffttt) or more regional dialects (e.g 'me pen') (ten Have, 2007:99) to avoid an idealization of speech. Symbolization from Conversation Analysis included aspects of interactional talk such as overlapping speech and laughter within the intervention lesson transcriptions.

Initial transcription involved listening carefully to the raw recordings whilst typing the words only in a Word Document. It is not claimed that the transcriptions cover every element of what was said in the sense of how it was said; Conversation Analysis was followed in this respect as Heritage and Atkinson (1984) state: 'conversation analysts do not claim that the transcription system captures the details of the tape recording in all its particulars…this system is concerned with capturing the sequential features of talk' (p.12). Where there was any confusion over the word used or a disruption in the recording the researcher simply indicated this in the document with a (?) and attempted to fill this gap the next time she listened to the recordings. It was at this stage when the researcher began to note phenomena which may be of interest to the research in the later stages of analysis.

The second stage of transcription was to engage with phenomena of utterances or interactional talk which may have meaning when answering the research questions. Pausing

was considered key as this could indicate thinking (in the 'think aloud' recordings this could be perceived as thinking without verbalizing) or confusion on the part of the participant. Several symbols were created by the researcher as there are a 'range of important features of both normal and atypical speech for which no agreed symbolisation exists' which includes 'pauses, loud and quiet speech, slow and fast speech…' (Ball & Local, 1996:58). The length of time of pausing was also of interest in the 'think aloud' transcripts as this could indicate the amount or depth of thought or even confusion on the part of the participant. These pauses were, therefore, indicated in the transcripts but as stated by Psathas and Anderson (1990) readers should be wary to 'not interpret these timings in an overly precise fashion…' (p.87) as many were estimated based on the relativist length of other pauses. Overlapping talk was also fundamental when making sense of the intervention lessons as considering turn-taking and turn management could allow for more discernible instances of the exploration of the grammatical concept being taught. Overlapping talk was then also indicated in the transcriptions.

The final stage in the transcription of raw recordings was to listen to the raw data a third time thus allowing final, more detailed, adjustments, to be made to the transcripts (Heritage & Atkinson, 1984). Line numbers and participant codes were added for clarity. Keys were also added to the transcripts to outline the coding used by the researcher. Finally, teachers were referred to as T1, T2, T3, T4, T5 and T6 dependent on their teaching group. Teaching groups were referred to as TGI, TGII, TGIII, TGIV, TGV and TGVI for ease.

4.5.4. Think Aloud Analysis

The coding of both the intervention lessons and the 'think aloud' transcripts was completed in sections. The initial attempt at coding was completed during the pilot study (see Chapter 5) which was then reviewed at a project meeting- the conclusions of which are also contained within the chapter. This also allowed familiarisation with the coding process and with Nvivo 12.

After reading through each transcript multiple times, whilst also simultaneously listening to the raw recording, in the phrase entitled 'analysing' (Wellington, 2000:134), the transcripts were coded at micro-level intuitively. The lesson intervention transcripts were initially coded for 'cases' so each was broken down into teacher utterances and pupil utterances in order to make it easier later to compare these and to extract one or the other from the analysis or query being run. Following this, each transcript (lesson interventions and 'think alouds') was coded at a time with each reference made to language allocated to one of the codes-

comments were placed in multiple codes if it was deemed necessary. Coding captured full clauses or utterances in order to engage with the context of the utterance as much as possible. Figure 4-2 outlines the coding principles used for all verbal data such as the lesson intervention transcripts and the 'think aloud' transcripts. Table 4-3 outlines the principles which governed the coding, gives examples of the coding and justifies these according to the Linguistic theory to which it relates: Cognitive Grammar (CG) or Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL).

Table 4-3: Principles governing the coding of transcripts

Principle (based on SFL)	Sub-theme(s)	Sub-theme(s)	Example	Justification
Genre	How grammatical features will be used in the texts	Reference to type of clause	'you know obviously he was shot you know the passive construction' (T1)	The utterance uses a direct reference to the type of clause [CG].
		Reference to tense	'so I'm gonna write it as if it just happened (.) right now' (2B)	The utterance uses a direct reference to the temporal aspect of the writing [CG].
		Reference to person	'k now I'm gonna write from Selkirk's point of view' (5N)	The utterance makes reference to the text producer and perspective [SFL].
	How the text will be structured	Reference to paragraphing	'I'm gonna have my last paragraph to be urm sort of size but not too long cos that would be boring' (4F)	The utterance makes reference to both the text receiver and how they will relate to the text and the overall structure [SFL].
Ideation Metafunction	Manipulation of angle of representation	Reference to sentence or clause level organisation	'I want to use the word forcefully to it was get people the idea that he was being pushed back (1.0) forcefully (.) I'm k I'm gonna use forcefully last thing (.)' (3O)	The utterance makes reference to the placement of the word [CG] in order to have a particular impact on the reader [SFL].
		Reference to characters/ subjects/topics/foci	'she's quite a childish character so I want to kind of erm in a	The utterance makes reference to the text

			way show that she's quite quite young and quite optimistic' (1B)	producer and the type of language that might be used [SFL].
Interpersonal Metfunction	Social Distance	Reference to formality	'she might be quite formal but at the same time quite erm friendly' (1B)	The utterance makes reference to the tone of the text and the text producer [SFL].
		Reference to terms of address	'I think I might start with urm dearest mama mama' (2B)	The utterance makes reference to the way the text producer refers to the text receiver [SFL].
	Social Roles and Social status	Reference to modality	'this match would only cause me sorrow and as my mother I know that you will not want this for me (.) that's guilt tripping' (4G) 'I'm just going to write she doesn't appear to have any so I would hate for you to feel I'm going to kind of guilt trip her' (3O)	The utterance makes reference to the feelings of the text receiver and the social function of the text [SFL]. The utterance shows the use of modal 'will' in the writing which is forceful [CG].
		Reference to mood	'which I would like which sounds more demanding which is kind of good to change the tone maybe (.) to make her in control instead of lady capulet' (4C) 'I'm just going to write she doesn't appear to have any so I would hate for you to feel I'm going to kind of guilt trip her' (3O)	The utterance makes reference to the way the text is written and influenced by its context. The tone of the text is mentioned [SFL].
	Writer persona and degree of alignment	Reference to evaluative Language	'I think I need to put my own opinion (.)' (4G)	The utterance makes reference to the purpose of

			the text and the text producer's alignment [SFL].
	Reference to social Purpose	'it's difficult to adopt a style when writing a letter because well we're not writing a persuasive letter oh I guess we are trying to persuade change within school' (1K)	The utterance makes reference to the purpose of the text [SFL].

Figure 4-2. Codes were established using concepts from Systemic Functional Linguistics many of which were already understood by the researcher to be prevalent within the data through familiarisation. Comments in the transcripts which were synonymous or closely related were coded under the same theme (e.g 'I feel guilty' and 'it guilt trips you'). The coding of these was dictated by the context of the utterance. If the utterance was repeated exactly, it was coded a second time as this was adding emphasis to that concept or idea. Table 4-4 below shows a few examples of the coding which took place, showing how codes were attributed to the data. It includes examples of where a comment was added to more than one code. The phrases in brackets give the top-level themes under which each sub-category was placed.

Table 4-4: Coding Examples – transcripts

Transcript Extract	Coding Examples
'so we're talking about Juliet urm and act two scene two which is when she's just urm finished the balcony scene I'm pretty sure though I'm just going to check that now urm and figuring to her mother why she can't marry paris so the person that conveys in this scene yeah I'll fill them up (?) in this scene this letter is to show her maturity I'm guessing but also to be evasive (.) urm and I'm going to try and convey that in their terms of English but in terms that were quite old fashioned and quite formal because it was quite formal then towards their parents so' (.) (1B)	Reference to Social Purpose (Writer and Degree of Alignment) Reference to formality (Social Distance)
'I think I might start with urm dearest mama mama urm I'm guessing paris paris is good because the family like him but and he is suitable for her but the marriage probably wouldn't work because she doesn't really like him so it wouldn't really end that well but Romeo is really wealthy so that would be good	Reference to terms of address (Social Distance) Reference to the characters/ subjects/ topics/ foci (Manipulation of angle of representation)

and urm I think I might also mention that Juliet said to her mum that that she said to lady capulet before the feast that she would consider paris but' (2B)	
'dear mother I do not I re-refuse to I I refuse I refuse to obey your orders while I guess like cos I want to save up for something else about the culmination of not mentioning paris until the end of the sort of the introductory paragraph so that's why I didn't say I do not love paris as I mentioned before sincerely I have tried I have tried to show affection I'll add show affection that sounds fun I mean I have tried to show affection cos it makes it clearer but the nature of love disagrees with this the false this false façade yes fancy words I mean like cos now that we're using affection I feel like we should put something else in it's we should add more urm something else in this ok love [?] in which [mumbles] er this is a bit too cryptic for me' (3C)	Reference to paragraphing (How the text will be structured) Reference to evaluative language (Writer persona and degree of alignment) Reference to formality (Social Distance) Reference to social purpose (Writer persona and degree of alignment) Reference to social purpose (Writer persona and degree of alignment)

Codes which were 'empty' and thus no utterance was coded to them were considered as important as those which had many coded items. These 'empty' codes were used later in the analysis to show comparison between the participants at the beginning of the study and at the end in the frequency of their references to various concepts (see Chapter 8). Coding of the 'think aloud' transcripts did also not take place when the participant simply used the grammatical concept which had been taught as this did not follow the coding principle outlined in Figure 4-2 which states that the participant must make 'reference to'; instances where the participants was repeating or proofreading their written work were considered to be a part of the data set of written tasks and were, therefore, analysed manually alongside the other writing samples. There was also no judgement involved when coding the transcripts: the researcher coded all references to the aspect of language which were of interest even if these were considered incorrect (e.g: a reference to calling Juliet's mother 'Mummy' was still coded as a refence to terms of address even as it fails to consider the distance of their relationship).

Once all the transcripts were coded, the researcher then revisited the raw data to saturate the coding frame. This was followed by various tests, which were run using Nvivo 12, demonstrating Wellington's 'recombining and synthesising' stage (ibid) through analysing the data in multiple ways. The first query was word frequency tests followed by cluster analysis

comparing teachers and pupils within. Then cluster analyses between teachers and pupils in all six groups were conducted. Finally, comparisons between the intervention lessons and the pre and post intervention think aloud transcripts produced by participants within the class were produced. This allowed the demonstration of relationships within the data.

The word frequency tests in Nvivo were also used to populate a spreadsheet in Excel to create tables and graphs in which the teachers' utterances in each intervention lesson were compared. This used the top 100 words stated by the teacher in the intervention lesson which were selected through the word frequency query in Nvivo; these lists were then honed to only show those words which are related to SFL or the grammatical concept being taught. Words were selected by the researcher from the list of top 100 words; any words were included which were synonymous with each other or with the grammatical concept being taught and those words which were plurals (eg: Audience/ Audiences). These words or ideas were also used in the Lesson Plans provided by the researcher for each intervention lesson, so this test was useful in demonstrating a link between the intervention lessons taught and the resources provided. The same tests were also run for the pupils in each group to demonstrate any similarity or differences between the types of discussions in each different classroom.

These word frequency tests were essential in providing links between teacher utterances and learner utterances providing pivotal data in asserting what type of learning was taking place in the intervention lessons. The relationship between these two groups, as demonstrated by the word frequency tests, was indicative of the ways in which the intervention lessons had altered the understanding of learners and their approach to texts. This level of analysis was only possible due to the limited amount of lesson on which the study focused- the use of two intervention lessons allowed the researcher to conduct thorough and deep analysis of the data set at a level which is uncommon in qualitative research. The word frequency tests, therefore, provide an original contribution to research in this area.

Table 4-5 lists the words selected for teachers and pupils respectively followed by justification through linking to Systemic Functional Linguistics and Cognitive Grammar.

Table 4-5: Words selected: Intervention Lesson 1

Words selected- Intervention Lesson 1 (Modals)	Justification and Link to Systemic Functional Linguistics and Cognitive Grammar
Accusatory	Relates to the tone of the text [SFL]
Authority	Relates to the tone of the text [SFL]
Authoritative	Relates to the tone of the text [SFL]
Audience/ Audiences	Relates to the text receiver [SFL]
Beg/ Begs	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Command	Relates to the tone of the text [SFL]
Communicative	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Convince	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Convinced	Relates to the text receiver [SFL]
Desperate	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Desperation	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Duty	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Encourages	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Encouragement	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Emotional	Relates to the text receiver [SFL]
Emotions	Relates to the text receiver [SFL]
Feel/ Feeling/ Feelings	Relates to the modality [CG]
Forced	Relates to the modality [CG]
Forceful	Relates to the modality [CG]
Function	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Grammar	Relates to the topic of the lesson [SFL and CG]
Grammatical	Relates to the topic of the lesson [SFL and CG]
Grammatically	Relates to the topic of the lesson [SFL and CG]
Guilt	Relates to the text receiver [SFL]
Guilty	Relates to the text receiver [SFL]
Imperative	Relates to the tone of the text [SFL]
Informal	Relates to the social distance of the text [SFL]
Instruction/s	Relates to the tone of the text [SFL]
Language	Relates to the topic of the lesson [SFL and CG]
Manipulative	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Manipulation	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Mode	Relates to the tone of the text [SFL]
Modal/s	Relates to the modality [CG]
Modify	Relates to the modality [CG]
Modifying	Relates to the modality [CG]
Mood	Relates to the tone of the text [SFL]
Persuade	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Persuasive	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Tone	Relates to the tone of the text [SFL]
Verb	Relates to the modality [CG]
Word	Relates to the topic of the lesson [SFL and CG]

Table 4-6: Words selected: Intervention Lesson 2

Words selected- Intervention Lesson 2 (Passive)	Justification and Link to Systemic Functional Linguistics
Agent	Relates to the structure of the passive [CG]
Assign	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Bias	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Biased	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Blame	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Choices	Relates to the topic of the lesson [SFL and CG]
Construction	Relates to syntax [SG]
Directed	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Fact/s	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Fault	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Feel/s	Relates to the text receiver [SFL]
Instruction	Relates to the tone of the text [SFL]
Intent	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Intention	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Neutral	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Object	Relates to the structure of the passive [CG]
Objective	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Passive	Relates to the passive [CG]
Patient	Relates to the structure of the passive [CG]
Sentence	Relates to the topic of the lesson [SFL and CG]
Structure	Relates to the structure of the passive [CG]
Subject	Relates to the structure of the passive [CG]
Subjective	Relates to the purpose of the text [SFL]
Target	Relates to the structure of the passive [CG]

4.5.5. Writing Analysis

Figure 4-3 outlines the coding principles used for all the written data including the writing samples taken from the intervention lessons and all pre and post writing tasks completed by participants.

The written data was coded in a similar way to the 'think aloud' data to ensure that the analysis of all data was 'systematic, disciplined and able to be seen' (Punch, 2009:171). Written data was read through multiple times before, during and after coding. The writing samples were re-arranged chronologically to ensure that there was a clear structure of intervention throughout the data. Each writing sample was coded chronologically to give a holistic view of the participant. Each writing sample was coded at a time with each presentation of relevant language or sentence structure allocated to one of the codes;

segments were placed in multiple codes if it was deemed necessary. Each node was allocated a different colour and the researcher coded by hand. Coding captured full clauses or segments in order to engage with the context of the segment as much as possible. Figure 4-3 outlines the coding principles used for all the written data; this ensures that data was coded according to its presentation of the aspects outlined rather than a reference to these. If a sentence or clause was repeated exactly it was coded a second time as another example of the aspect.

Table 4-7 shows a few examples of the coding which took place for written data, showing how codes were attributed to the data. The written sample is typed here for purposes of anonymity and replicates exactly the written sample (including spelling and punctuation errors) and how it was coded. It includes an example of where a segment was added to more than one code. The phrases in the brackets give the top-level themes under which each sub-category was placed. There was no judgement involved when coding the written data: the researcher coded all of the examples to the aspects of language which were of interest even if these were considered inaccurate or inappropriate (e.g: an example of the use of a modal was coded as modality even if it was considered inappropriately forceful in the constructed social context).

Table 4-7: Coding examples- written data

Writing Sample Extract (1A Writing task 1 on 02/02/17)	Coding Examples
For the attention of the governing council, **Over the last year, I have watched and understood all of the problems that the school faces.** **Firstly, the students here are lazy, and uncaring with both their work and attitude and this must change. I decided I wanted to lighten the depressive's atmosphere that surrounds the school; and put on a production, I gave the students time to practice but they wouldn't rehearse. They are rowdy, rude and their behaviour is far from good, attacking everything this school is built on.**	Example of formality (Social Distance) Example of person (How grammatical features will be used in the text) Example of tense (How grammatical features will be used in the text) Example of paragraphing (How the text will be structured)Example of modality (Social roles and social status) Example of mood (Social roles and social status) Example of mood (Social roles and social status) Example of evaluative language (Writer persona and degree of alignment)

These coded written samples were then used to construct a report on each participant chronologically outlining the ways in which they responded to the writing tasks. These were termed as 'narratives' and focused upon the ways in which the participant constructed the text according to its social purpose and how the participant constructed meaning through language and syntactical choices. Each participant who was written up as a narrative was

randomly selected with one randomly selected 'think aloud' per teaching group and one general randomly selected participant per teaching group. This meant that there were some cases where there was no writing sample available due to absence; this replicate the real-life situation of a school where a pupil's learning can be interrupted by external factors. Each writing sample was then compared to the analysis of the rhetorical problems (see Appendices 5-8); the writing samples for each participant were then collated and their summarised comparison was added to a table. This table was used to demonstrate any changes or alterations to the participant's approach to language across the time span of the investigation.

4.6. Ethics

4.6.1. Overview

The design of the research was undertaken considering the issues outlined in the University of Reading Code of Good Practice in Research (University of Reading, 2012) in order to gain IoE approval. The study also complied with the latest British Educational Research Association Guidelines (BERA, 2015). These can be summarised below; the discussion of these include an outline of the ways in which these issues were addressed.

The value of the research

All the parties involved were informed of the principal aims and expected outcomes of the study at the outset. This was presented as a school pack that included a letter of introduction and outlined the study in detail [Appendix 9].

Protection from Harm

As participants are under the age of 18 years, it was fundamental that they were protected from psychological, physical and social harm and were not affected in any adverse way by the research. The teacher-researcher role did not differ from the professional teacher role in the respect that the students' welfare was the teacher's, and therefore the researcher's, responsibility and the teacher had a duty of care for them within the classroom setting. The research was undertaken in a school setting; therefore, the study was in accordance with the moral and ethical guidelines of the school as well as of the researcher in a professional teacher role.

Informed Consent

The participants were also protected from any harm through the gaining of informed consent from all parties involved. Due to the nature of the setting, participants are under the direct

care of the school for long periods of time. Therefore, the permissions of the Deputy Head (Academic) were sought alongside those of the housemistress of each participant thus acknowledging any academic and pastoral concerns. This took the form of a letter and research pack which outlined the purpose and extent of the research activities that they read and responded to accordingly.

Informed consent was also gained from the participants' parents as well as the participants themselves. This consent took the form of a letter e-mail that was sent which included a full outline of the research, what this entailed and how the data would be used. The parents were required to respond via e-mail either confirming or declining their consent. Copies of these e-mails were kept for the duration of the research. Participants were sent the same letter, which was read with them, signed and dated. These signed letters were kept securely for the duration of the research.

Confidentiality and Anonymity

Any hard copy data, including field notes, were stored in the researcher's locked office either at work or at home. Any associated electronic hardware, such as transcriptions and sections of the final thesis was kept in the researcher's password protected computer or laptop. The school and teachers were protected using a pseudonym and numbers; this anonymity was also replicated in any conference notes or published materials. Anonymity and confidentiality were ensured by allocating each participant with their class number followed by a randomised letter (e.g participant 3G) within the report. Teachers' anonymity was ensured through reference to all teachers as 'she'. Descriptions of the teachers which were too detailed were made less so to ensure that there was no identification of practitioners.

Honesty

At all times the research was open and transparent with no hidden or concealed objectives. It is worth nothing that the research was carried out with as little disruption to the regular routines of the educational setting.

Right to withdraw without penalty

The participants as well as the participants' parents were informed in writing that they were able to withdraw from the study at any time without repercussion. Several parents did request that their children were withdrawn from the study over concerns around complete anonymity- these withdrawals were carried out immediately. All participants were also free to request

that their consent be withdrawn at any point during or after the study took place with any data collected at that point destroyed; none chose to do so.

4.7. Ethical Issues

4.7.1. Responsibilities to participants

The researcher, being a practitioner at the same site as the study took place, had exceptional circumstances concerning responsibility to participants; 'moral thinking is a kind of practical thinking' (Pring, 2000:142) through which the researcher must navigate ethical values according to their specific context. The researcher attempted to objectify all the participants and their data- responding to participants' questions using the same language and response. The instructions given to participants for the 'think aloud' section of the study were printed and standardised; therefore, aiding the researcher in treating all participants equally despite the relationship between teacher and pupil/s. The researcher has also attempted to make clear distinctions between the raw data and her own interpretations for the purpose of academic rigour. The fact that several participants felt comfortable enough to withdraw from the study at the stage where participant consent was sought demonstrates that the pupils were treated objectively as they realised that there would be no detriment to themselves.

The relationship between researcher and participant is central to the research: in this case, the relationship was one of power as the researcher was also a practitioner within the school. Although the researcher did not teach this particular year group when the study was being conducted, she had been working in the school for several years before the study took place. Complete honesty and transparency were granted to the participants with clear anonymity and the right to withdraw at any point. The researcher was clear as to which capacity she was acting at every stage. When completing the 'think aloud' sessions it was made clear to the participants that they should follow the printed instructions and, although they were allowed to ask any question appertaining to the process of 'thinking aloud' for their own clarity, the researcher was not present in the capacity of a teacher and so any question related to the completion of the writing task was directed back to the classroom teacher. Parental and participant consent was requested on an 'opt-in' rather than an 'opt-out' basis which potentially removed any discomfort participants felt in not participating in the study. Due to the age of the participants, parental consent was sought before participant consent in order to ensure that participants were completed protected.

4.7.2. Responsibility to other practitioners

There was also an imbalance in power as regards the researcher and the teachers who taught the intervention lessons. As Deputy Head of English, the researcher held a managerial role within the department. However, training was given to the teachers as peers and within the capacity of researcher rather than manager and researcher followed the same ethical guidelines when dealing with teachers as with participants. The teachers all had the right to withdraw and were all given access to whatever data was collected by the researcher. Transcripts of the lessons were offered as inset to reflect on teaching practice. This maintained that the incentive for teachers to participate in the study was an opportunity to improve their professional practice by reflecting on their own pedagogical decisions- arguably an important benefit to teachers (Basturkman et al., 2004; Wyatt-Smith & Castleton, 2004). As the resources for the intervention lessons were provided, this also relieved any detriment that may have been cause by the additional burden placed on the teachers' time when they were trained.

The researcher 'trained' the five teachers who taught the interventions lessons in the theory of contextualised grammar using Cognitive Linguistics in the guise of inset training within a department meeting. This was part of an overall scheme whereby each member of the department led their peers through an innovative or 'new' teaching method. 'Training' consisted of twenty minutes in which the researcher asked that the members of the department completed the freezeframe sections of the intervention lesson and discussed the strategy to be used. This culminated in a short power point directed at the Year 9 teachers outlining exactly how the study impacted them specifically. The benefits to the Year 9 teachers were emphasised within the power point. They were then provided with information packs (see Appendix 10) and sent away with consent forms that they could sign away from any pressured environment. Care was also taken when evaluating the effectiveness of the intervention lessons that teachers were not made to feel that any method they had used to teach grammar previously had been 'wrong'; instead, the intervention lessons were broached as an option or potential alternative way of teaching grammar. The focus of the analysis of the recordings of intervention lessons was also outlined clearly so that teachers were aware it was not their teaching skill which was being focused upon or judged but the way the participants responded to the method within the writing tasks.

4.7.3. Responsibility to community of researchers

The study attempted to ensure that every element and stage was perceived as 'trustworthy'. This involved honesty throughout the reporting of the study with clear audit trails and clear distinctions made between the raw data and interpretations. The researcher was also careful

to outline throughout the report which role the researcher was acting in at any point in the study; by reporting in third person, it is hoped that confusion between the researcher, practitioner and managerial roles that the researcher held is mitigated.

4.7.4. Further Ethical Considerations (including limitations)

Further ethical considerations have been proposed by more 'progressive' researchers. New principles include the notion of 'reciprocity of benefit' (Gregory, 1990:166). The study has clearly offered teachers the opportunity of exposure to new teaching methods and the ability to share and reflect upon their teaching practice. In this way, it closely adheres to Guba and Lincoln's (1989) suggestion that participants should be empowered to better understand their situation and that it helps to develop as professionals. It also agrees with Davis' statement that '…practices…should be exposed, challenged and defended in the interests of professional progress' (2003:220). In the case of the pupils who participated in the study, it is those who completed the 'think aloud' section for whom it may be suggested that the study had benefits. Several of the 'think aloud' participants were selected based on their classroom teacher's belief that they may benefit from the method of thinking their thoughts aloud.

As with any research study, there are limitations which must be acknowledged in order to provide an honest report of the research. Any understanding of the context is bound by the perceptions of the researcher. The use of the method of 'think aloud' recordings means that the analysis of these is reliant on external representations of 'covert mental processes' (Calderhead, 1987:1484) which then had to be interpreted by the researcher. It is hoped that the detailed outline of how and why the researcher interpreted these data sets are also influenced by the participants' understanding of what is socially acceptable. With fully informed consent comes the knowledge that the researcher is also a teacher within the school, and this would have had an impact on the way that the participants carried out this section of the study. The best the study can do is to '…build constructs that [the researcher] find[s] useful in the world…' (Weber, 2004:viii-ix) in the sense that it must be made clear as to what conclusions are provided to the research community and what is defined as 'useful' within the boundaries of the data. The study will be 'useful' in the sense that it will provide insight into the effects of teaching grammar within the study's context in the ways outlined and to highlight that there are other potential methods of teaching grammar. It may also serve to indicate the nature of the impact of teaching grammar using Functional Linguistics on pupils' understanding of writing tasks.

4.8. Methodological Conclusions (including bracketing)

The methodological conclusions include a discussion of the influence of the researcher's own values and experiences not in an in any 'futile attempt(s) to eliminate' these but to understand them and their potential impact on the study (Ahern, 1999:408). It is hoped through an honest outline of these that the study's trustworthiness will be retained.

4.8.1. Personal Value System

The researcher's personal value system has been shaped by her experiences as a Secondary English Teacher within the school site where the study was conducted. The belief is that not only do the teachers within the school work hard within their professional lives but that the pupils are also hard working- both groups are believed to have little time to undertake additional work. The researcher then recognises the day-to-day practicalities of not only teaching and learning but also life within a boarding school. The researcher realises the limitations imposed by the timetable and pastoral considerations that are part of life within such a setting.

The researcher is consistently aware, as a practitioner within the school, that the school is fee-paying and, as such, education is provided at a high price to parents. This then, necessitates a focus on grades and marks with the researcher acknowledging that the pupils must attain their highest potential. The researcher has spent most of her teaching career teaching higher achieving pupils so has not had to spend time supporting the development of those who have struggled to write. This may have skewed the perception of the importance of technical accuracy whilst allowing the ability to focus on higher-order skills. Creativity and crafting written language to achieve an effect is of high priority to the researcher.

Grammar is perceived by the researcher to be more than simply the written accuracy of language; it is not discussed within the study as an element of spoken language. The researcher's perceptions of Grammar are based on years of studying linguistics to degree level; therefore, giving her a sense of disbelief that linguistics is not already used in schools to teach Grammar and/ or writing. Grammar is believed to be structure of language- it is fundamental to pliability and choice in application. The researcher has many more experiences of teaching Grammar in a formative way due to restrictions from the curriculum rather than contextualised teaching or linking it to writing, as such linking Grammar to writing in the way outlined in the study is conceived to be exciting and new.

4.8.2. Potential Role Conflict

The most obvious potential role conflict was between the role of researcher and the role of practitioner on the same site which could have had an impact on the quality of the case study data collection. The researcher was fully aware of the kind of impact that this could potentially have on the data collected and so attempted to indicate what role she was fulfilling to participants and teachers at any one time. She also ensured that she was not teaching Year 9 in the academic year in which the study took place in order to ensure some distance and clarity was maintained with those pupils who took part. Using an iPad rather than being present in the intervention lessons was also helpful in order to separate the roles of teacher and researcher in the minds of the pupils.

A secondary role conflict occurred as the primary focus of the researcher, in being a practitioner at the school, was to ensure the progress and development of the pupils above all else. This meant that all writing tasks primarily had to be pertinent and in-line with the learning of the pupils; ensuring the writing tasks were linked to the lesson was a secondary concern in this case. However, this was mitigated by using writing tasks which were similar in layout and wording to the pupils' end of year English examination; therefore, the task allowed the pupils to practise as well as to potentially engage with concepts taught within the intervention lessons.

4.8.3. Further Reflections

The researcher has attempted to avoid introducing her own bias into the reporting and analysing of the study by using a more systematic computer system for the transcriptions and coding all references to areas of interest at this stage, even if considered 'incorrect' by the researcher. In providing the resources and discussing the intervention lessons informally afterwards with teachers, the researcher attempted to avoid applying any personal judgements to personal style. The researcher was also sensitive to the potential of making the analytical task easier by being biased towards participants who were more accurate in their writing or those who found 'thinking aloud' easier and thus supplied more data. To mitigate this, each transcript was given an even amount of time in the analysis stage to ensure that each was getting the same amount of consideration and thought.

CHAPTER 5. PILOT

5.1. Overview

The pilot study was carried out as a 'small scale version, or trial run, done in preparation of the major study' (Polit et al., 2001:467). As such, it was a feasibility study which, by necessity, meant that it had to be conducted as far as possible in the same way as the main research study. There are several reasons for conducting a pilot as outlined by Teijlinen and Hundley (2001):

1) Identifying logistical problems which might occur using proposed methods
2) Developing and testing the adequacy of research instruments [and sampling]
3) Determining what resources are needed for the planned study
4) Assessing the proposed data analysis techniques to uncover potential problems

To fulfil the above purposes for piloting the study, the pilot had to test aspects of the main research study which were expected to be common to both in order to develop or alter these accordingly for the main research study. Common aspects, therefore, were: Context, Participants (or sampling), Research Data Collection, Data Analysis Techniques. These were considered based on whether they would be sufficient in answering the research questions.

5.2. School Context

The pilot case study was carried out on the same site as the main research study but in the year proceeding the year of the main research study: the pilot was carried out in 2015-16. The year that the pilot was carried out would only have had ramifications when considering any alterations which were made to schemes of work from one year to the next. In the case of the pilot study, the scheme of work was written by the researcher as she was 'in charge' of the Year 9 scheme of work for 2015-16. This meant that there was control over the timings that the writing tasks took place and that there was no communication required between staff members to alter or change the scheme of work to include the writing tasks required for the study.

The pilot focused on one English class from Year 9 only rather than the whole year group in order to consider the logistical problems that the researcher might face. Three 35-minute lessons were observed for the pilot study. These three consisted of the first lesson when pupils were asked to complete a writing task, the intervention lesson for which all resources and a plan was provided by the researcher and the last lesson which required them to complete a similar writing task to the first.

5.3. Participants

The sample for the pilot study was an opportunity sample based on the availability of the researcher and the class (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The opportunistic nature of this sample means that it also contains elements of randomness, increasing its representativeness. The sample size of the class was 16 pupils. The pilot sample size is bounded by the more detailed focus upon the study's methods and methodology; a smaller sample size in this case allows the researcher to give the required attention needed to evaluate the most effective processes to answer the research questions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Frankland and Bloor (1999:154) argue that piloting provides the qualitative researcher with a "clear definition of the focus of the study" which in turn helps the researcher to concentrate data collection on a narrow spectrum of projected analytical topics. The sample for the 'think aloud' was chosen from the class of 16 through discussion with the classroom teacher. This sample was of 6 pupils that reflected the range of abilities within the class as assessed using the school systems and the comments of the classroom teacher.

5.4. Activities and Data Collection

Activities and Data Collection were designed to attempt to respond fully to the research questions. Table 5-1 below outlines the data collection method and the research question it adheres to.

Table 5-1: Outline of the relationship between data collection methods and research questions

Research Question	Purpose of data	Data Collection Method
What is the nature of the effect of contextualised grammar teaching using elements of Functional Linguistics strategies on the understanding of Year 9 learners in writing tasks?	To explain and describe the characteristics of the effects on understanding.	• Think Aloud recordings and transcripts (T) • Sample written work (W) • Questionnaires (Q)
What can using elements of Functional Linguistics strategies present that aids understanding of rhetorical writing problems?	To provide a suggested range of alternative teaching methods for grammatical concepts.	• Lesson Observation (O) • Analysis of questions and resources provided (R) • Think Aloud Recording and Transcripts (T) • Sample written work (W)

Questionnaires were also collected. The questionnaire was the first piece of data collected, chronologically the first and prior to the intervention lesson. Participants were given 10

minutes to complete the questionnaire at the beginning of a lesson. Questionnaires were constructed in order to allow the participants to reflect upon their writing ability, attitudes towards writing and grammar, preferences concerning writing tasks and to construct targets for their writing over the coming term; such targets are a long-standing element of the structure of the academic year at Lowood Hall School. The questionnaire was, therefore, intended to be a more detailed version of the targets that participants already consider prior to the commencement of each term. Questionnaires allowed the participants to display their conscious awareness of themselves as expert writers. The use of a questionnaire allowed a holistic view of the learner and was engaged with as a starting point in the understanding of writer's perceptions of the set tasks.

Sample work was photocopied from all 16 participants. This included per participant: 1 copy of the writing task completed in the first session, 1 copy of the intervention lesson written activity, 1 copy of the final writing task. These pieces of work were added to the questionnaire completed by each participant to produce a chronological pack from each participant across the term. Not every 'participant pack' was complete due to absences in various lessons; therefore, a few participant packs contained one less piece of sample work. The writing task which was completed took the form of a rhetorical problem. The pre intervention rhetorical problem [see Appendix 5] required the writer to take on the persona of the teacher (the text creator) and established a functional communicative relationship with that teacher's governing council (the text receiver). The power status between text creator and text receiver was then one whereby the text creator held less professional power in the decision-making process. The rhetorical problem was complex as, whilst holding a position of less power, the text creator must also persuade the governing council to decide upon initiating certain actions to make the fictional school a better place to work. This rhetorical problem was embedded within a lesson plan provided by the researcher [Appendix 3].

The post intervention rhetorical problem [Appendix 6] required the writer to take on the persona of Juliet Capulet (the text creator) and establish a functional communicative relationship with Juliet's Mother-Lady Capulet (the text receiver). Having studied Romeo and Juliet in class [Appendix 1] the participants would have been aware of the relationship established by the text between these two characters. The power status between text creator and text receiver was then one whereby the text creator held less emotional power in the decision-making process. The rhetorical problem was complex as, whilst holding a position of less power, the text creator must also persuade her Mother to alter the decision, and to take a social risk, of marrying her daughter off to Paris. In the case of the pilot study, a selected

sample of 6 participants were to have two 'think aloud' sessions each, one prior to the intervention lesson and one after the intervention lesson. One parental permission was withheld, and one participant was not present in school for the second think aloud session leaving 4 complete 'think aloud' sets of data that included both pre and post intervention recordings. Participants were given a topic based on the school curriculum and one that is a part of the Year 9 scheme of work for Lowood Hall School [Appendix 1]. Each participant had to verbalise their thoughts whilst completing the writing task. They were provided with the question and answer sheet as well as the starting sentence in each case. They were also given instructions as to how to use the recording equipment and how to perceive the 'think aloud' [Appendix 11]. Each participant was given half an hour to complete each writing task, furnishing the study with one hour of recorded 'think aloud' material per participant. The recordings were then transcribed.

5.5. Data Analysis Techniques

The 'think aloud' transcripts were analysed to consider the nature of the act of writing and the construction of writing itself. Flower and Hayes (1981) used this method when constructing a systematic 'protocol analysis' whereby transcripts from the 'think aloud' recordings were analysed according to their structure. Their study considered the structure of written responses and how writers enact their response to rhetorical problems. The 'think aloud' method allowed Flower and Hayes to construct a physical document in which patterns and constructs could be perceived meaning that the validity of their analysis increased due to the availability of the record of both the participant's thought processes and the source of their research conclusions.

The pilot used did not use this method to assess the participants' skill as a writer. This means that the analysis of the structure of the transcript or the 'protocol analysis' presented by Flower and Hayes (1981) was adopted not as the primary analytical method but as a tool to unpack the transcripts in order to access the utterances that are of interest to answer the research questions. The 'think aloud' was used as a discursive tool to consider the quality of the participant's understanding by considering the quality and nature of the utterances made. Utterances of note then included how frequently participants engage with the rhetorical problem, how they comprehend it, the nature and type of alterations they make, the length and nature of pausing. This links more closely with 'understanding' the rhetorical problem as seen in the main research question, rather than considering their ability as writers. The 'think aloud' transcripts were also not simply used as a comparison for pre and post intervention but

were one method in a myriad of methods that add to the study's aim of providing a 'thick description'. It was also not an argument of cause and effect but a holistic discussion which used the method to provide relevant data.

'Think Aloud' recordings were transcribed from the recordings of the participants. These transcriptions were completed by the researcher as she had experience of completing these from her linguistics degree. These were done via a Word document after listening to recordings multiple times. Coding was then completed by hand following Flower and Hayes (1981) structural aspects of writing: Evaluative, Generating, Procedural, Understanding Rhetorical Problem, Reviewing and Revising. An example of the coding completed can be seen in Table 5-2; the table is discussed in the following section in order to evaluate the methods of data analysis.

Table 5-2: Coding Example of Pilot transcripts

Section of Transcript	Coding
imagine you are the new teacher in the extract you write a letter to the school governing council expressing your concerns about the state of the school write your letter to the governing body you should (.) describe what you have noticed about the students in the school (.) explain how the staff have contributed to the atmosphere of the school (.) make some suggestions as to how the council could promote improvements (.) base your writing on what you read in passage a address all of the bullet points (.) be careful to use your own words (.) you have thirty minutes to write your letter (0.1) i have highlighted pink (.) describe what you have noticed about students in the school purple (.) explain how the staff have contributed to the atmosphere of the school green (.) make some suggestions as to how the council can- promote improvements so first i am going to say de::ar governing body (.) governing body (.) i (.) am (.) writing (.) to (.) address (.) the (.) dire circumstances (/) the atrocious (.) the dire circumstances (.) of (.) our (.) school (5.0) i (.) have (.) noticed (.) i have noticed that the students do not put an effort in (.) i have noticed (2.0) the (.) urm (.) there is an atmosphere (.) in school (.) in school (.) there is no at-mos-phere of hard work (.) urm the teachers don't work hard and the students don't work hard so (1.0) urm (.) the students (.) neither (.) the (.) students (0.1) or (.) the (.) teachers (2.0) put in an effort (.) urm (.) so address the three points a:::nndd after that (.) answer the question the question urm (.) write a letter to the school expressing concern about the state of the school urm	Understanding the rhetorical problem Procedural Generating Reviewing and Revising

(3.0) mmm (7.0) i should mm this is the introduction and then i will go onto the first paragraph about the first point so (.) urm(.) maybe (.) i saying what i will so i will (.) tell (.) you (.) about (.) the conditions (.) urm conditions conditions (.) of this school and then i will try to make some suggestions about what we can do to make it better (9.0) and (.) make (.) some (.) sug-ges-tions (.) about (.) what (.) we (.) can (.) do (.) to (.) im-prove (0.1) the school (3.0) dear governing body i am writing to address the dire circumstances of our school i have noticed (.) that (.) in the school (.) in the school there are no (.) there is no atmosphere of hard work (.) neither the students or the teachers put in an effort (.) i will tell you about the cir-no:: i don't think that sounds right urm (.)	Evaluative

5.6. Transition from Pilot to Main Research Study

5.6.1. School Context

The school context regarding the site on which it was conducted did not change. The year did change as the main study took place the year proceeding the pilot study: the academic year 2016-17. The schemes of work for Year 9 for this academic year were written by another member of the English Department other than the researcher. However, alterations to schemes of work were not made if not necessary and the elements required by the investigation for data remained the same.

The main research study used the whole of Year 9 rather than just one English class as this was too small a sample to ensure any valid conclusions. Eighteen 35-minute lessons were recorded for the main research study to ensure the breadth of data required to respond fully to the research questions. The researcher was still in control of providing the resources for the intervention lessons.

5.6.2. Participants

The sample for the main research sample was broadened to the whole year group of 94 pupils. The sample for the 'think aloud' section was selected using the same method as the pilot. However, only 4 pupils per class were chosen to be a part of the 'think aloud' rather than the 6 per class for the pilot due to availability and room sizes.

5.6.3. Activities and Data Collection

The first rhetorical problem, or writing task, which each participant completed was considered suitable for the main research study. An additional intervention lesson was added to the main

research study so that data sets were widened. The passive voice was included as an intervention lesson in the main research study which explored how the writer controlled the angle of representation of the text. In order to engage with the way in which participants had immediately understood the lesson content, writing samples from the intervention lesson were also taken. End of Year 9 writing assessments were, again, gathered to broaden the data set. This allowed the study to engage with the depth of influence of the intervention lessons as the final exam took place at the end of the academic year. This gave 6 potential data collection points for the average participant and 9 potential data collection points for 'think aloud participants as they had an additional 'think aloud' session than the pilot.

As the main study collected further data, this required activities to be conducted in a different way to the pilot study to ensure that there was as minimal impact on normal activities of participants. The second writing task (letter) was then completed as a prep task, as was the third writing task (a newspaper report). This meant that these tasks were not supervised so that the participants could, in theory, spend longer than half an hour on these tasks. The final writing task was completed in a different context in that it was completed under examination conditions.

The questionnaires from the pilot were dropped for the main study as pupils' opinions and perspectives of the role of grammar teaching were beyond the scope of the study. This data would have been unsuitable to answer the research question and would have made the data set too broad in scope.

Data collection for the observation was changed due to practical reasons: the researcher could not observe all lessons as half of the lessons were held at the same time. This then required a recording device which was set up in absence of the researcher and so iPads were used to capture a recording of the intervention lessons.

5.6.4. Data Analysis Techniques

The 'think aloud' analysis was altered from the pilot to the main research study. This was due to the pilot analysis of the 'think aloud' transcripts being unable to fulfil the research questions. Through using the codes of Flower and Hayes (1981), the pilot found evidence for the structure of writing and gave suggestions as to the cognition of writers as they completed writing tasks. The coding used by Flower and Hayes (1981) and replicated in the pilot can be considered to be 'descriptive' in nature rather than 'inferential' (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This can be seen in Table 5-2 as labels were allocated according to whether the section of the transcript was characteristic of, for example, 'generating' or 'reviewing and revising'. In order

to answer the research question, a more careful link needed to be made between the 'think aloud' transcripts and the grammatical approaches of Cognitive Grammar and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL); therefore, codings needed to be more 'inferential' in order to find patterns (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In order to do this, the main study used SFL as a tool of analysis as well as a pedagogical approach to consider how well participants had understood the rhetorical problem and applied the content of the intervention lessons.

5.6.5 Conclusions

The pilot study was essential as a 'trying out' of research instruments (Baker, 1994:182-3); this element of the research outlined several areas of the analysis phrase which required adaptation in order to meet the research questions. Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) argue that 'researchers have an ethical obligation to make the best use of their research experience by reporting issues arising from all parts of a study, including the pilot phase'. As such, the report of the pilot has attempted to outline all issues encountered and how these issues impacted the main research study.

CHAPTER 6. LINKING UNDERSTANDING TO TEACHING STRATEGIES

This chapter outlines how the data were analysed and the interpretations of the data which arose from these analyses. The section begins with analysis of the intervention lessons themselves with a focus on the way in which each teacher delivered the intervention lesson material, what teaching strategies were used and whether there was commonality between the teachers' delivery methods. This is in order to engage with the aspects of the texts each lesson implicitly focused upon. Finally, potential relationships between the Functional Linguistics teaching strategies used and pupils' understanding of their writing tasks are explored. This relates to in what ways Functional Linguistics strategies allow writers to engage with texts.

6.1. Lessons

For this analysis, the *lesson transcripts or observations (O)* were used as data. The words used by the group include both teacher and pupil utterances so that what was analysed was all words used within an intervention lesson. This gave a sense of the general, overall, tone of the lessons themselves, what topics were discussed with more frequency than others and whether the topics discussed adhered to the teaching strategies outlined by the researcher within the lesson plans: this has been represented in a table showing the frequency of the words within the intervention lessons. The purpose of this section is to ascertain whether there was a connection between the content of the intervention lessons and the teaching strategies outlined in the lesson plan.

6.1.1. What teaching strategies were used?

6.1.1.1. Intervention Lessons with Modal focus

Appendix 26 shows the frequency of words used in TGI's intervention lesson which focused on modals. As demonstrated by the lesson plan provided by the researcher [Appendix 3] the word or concept of 'modals' was not the central focus of the lesson. Instead, the use of the word 'think' suggests an exploration of the language being introduced was the central concern of this lesson. Words which were used with most frequency after this, and therefore, evidently explicitly used within the content of the lesson and which relate to the teaching strategy are 'language', 'writing', 'words', 'relationship' and 'might'. The teaching strategies used in TGI's intervention lesson are clearly focused throughout the lesson upon language and the exploration of this.

This is consistent with the word frequencies found in Appendix 13 based on the transcript of teaching TGII. There are several words here that also link to the teaching strategy: 'word', 'language', 'may', 'might'; attention has been drawn to these words, and by extension concepts, as they have been explicitly, and with frequency, used throughout the lesson. The language used within TGII's lesson shows that the focus of the lesson has been on the question, and thinking, and thereby exploring the ideas presented in the lesson. The frequency of the use of the word 'may' suggests that there was attention given to modality, and, therefore, the social roles and social status present within a text; it can be stated that the lesson, in some part, drew attention to ideas of interpersonal metafunction.

This is also the case for TGIII: the more frequent use of 'may', 'might' and 'modal' shown in Appendix 14 would suggest that the interpersonal metafunction is considered; the frequency of these ideas would bring these concepts to the pupils' attention more frequently. There are also words used which would suggest that there were instances when the mood was considered: the use of 'command' demonstrated that during the lesson there was some use of this word, and, therefore, some explicit discussion. Use of 'relationship', 'writing' and 'person' relate directly to the teaching strategies outlined in the lesson plan [Appendix 3].

There are similarities between the words found in TGIII and TGIV's modal intervention lessons with more frequent use of the words 'good', 'think', 'one', 'just' and 'kind'. The similarities between Table 3 and Table 4 are interesting given that both TGIII and TGIV were taught by the same teacher. This would suggest that the figures are affected by the idiomatic language and style of the teacher with the words being used most frequently potentially demonstrating both the individual's understanding of the lesson and the foci outlined on the given lesson plan. The more frequent use of 'may', 'might' and 'must' again shows that the lesson did engage with the interpersonal metafunction of texts. There is a clear relationship shown between the suggested teaching strategy and what was discussed in the lesson using 'modals', 'language', 'writing' and 'person'.

Table 5 [Appendix 16] shows a clear difference in that the most frequent word used was 'writing': this would mean that pupils' understanding of the purpose of the lesson may have been different to that of TGIII-TGVI. It is interesting to note that TGV more clearly shows that there is a more equal use of words such as 'paragraph' and 'sentence' which may indicate that the lesson included discussion of the genre of either the text being discussed or the text being produced, or both. Here there is also a use of 'forceful' alongside 'modals', 'language', 'words', 'may' and 'person' showing a clear relationship between the lesson content and the given

lesson plan. There appears to be a more even focus upon the interpersonal metafunction, ideational metafunction and genre in TGV than in previous discussed groups which may demonstrate a closer adherence to the lesson plan.

Table 5 and Table 6 [Appendix 16 and Appendix 17] show similarities in the wide range of words used but there is a clear difference in the evenness of the use of less-frequent words. Table 6 shows that not only are there words which are used much more frequently than others, but that there are more words within the frequency space. This may suggest that there were ideas or concepts which, although not given the prominence of the most frequent, could have cognitive traces for pupils due to their comparative frequency with others. The relative frequency of 'must' and 'words' shows that there was some focus on the interpersonal metafunction of the text but that this was certainly not the central focus of the lesson; 'writing' is also shown to used frequently in Appendix 16 which may indicate that the lesson plan was closely adhered to in a similar way to TGV.

From consideration of all the figures above, it can be ascertained that all the lessons, apart from TGII, discussed, in some manner, grammatical features of the text within the same lesson as writing. This can be clearly seen in the tables as the word 'writing' is represented as a comparatively frequent word in Tables 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6. Although TGVI does not show the link between grammar and writing the use of the word 'text' could be an indication that writing, be it the production of or a text which is being analysed within the lesson as a real-life example, has been discussed in the same lesson as grammar.

Each table also shows that every group was taught using grammatical concepts which were outlined on the lesson plan which link to Functional Linguistics. The presence of the word 'relationship' in every table shows that this word, or concept, was used in each lesson across the groups linking the content of the lesson the terminology used when discussing the interpersonal metafunction of a text. The use of words such as 'authority', 'command', 'purpose', 'forceful' and 'tone' in every lesson shows that the mood and social purpose was discussed in different ways across the lessons; therefore, strengthening the assumption that the teaching strategies used were in accordance with those outlined in the lesson plan and developed from Functional Linguistics teaching strategies.

6.1.1.2. Intervention Lessons with Passive focus

Table 7 [Appendix 18] shows TGI's word frequency of words used in the intervention lesson focusing on the passive. Here it can be seen using the word 'sentence' that the class focused on this level of texts, either in the production of, or in the analysis of, texts. This is a clear

distinction from the modal intervention lessons which focus on texts on a word level; there is an absence of the word 'word'; therefore, demonstrating that the lesson has a different focus that the previous intervention lesson; a focus which is more aligned with the ideational metafunction. The explicit use of the word 'passive' clearly links the content of the lesson with the intervention intended in the lesson plan. The presence of the word 'blame' in TGI's lesson may suggest that the tone and bias of texts has been discussed in the lesson which shows that the pupils' attention was drawn to this aspect of the text whether it is on consideration of real-life examples or in the process of text production.

Table 8 [Appendix 19] shows a wider range of words used and a greater amount of words within the frequency space thus indicating that there was more discussion in TGII's lesson in comparison to TGI's. TGII's lesson shows more examples of words used which directly link to discussion of a text at sentence level: 'object', 'instrument', 'sentence', 'target' and 'agent'. There is also a comparatively more frequent use of the words 'blame' and 'neutral' which shows that these words were used within the same lesson as a discussion of the text and the passive voice. This would all indicate that text, either the analysis of or in production, was considered considering its ideational metafunction. The explicit use of the word 'passive' is a direct link to the lesson plan and focus of the intervention. What seems to have been centralised in TGII's lesson was the use of terminology which linked to the Functional Linguistics strategies outlined in the lesson plan.

This is similar to Table 9 [Appendix 20] in that words such as 'instrument' and 'agent' are used with comparative frequency: it is unlikely that the participants would have heard or used these words before in relation to texts or grammar and so it is interesting to note that the lesson has used these with such frequency. The prominence of the word 'passive' demonstrates the lesson contained a frequent use of this word; it is interesting to note the absence of the word 'grammar', 'tense' or 'subject', 'verb' and 'object' which suggests that there was minimal, if any, attention given to the construction of the passive or parsing of passive sentences. Instead, words such as 'objective' show that the tone of text is considered in the same lesson as the passive voice; it can therefore be assumed that participants would have regarded these two concepts as linked. The focus on the ideas already discussed shows that text was being considered considering its ideational metafunction.

Table 10 [Appendix 21] shows a similarly frequent use of the word 'agent' but it seems that there is a less frequent use of other words outlined on the lesson plan such as 'instrument', 'patient' and 'object'. The lesson clearly included a discussion of the given resources shown

through the frequency of the use of 'police', 'man' and 'smashed'; the focus on the passive is clear through the presence of this word. Again, the word 'sentence' appears which demonstrates that text was discussed at this level, linking the content of the lesson to an ideational metafunction of texts. The use of 'blame' indicates that a discussion of the tone of text was also included; therefore, showing a link with an interpersonal metafunction approach to texts.

The prominence of the word 'sentence' in Table 11 [Appendix 22] shows that this word was repeated with comparative frequency and so TGV appears to have discussed the structure of text within the lesson content. The frequency of this shows that there was a focus on the ideational metafunction of texts which links directly to the lesson plan supplied. The presence of words which were within the resource sentences provided [see Appendix 4] such as 'window', 'smashed' and 'man' show that this resource was used with these words being used repetitively. There is an absence of words which may relate to the interpersonal metafunction of the text with little or no words associated with tone such as 'blame' or 'neutral' showing that there may be a stronger link made between the ideational metafunction rather than the interpersonal. There are also fewer words which were given in the lesson plan which relate to the structure of the sentence such as 'agent', 'instrument' and 'patient'; however, the comparatively frequent use of the word 'passive' is a clear link to the intended content of the intervention lesson.

Table 12 [Appendix 23] shows a similar frequency of the use of the word 'sentence' as well as several of the words used within the given resource sentences: 'man', 'window'. There is a frequent use of the word 'smashing' which is not consistent with the word given in the sentences ('smashed'); the use of the present participle instead of the past could therefore be interpreted, without the required context, as a method of praising pupil contribution rather than a reference to the given sentences which are in the passive voice. There is, however, some focus on the structure and tone of text with words such as 'subject', 'object' and 'blame' used with some frequency and it can therefore be determined that there was some consideration of the interpersonal and ideational metafunction of the texts.

Each figure above shows that within every passive intervention lesson the word 'writing' is used which showed that this word was present within the same lessons as a discussion of grammar and the passive. TGIV's use of the word 'writing' is comparatively infrequent compared to other groups' lessons but its presence within the lesson can still be considered to

show that both concepts have been explicitly mentioned in the same thirty-five-minute lesson time.

Similarly, each lesson shows that the word 'sentence' was used in the lessons which can be linked directly to a consideration of text at a sentence level; therefore, text was approached with ideational metafunction in mind and the lessons incorporated the Functional Linguistics teaching strategies outlined on the lesson plan given. Particularly interesting in the tables for the passive [Appendices 18 – 23] is the absence of terminology such as 'verb' and 'tense' or even 'syntax' which may demonstrate that, rather than adhere to their previous knowledge or outline the construction of the passive voice in terms of formal grammar and traditional terms, teachers and pupils discussed language on a different level and from different perspective. The presence of words such as 'blame', 'neutral', 'objective' and 'objectively' in TGI-TGVI's lessons show that these lessons were considering text in terms of its interpersonal metafunction. This strengthens the lessons link to the Functional Linguistics teaching strategies outlined in the given lesson plan.

6.1.2. Teaching strategies: how was the content presented by each teacher?

For this analysis, the *lesson transcripts or observations (O)* were used as data. The words used by the group were split into teacher utterances and pupil utterances which were then grouped together before being analysed so that teacher and pupil utterances throughout the lesson, and between different lessons, could be compared. In the first stage of analysis the teacher utterances of interest alone were used and presented on the same graph for purposes of comparison. In the second step of analysis, the teacher and pupil utterances were compared. This allowed a comparison of the ways in which the teachers presented the given material as well as the ways in which the pupils responded in each class. This comparison indicated whether teachers provided a similar experience of the intervention lessons across the year group: this has been represented using cluster diagrams. This also showed whether pupils responded to the style of an individual teacher or to the teaching strategy used. The primary purpose of this section is to engage with whether the teaching strategies used were similar in presentation and whether pupil responses to these were similar across the year group. This is in order to establish whether the teaching strategies had a similar impact on pupils across different groups and could, therefore, be considered an effective teaching strategy.

6.1.2.1. The modal intervention lessons

Figure 6-1 shows that all six of the teachers delivering the intervention lessons used the word 'language' showing that this word or concept had a part in all six intervention lessons. The most commonly used words after this across the teaching groups were 'tone', 'word', 'verbs' and 'modal'. Here, there is some commonality between the teaching groups as to the kind of language used to both introduce and explore the concept. These showed that at least four of the classes were focused primarily on language at a word level rather than a sentence level which would indicate there was a common approach concerning the ideational metafunction of the text.

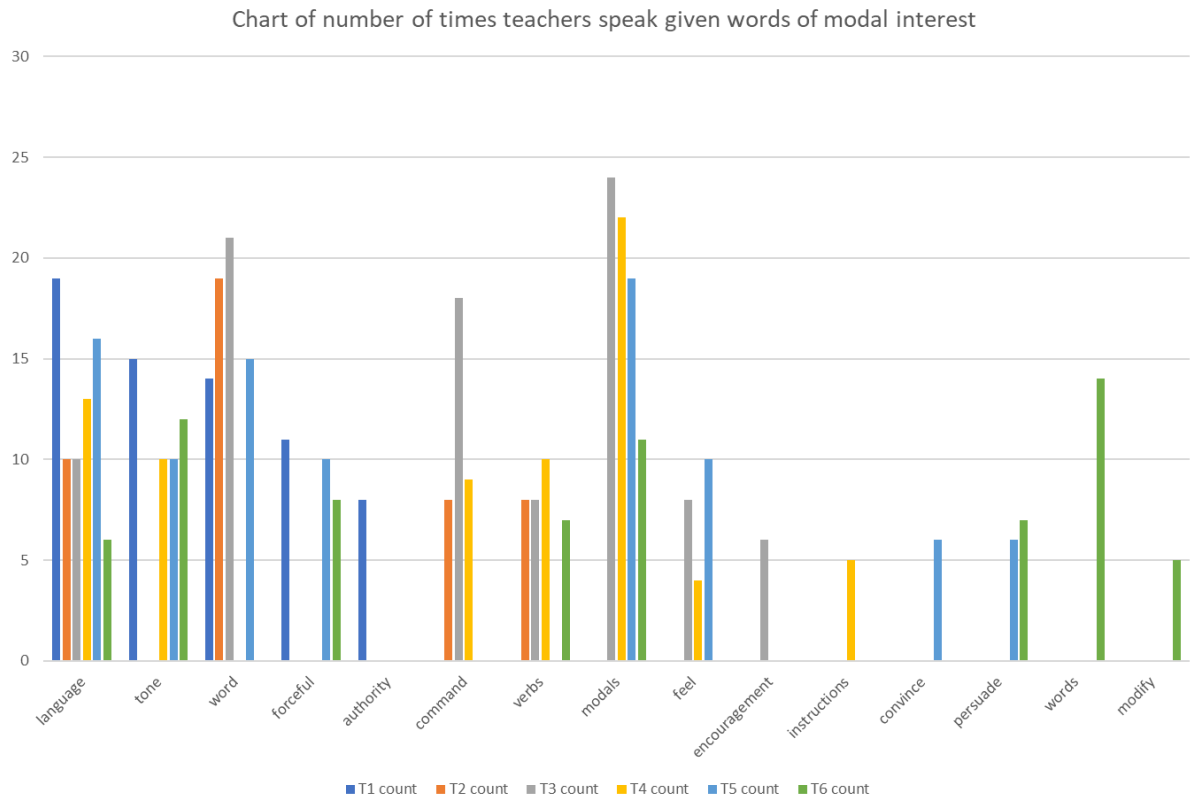

Figure 6-1: Number of teacher utterances of words of modal interest

Figure 6-2 shows that there are two clear groupings which have similarities in the modal intervention lesson: the teachers of the intervention lessons and the pupils who were the participants in these lessons. This shows that the teachers were more similar to each other in their use of langauge than they were similar to the kind of language that their pupils were using and vice versa. The pupils, in this case, were then similar to each other in their response to their intervention lessons. It is interesting to observe that T3 (teacher of TGIII) and T4

(teacher of TGIV) in Figure 6-2 are more similar to each other than the other teachers who are all more similar to each other than they are to T3 or T4: it can be be deduced that this is because T3 and T4 are the same person who has clearly replicated the intervention lesson closely across both of her classes. This shows that the teachers presenting the modal intervention lesson provided a similar experience of the intervention lesson material across the teaching groups.

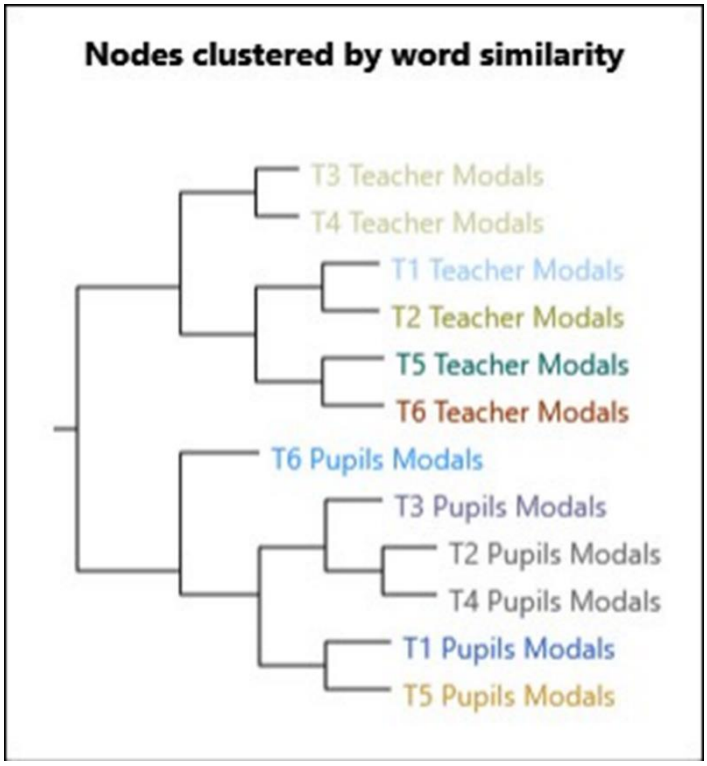

Figure 6-2: Cluster Diagram of modal intervention lessons

It can be inferred from Figure 6-2 that the pupils across the year group were then not replicating the language of their teachers but that they were responding in a similar way to the teaching strategies used within the modal intervention lesson. This indicates that they were not emulating their teachers' language but were using different words and phrases to explore and question the concepts introduced independently from their teacher. It is interesting, particularly, to note that although TGIII and TGIV pupils were taught by the same teacher that they are not the most similar in their use of language in Figure 6-2; instead, TGIV pupils are more similar in their use of language to TGII pupils than to TGIII pupils. This could suggest that the classes are unique and different in their exploration of the concepts outlined in the lesson but that they are similar because they are responding to the same lesson content.

Figure 6-2 also shows that the group of TGVI pupils is the outlier: they are the group who are least like any other and the one which joins the other groups at the last point in the cluster. TGII and TGIV are similar but they are not too dissimilar to TGIII; therefore, even though TGIII and TGIV are taught by the same teacher it is pupils from TGII and TGIV which are similar in response to the intervention lesson. This may demonstrate that the pupils within a class, and their creative ability, may override the teacher's style when delivering material since the teachers' use of language has limited impact on the language used by their pupils. It may then be stated that the pupils are responding to something other than simply their teacher's style or their use of language.

6.1.2.2. The passive intervention lessons

Figure 6-3 shows one word which is used by all teachers across all six classes: 'blame'. This is interesting because this word was not given as a 'technical term' in contrast to words such as 'instrument' and 'agent' which are the next most commonly used words; therefore, indicating some independence on the part of the teachers delivering the intervention lesson. The use of the word 'blame' shows that all the teachers are introducing the concept of the passive voice through referring to, or exploring the concept of, the blame or bias associated with structuring sentences in a particular way.

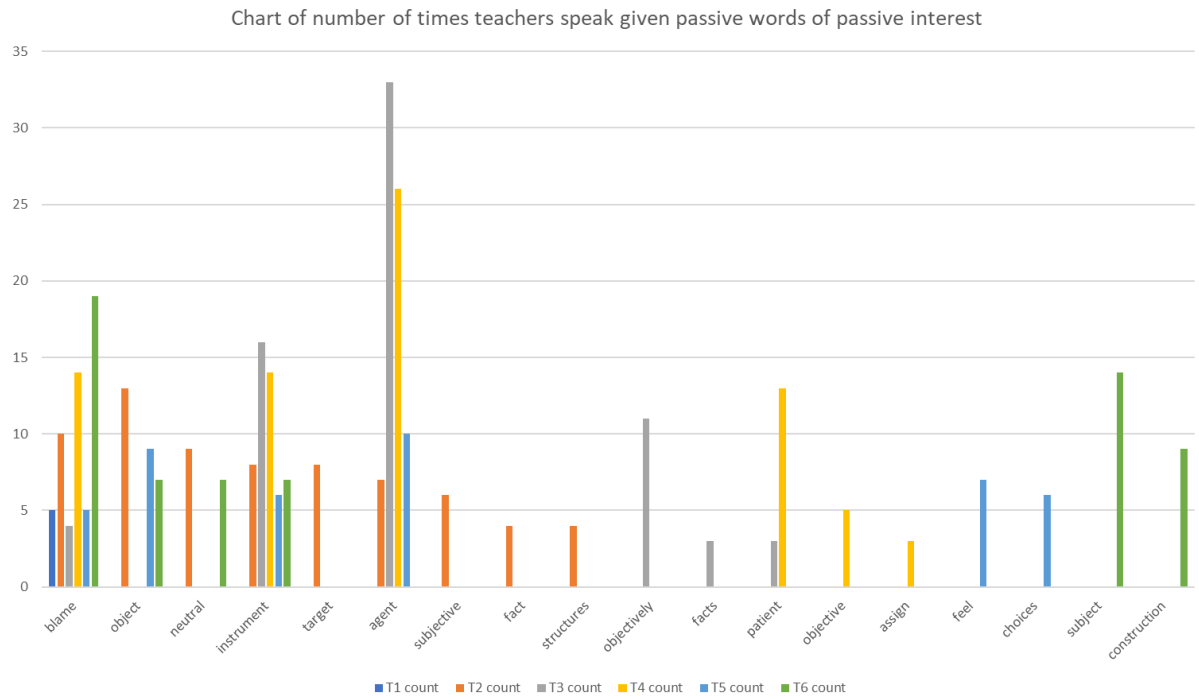

Figure 6-3: Number of teacher utterances of words of passive interest

This is replicated in Figure 6-4 in which there are, again, two groupings which show a clear similarity: the teachers of the intervention lessons and the pupils who were the participants in these lessons. This would also suggest that the teachers were more similar in their use of language to each other that they were to their pupils and vice versa. It is, again, interesting to observe that T3 (teacher of Group 3) and T4 (teacher of Group 4) in Figure 6-4 are more similar to each other than the other teachers who are all more similar to each other than they are to T3 or T4: it can be deduced that this is because T3 and T4 are the same person who has clearly replicated the intervention lesson closely across both of her classes. This observation may also indicate an interesting distinction between the teacher of both groups T3 and T4 and the other teachers conducting intervention lessons. However, the fact that the teachers are clustered together shows that the teachers presenting the passive intervention lesson provided a similar experience of the intervention lesson material across the teaching groups.

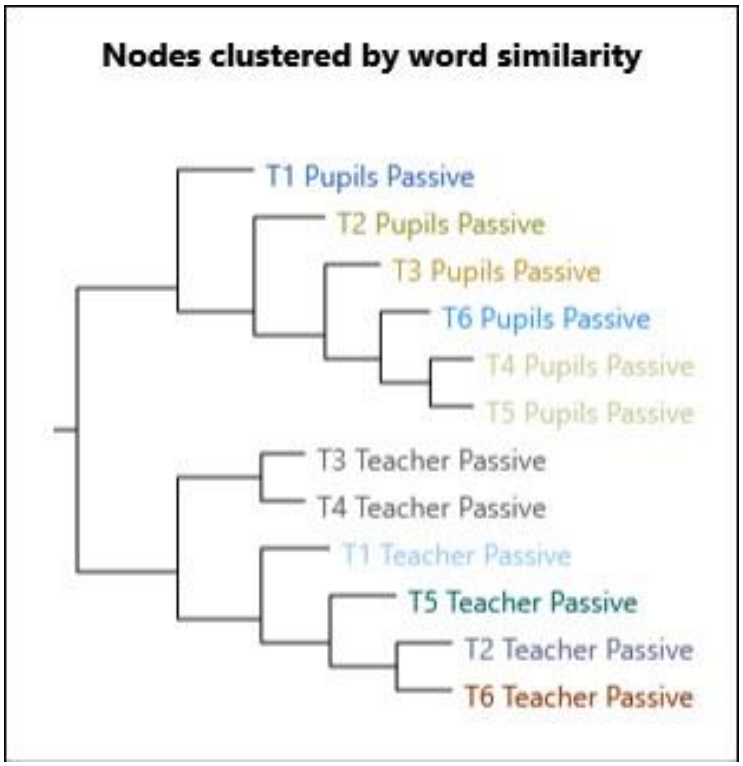

Figure 6-4: Cluster Diagram of passive intervention lessons

Although TGIII and TGIV has clustered together showing that this teacher is different to all other teachers, her classes do not respond any differently to any other thus clearly demonstrating that teacher style does not have a noticeable impact on the language used by the pupils. In Figure 6-4, it is TGI pupils who appear to be the least similar in their response to the intervention lesson material than their peers: this may be due to the TGI intervention

lesson being double in length in comparison to the other intervention lessons. This, again, strengthens the supposition that the pupils are responding to something other than simply their teacher's style or their teacher's use of language.

6.1.3. Exploration of meaning

For this analysis, the transcripts from *lesson observations (O)* were used as data. Pupil utterances were analysed separately for the frequency of these words: the analysis of this has been represented as a bar graph including all pupils from across the year group allowing for comparison across teaching groups. This could show how the different groups explored the grammatical concepts and what type of discussion was held in each teaching group. The purpose of this section is to establish whether pupils explored the meaning of the intervention grammatical concept and how they went about this with the intention of ascertaining whether the discussions being held in the classrooms were enabling pupils to understand text and meaning through the teaching strategy used.

6.1.3.1. The modal intervention lessons

Figure 6-5 demonstrates that the word 'feel' was used by every set of pupils across each teaching group. It is interesting to observe that this word has been used within lessons which are focused primarily on language, grammar and writing; there is an absence of words associated with traditional grammar teaching; the use of 'feel' alongside this absence may show that text and grammar is being considered in light of the text receiver and how they respond to these constructions. There was also a use of 'forceful' by pupils in four of the teaching groups and 'guilt' in four of the teaching groups. Figure 6-5 shows that pupils had a similar response to the lesson content as they were using the same type of vocabulary to explore the concepts introduced and express their ideas concerning the content. This also shows that all the pupils had a similar, and in some cases the same, verbal response to the grammatical concepts being introduced to them in the intervention lessons. The prevalence of the use of the word 'feel' could show that the teaching strategies particularly enable a discussion of the interpersonal metafunction of texts.

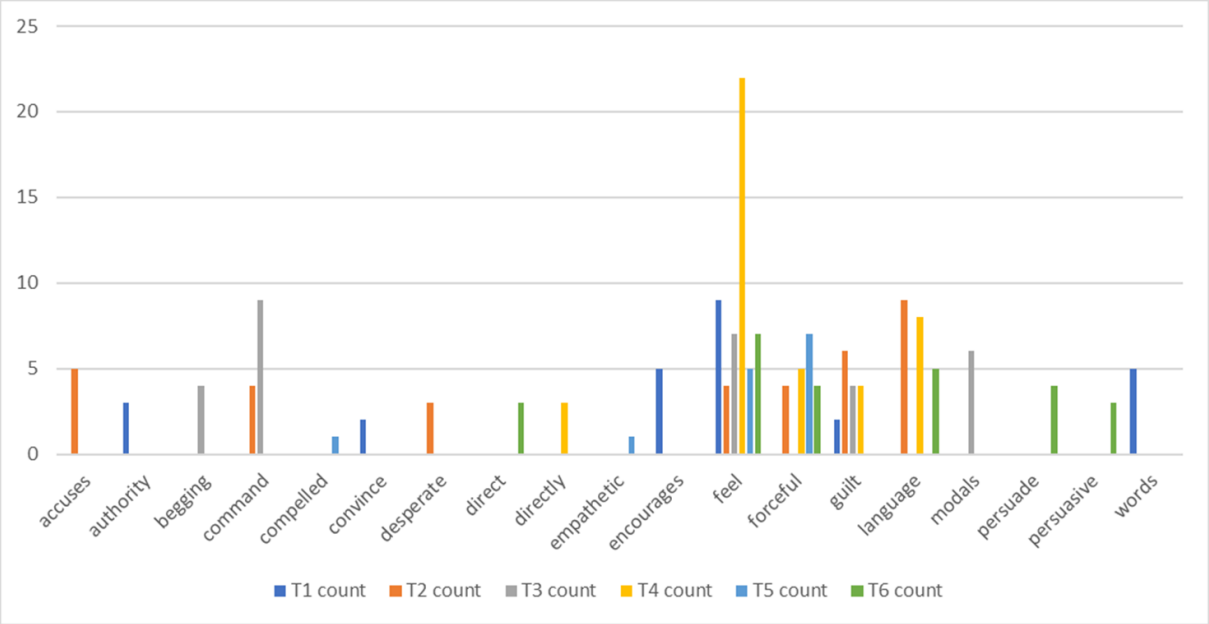

Figure 6-5: frequency of pupils' words which are related to the teaching strategies

6.1.3.2. The passive intervention lessons

Figure 6-6 shows that pupils across all six classes used the word 'passive' which is unremarkable considering that this was the focus of the intervention lesson. Of interest is the fact that pupils across all six classes also used the word 'blame' which would indicate that every class explored how the grammatical concept of the passive voice establishes blame; therefore, every class explored the meaning of the grammatical concept. There was also a common use of the word 'sentence' across five of the classes showing a focus on ideational metafunction and the structure of language at sentence level rather than word level allowing the classes to discuss language at a different level to that of the modal intervention lesson. The presence of the words 'agent', 'instrument', 'action', 'object' and 'target' alongside words such as 'bias', 'blame', 'feel' and 'objective' not only show that these words were used within the time period of a single lesson and were therefore linked in the psyches of the pupils though proximity but that the presence of the words which were introduced by Cognitive Linguistics strategies were not detrimental to the exploration of the meaning of the grammatical concept. The use of the two different types of words alongside each other shows that there was certainly no limiting of the exploration of the meaning of the passive voice.

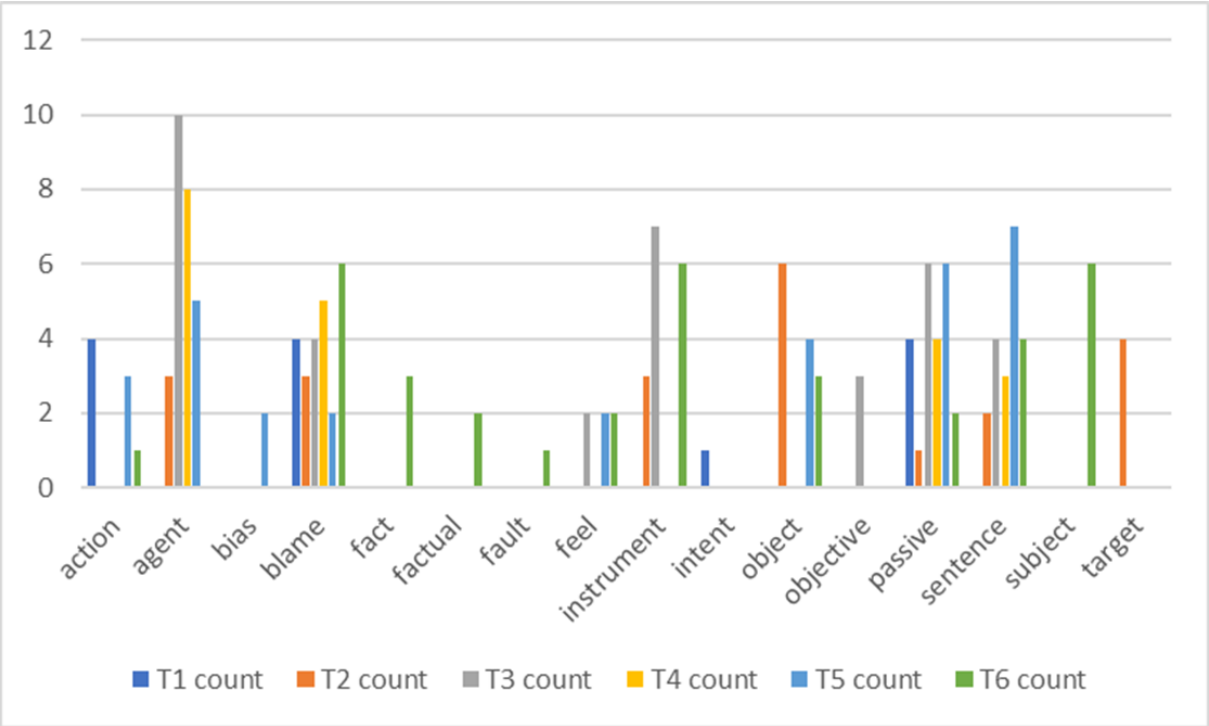

Figure 6-6: frequency of pupils' words which are related to the teaching strategies

6.2. Pupils' responses: linking teaching strategies and pupil understanding

For this analysis, the transcripts from *lesson observations (O)* were used as data. The teacher and pupil utterances were separated from all lessons and then grouped together to produce teacher utterances overall and pupil utterances overall. Words of interest for the modal intervention lesson and words of interest for the passive lesson [see Chapter 4: Research Methods and Methodology] were then selected and counted across the intervention lessons for both teacher and pupil utterances. These frequencies were then plotted against each other in order to show whether there was a correlation between the frequency of the teacher utterances and the frequency of the pupil utterances. The primary purpose of this section was to engage with whether there is a relationship between the teachers' and the pupils' utterances which may lead to a consideration of whether the lesson material has an influence on the pupils and the potential nature of any suggested influences.

6.2.1. Linking teaching and learning

6.2.1.1. The modal intervention lessons

Figure 6-7 shows that there is no correlation between the use of the words that the teachers use and the words that the pupils use in the modal intervention lessons. This may indicate that there is no statistical relationship between what the teachers say in the lesson and what the pupils say. This may be partially due to the outlier of the word 'feel'; the pupils were using this word much more than teachers which may indicate that the pupils' verbal responses to the teaching strategy was to consider feelings and the way that they feel in response to the text which explored meaning above all. This is similar to the use of the word 'forceful' which is used by pupils more than teachers showing that the response was to consider the material or grammatical concept in light of its meaning rather than simply labelling or parsing the sentences given within the intervention lesson. It can be seen in Figure 6-5 that the word 'feel' is used predominantly by TGIV which is reflected in the fact that this word is an outlier in Figure 6-7. Certainly, it can be ascertained that the pupils are not simply repeating the words which are used by the teachers in the case of the modal lesson but are, instead, exploring the grammatical concept in a different way. 'Feel' is linked predominantly to the interpersonal metafunction of the text and so, although the teachers do not focus on this aspect of the text all the pupils do use this word and, therefore, they are all concerned with its interpersonal metafunction.

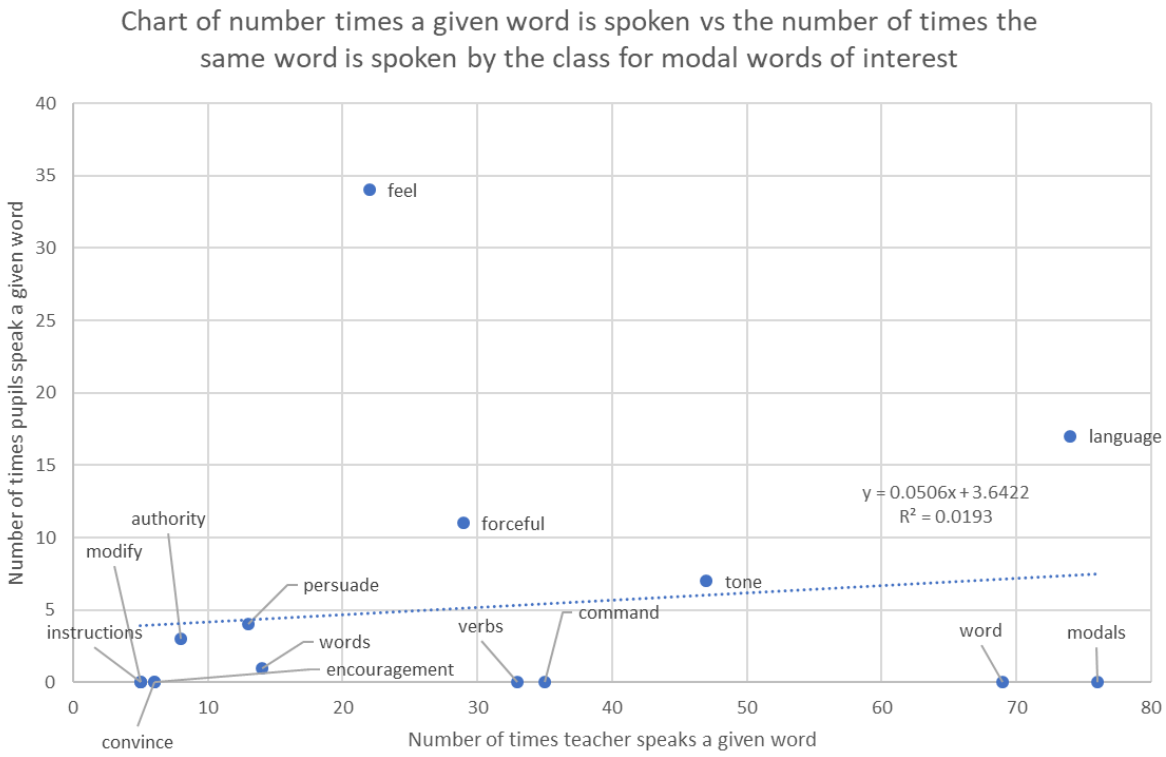

Figure 6-7: Teacher vs pupil word frequency modal words of interest

6.2.1.2. The Passive intervention lessons

Figure 6-8 shows a strong statistical correlation between the words that the teachers use and the words that pupils use in the passive intervention lessons. This indicates that there is a relationship between what the teachers say in the lessons and what the pupils say in the lessons. There is some close mirroring of the teachers' use of the words 'patient', 'subject', 'object', 'instrument' and 'agent'. These are all words which were introduced in the lesson and were words which pupils had not been taught before; this terminology was also mainly to do with the structure, and therefore the ideational metafunction of the text. This may show that pupils, rather than exploring the meaning or receiver response to the text itself, were more concerned with identifying the elements of the sentence which make up the passive voice. The direct mirroring of the teachers' use of this terminology shown in Figure 6-8 may be more indicative of the lack of confidence that pupils had when using new terminology rather than a

demonstration of the strength of the influence of the teachers' utterances upon the pupils' utterances.

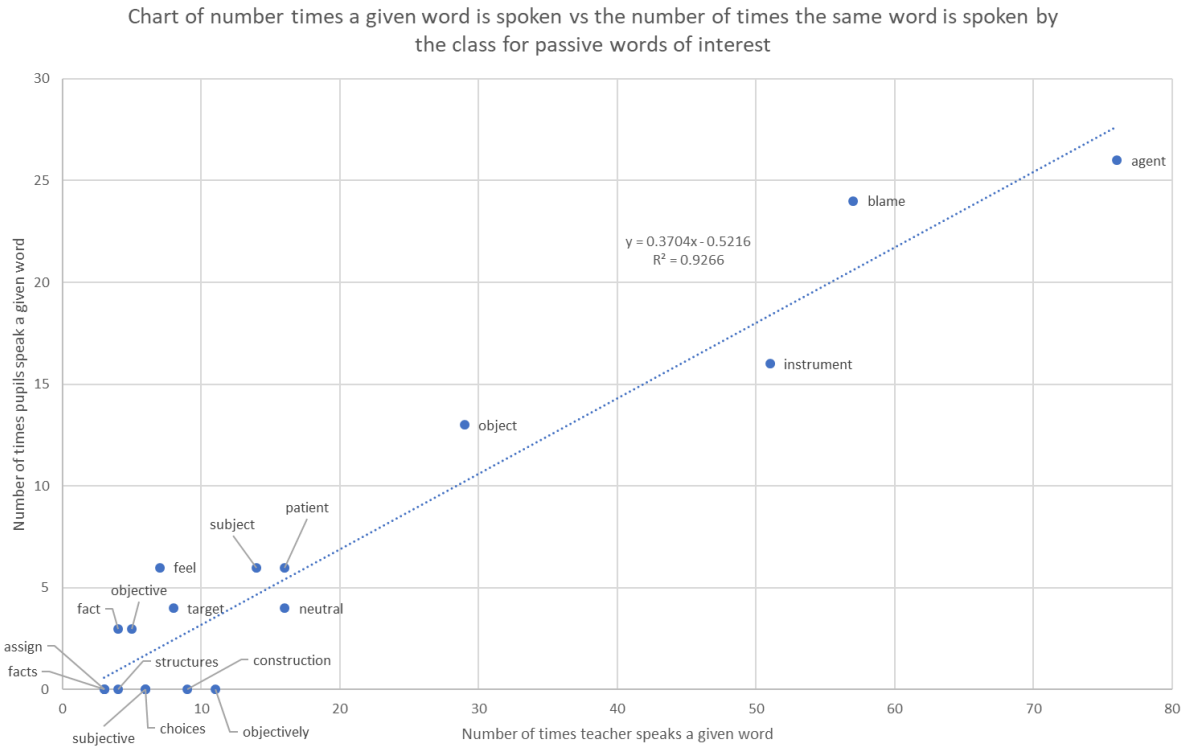

Figure 6-8: Teacher vs pupil word frequency passive words of interest

6.2.2. Pupils post modal intervention

For this analysis, the *think aloud transcripts* (T) for the think aloud pupils were used. The transcripts were coded using the coding principles for the transcripts of recorded data [see Figure 2]. For the modal intervention lesson, the frequency of the coded phrases for mood and modality pre and post modal intervention lesson were then compared. This comparison is represented in Figure 6-9 and Figure 6-10 as bar charts which show pre and post references for all think aloud participants for which there was a pre and post intervention lessons think aloud transcript available. For the passive intervention lesson, the frequency of references to sentence of clause level organisation and references to characters, subjects, topics or foci pre and post intervention lesson were then compared. This comparison is represented in Figure 6-11 and Figure 6-12 as bar charts which show pre and post references for all think aloud participants for which there was a pre and post intervention lessons think aloud transcript available. The purpose of this section is to engage with whether there is a change or difference between the amount of pupil references to these aspects of the texts after the intervention lessons have been delivered. An increase in references could then indicate that pupils have a

more explicit awareness of this aspect of the text which they are writing and are able to refer to these aspects of the text.

6.2.2.1. The modal intervention lessons

Figure 6-9 shows that seven out of the twelve think aloud participants referred more frequently to the mood of their writing in the post intervention think aloud recording. Four participants had the same amount of references to mood in their pre and post intervention recordings. There was one participant who had fewer (5C) references to mood in her post intervention recording. This means that over half (58%) of think aloud participants had an increase in the references that they made to mood after having been taught the modal intervention lesson. This clearly demonstrates that 58% of the think aloud participants made more explicit reference to mood, and therefore the social roles and social status and interpersonal metafunction of the text that they were producing after being taught modals using Functional Linguistics teaching strategies.

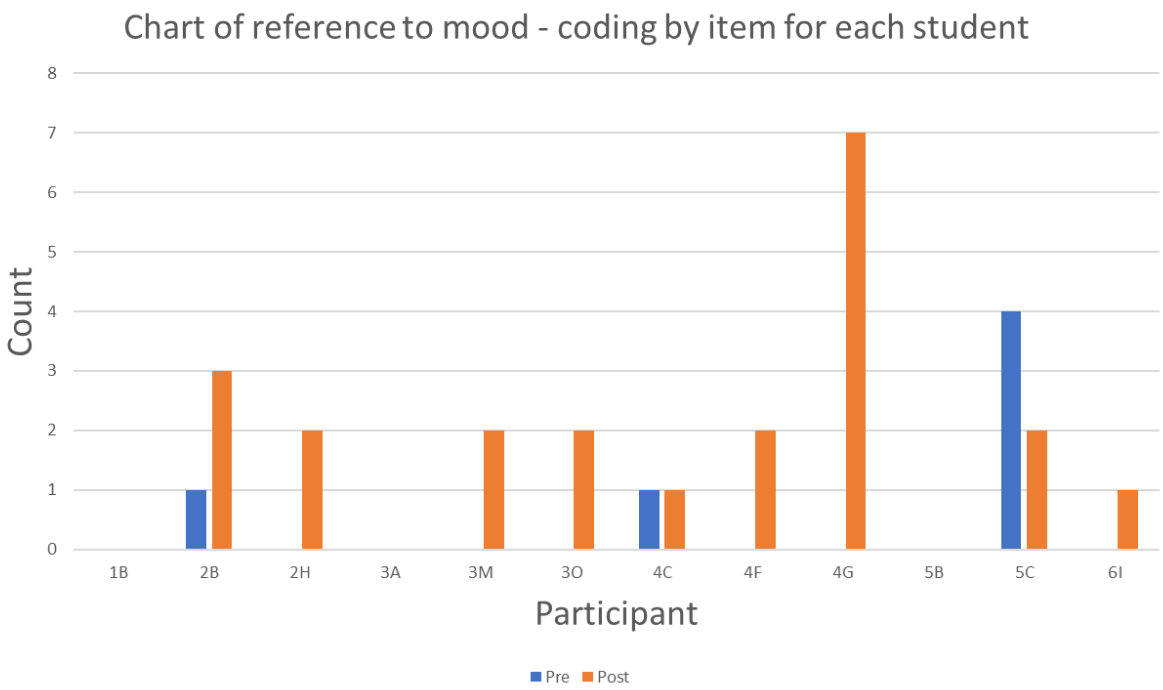

Figure 6-9: Participant reference to mood pre and post modal intervention lesson

Figure 6-10 shows that there is a clear increase in references to modality post intervention lesson for six out of the twelve think aloud participants. For the other six participants, there was no change in the amount of references to modality pre and post intervention lesson. This means that half (50%) of the think aloud participants had an increase in amount of references

that they made to modality after having been taught the modal intervention lesson. This clearly demonstrates that 50% of the think aloud participants made more explicit reference to modality, and therefore the social roles and social status and interpersonal metafunction of the text that they were producing after being taught modals using Functional Linguistics teaching strategies. What is interesting here is the distinct difference between the amount of pre and post intervention references in which all participants were not making reference to modality at all prior to having been taught modals using Functional Linguistics teaching strategies but a sharp increase can be seen post intervention for the six participants who did make reference to this aspect of their writing. This could infer that the intervention was highly influential for those participants who were unaware of this aspect of the text prior to being taught using Functional Linguistics teaching strategies.

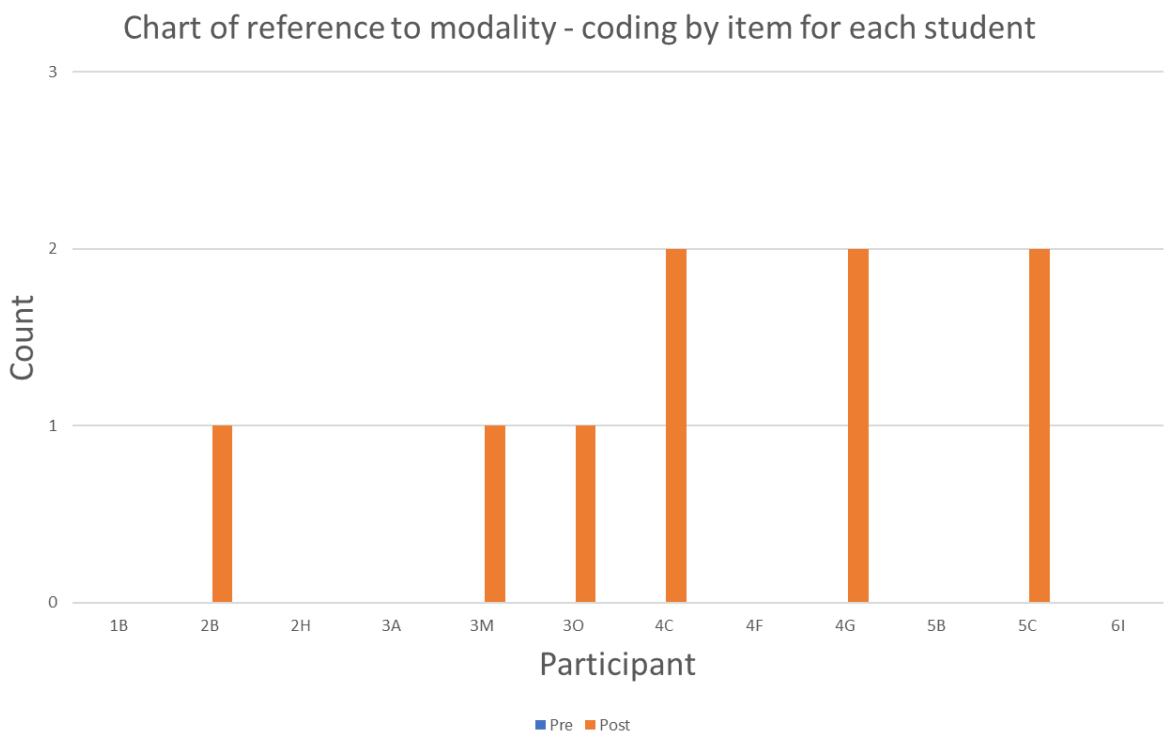

Figure 6-10: Participant reference to modality pre and post modal intervention lesson

6.2.3. Pupils post passive intervention

Figure 6-11 shows how there is an increase in references to sentence or clause level organisation post intervention lesson for four out of the thirteen think aloud participants. For six of the think aloud participants there was no change in the amount of references they made to sentence or clause level organisation post intervention. For the other three participants, their references to sentence or clause level organisation decreased post intervention. This means that 31% of the think aloud participants made more explicit references to sentence or

clause level organisation, and therefore discussed the manipulation or angle of representation of the text and the ideational metafunction of the text that they were producing. Again, what is interesting in Figure 6-11 is that there is a marked difference between the amount of pre and post intervention references in four cases where there is an increase in the amount of references pre and post intervention. This could infer that the intervention had an impact on those participants who were unaware of this aspect of the text prior to being taught using Functional Linguistics strategies.

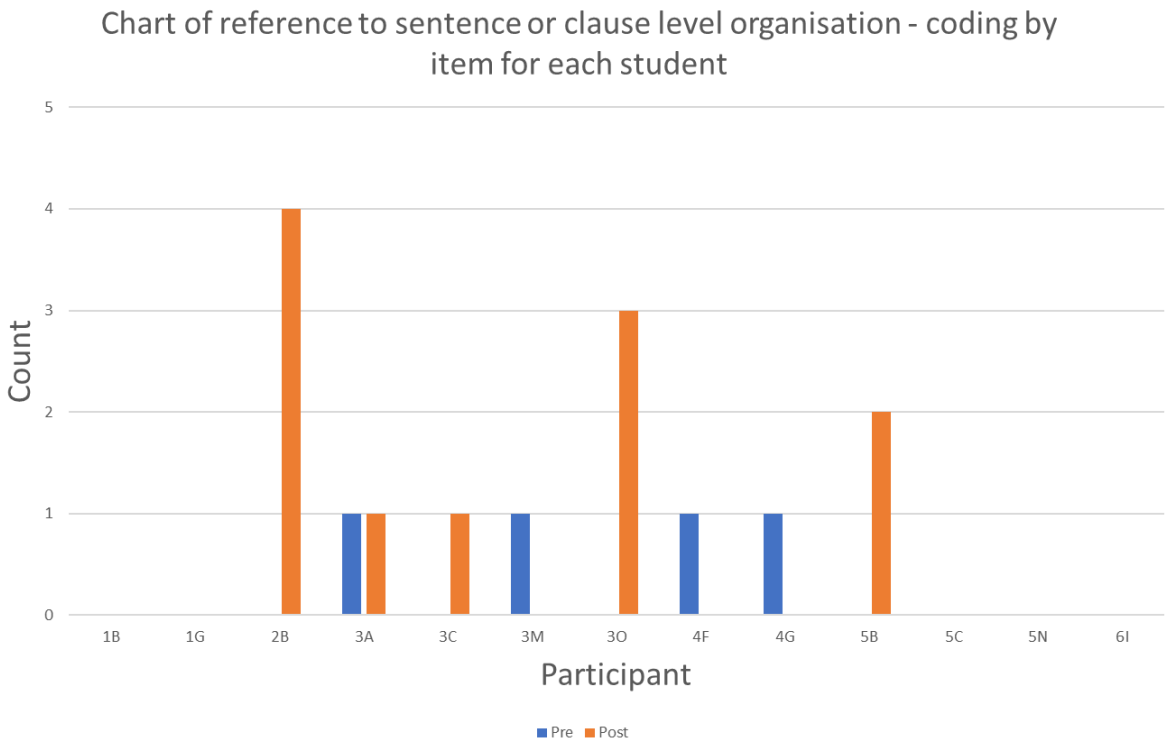

Figure 6-11: Participant reference to sentence of clause level organisation pre and post passive intervention lesson

Figure 6-12 shows that seven out of the thirteen participants referred more frequently to the characters, subjects, topics or foci of their writing in the post passive intervention lesson think aloud transcripts. For three participants there was no change in the amount of references to characters, subjects, topics or foci pre and post intervention lesson. For the final three participants there was a decrease in their reference to characters, subjects, topics or foci in the post intervention transcript. This shows that the intervention lesson had an impact on ten out of the thirteen participants' references to characters, subjects, topics or foci. This demonstrates that 54% of the think aloud participants had an increase in the amount of

references that they made to characters, subjects, topics or foci after having been taught the passive intervention lesson. Therefore, 54% of the think aloud participants made more explicit reference to characters, subjects, topics or foci, and therefore the manipulation or angle of representation and ideational metafunction of the text that they were producing after being taught the passive voice using Functional Linguistics strategies.

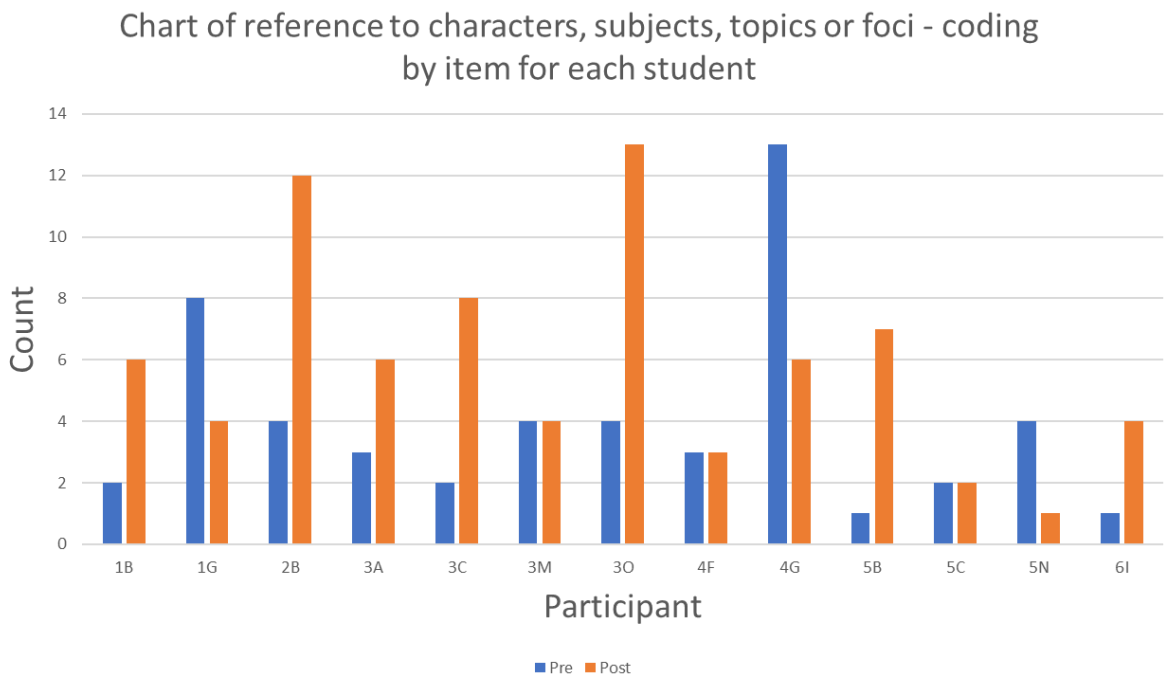

Figure 6-12: Participant reference to characters, subjects, topic or foci pre and post passive intervention lesson

6.3. Pupils' understanding: linking teaching strategies and pupil think alouds

For this analysis, the *think aloud transcripts* (T) for the think aloud pupils were used. In this case, all think aloud transcripts for the pupils (including pre modal intervention, post modal intervention and post passive intervention) were combined and compared. This is represented in the histograms shown in Figure 6-13 which show the distribution of references of interest before either intervention lesson took place alongside the distribution of references of interest after both intervention lessons took place. The purpose of this section is to engage, therefore, with whether the Functional Linguistics teaching strategies across both lessons, as a more generalised method, had an impact on the amount of references to both the interpersonal metafunction and the ideational metafunction of the writing being completed by

pupils. This may show a link between the lesson content and pupil writing or understanding shown through the think aloud transcripts.

6.3.1. Post interventions

The histograms in Figure 6-13 show that there is a shift in the distribution of references of interest after both of the intervention lessons took place. This suggests that it is likely that the intervention lessons have had an impact on the way that the participants were discussing their writing in the think aloud recordings across the entirety of the study.

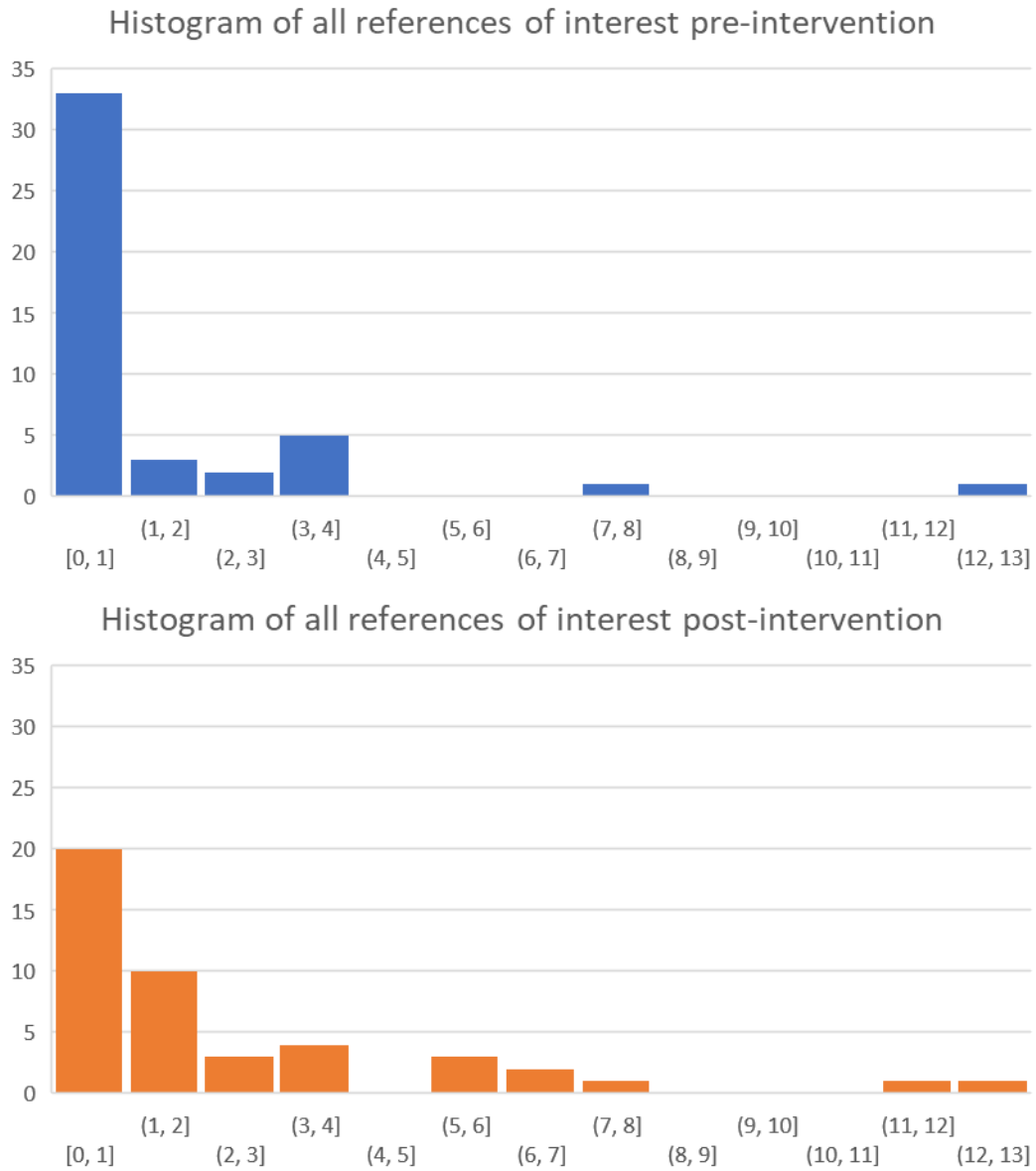

Figure 6-13: Histograms of references pre and post interventions

A t-test was conducted on the data to investigate whether there was a difference in the number of references between the language pre-intervention and the post-intervention

language. This showed that there was a significant increase in references: $t(44) = 2.91$, $p < 0.06$. Therefore, a discussion around the influence that the intervention lessons may have had on the frequency of participants' references is valid due to the significant change in distributions. This shows that the intervention lessons as an overall concept had an impact or influence on the participants' frequency of referencing key aspects of the texts they were writing.

6.4. Pupils' engagement with the tasks

6.4.1. The link between individual pupils and intervention lessons

For this analysis, the *think aloud transcripts* (T) for the think aloud pupils were used as well as the *lesson observation* (O) transcripts. The lesson transcripts and the think aloud pupil utterances within the think aloud transcripts were kept separate and each of these was coded according to the Coding Principles for transcripts of recorded data [see Figure 2]. These were then linked to each other based on their shared coding [graphically represented as the circles between the teacher and pupil]. The graphs below show the codes which both the class and individual participants share after each intervention lesson; therefore, they are a more detailed representation of exactly what individual pupils took, and used, from the intervention lessons. The purpose of this section is to consider what elements of the intervention lessons the pupils engaged with and to outline the details of how, and how far, the intervention lessons influenced them. The data is treated systematically and as similarly as possible shown through the highly structured layout of the discussion following each graph. This is in order to respond to the criticism that Close to Practice research 'lacks…rigour' (REF, 2015:15).

Six think loud participants, one from each teaching group, and their utterances' links to the aspects of the texts discussed in the intervention lesson were selected to be shown below. These six are typical of the rest of the think aloud participants' graphs which can be seen in Appendices 24 – 25 but which are not copied here for the purposes of a succinct discussion. It can be assumed, based on the previous section in this chapter (how was the content presented by each teacher?) that each lesson made reference to most, if not all, of the aspects outlined in Figure 2 as these were implicitly included within the Functional Linguistics teaching strategies used to deliver the content of the intervention lessons. Therefore, the discussion of each participant's utterances and their commonality with the lesson content can be considered as though they have selected from the full range of textual aspects unless stated otherwise within the discussion of the figure.

6.4.1.1. The modal intervention lessons and pupil engagement

The below graphs are representations of the links between a single think aloud participant and their modal intervention lessons. In each case, the multi-coloured circles are irrelevant to the discussion as they simply represent the coding which has taken place on a wider scale of teacher modals and pupils modals. As such, shows that both teacher and pupil discussions are included in the lesson transcript which is compared to the think aloud participant transcript. The blue circles show the code which is common to the two transcripts; therefore, showing which codes the participant uses which are the same as the intervention lesson.

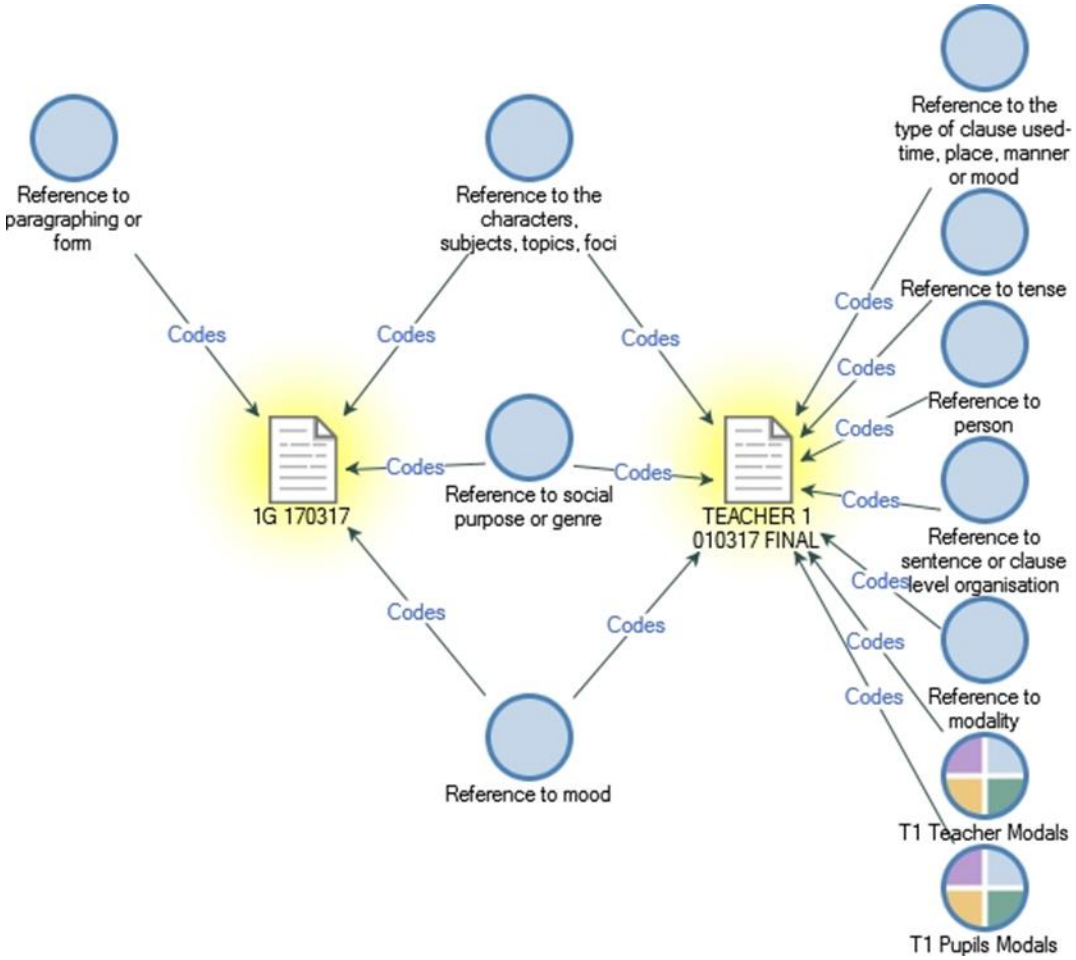

Figure 6-14: Participant 1G's links to modal intervention lesson

Figure 6-14 shows that Participant 1G used common references to characters, subjects, topics and foci, references to social purpose or genre and references to mood all of which linked to the modal intervention lesson. It can be seen, therefore that 1G particularly engaged with

these aspects of the lesson and explicitly considered these when discussing her writing task in her think aloud recording. These references covered both the ideational metafunction and interpersonal metafunction of her writing with more emphasis placed on the interpersonal. It is interesting to note that the pupil made no reference to modality. It can be ascertained, then, that there is a clear connection between the pupil's learning and thoughts about her writing and the content of the lesson.

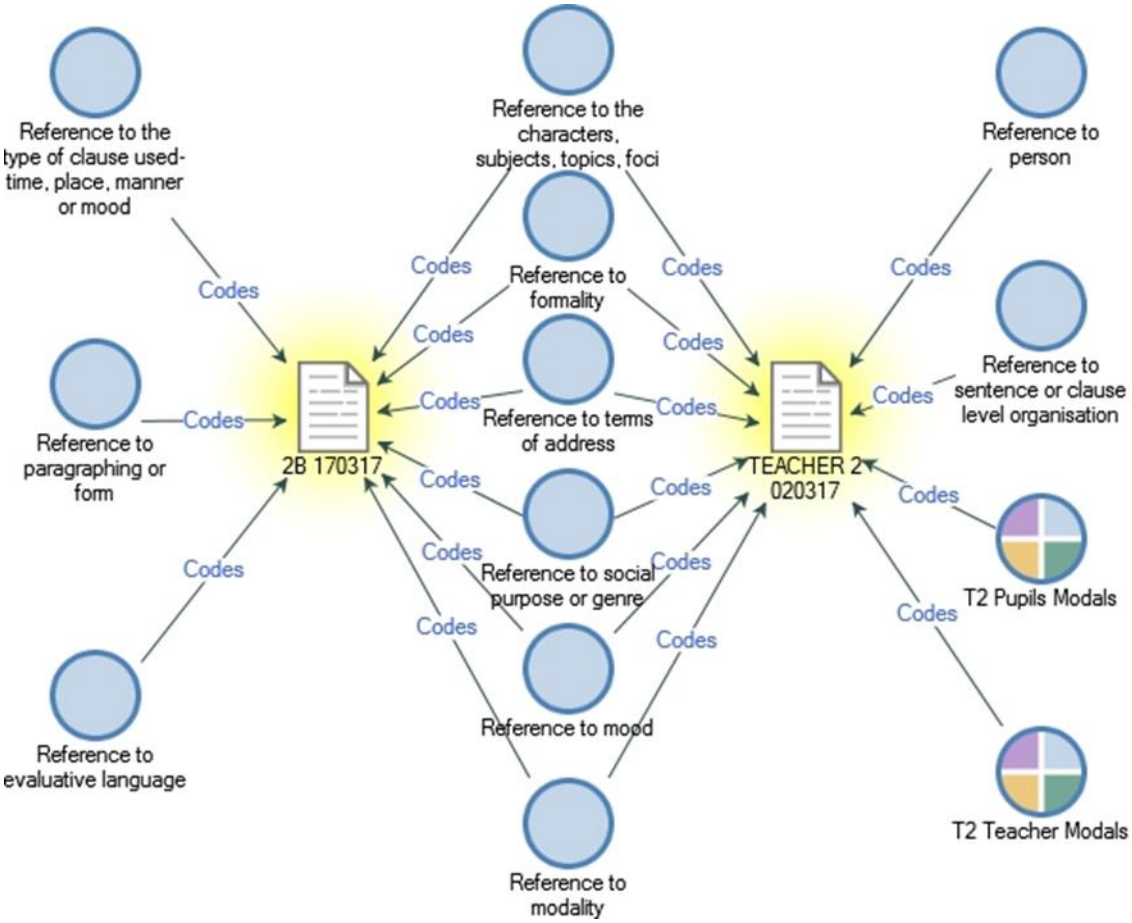

Figure 6-15: Participant 2B's links to modal intervention lesson

Figure 6-15 shows clearly how there are six areas of commonality between 2B's considerations of her writing and the modal intervention lesson. The participant clearly, here, shows links to many of the areas of the text which would be engaged with through Cognitive Linguistics strategies including ideational metafunction and interpersonal metafunction with more emphasis placed on the interpersonal. The scope of the shared codes is most striking here in that it infers that the participant gained a lot from the intervention lesson and engaged with many of the concepts being discussed.

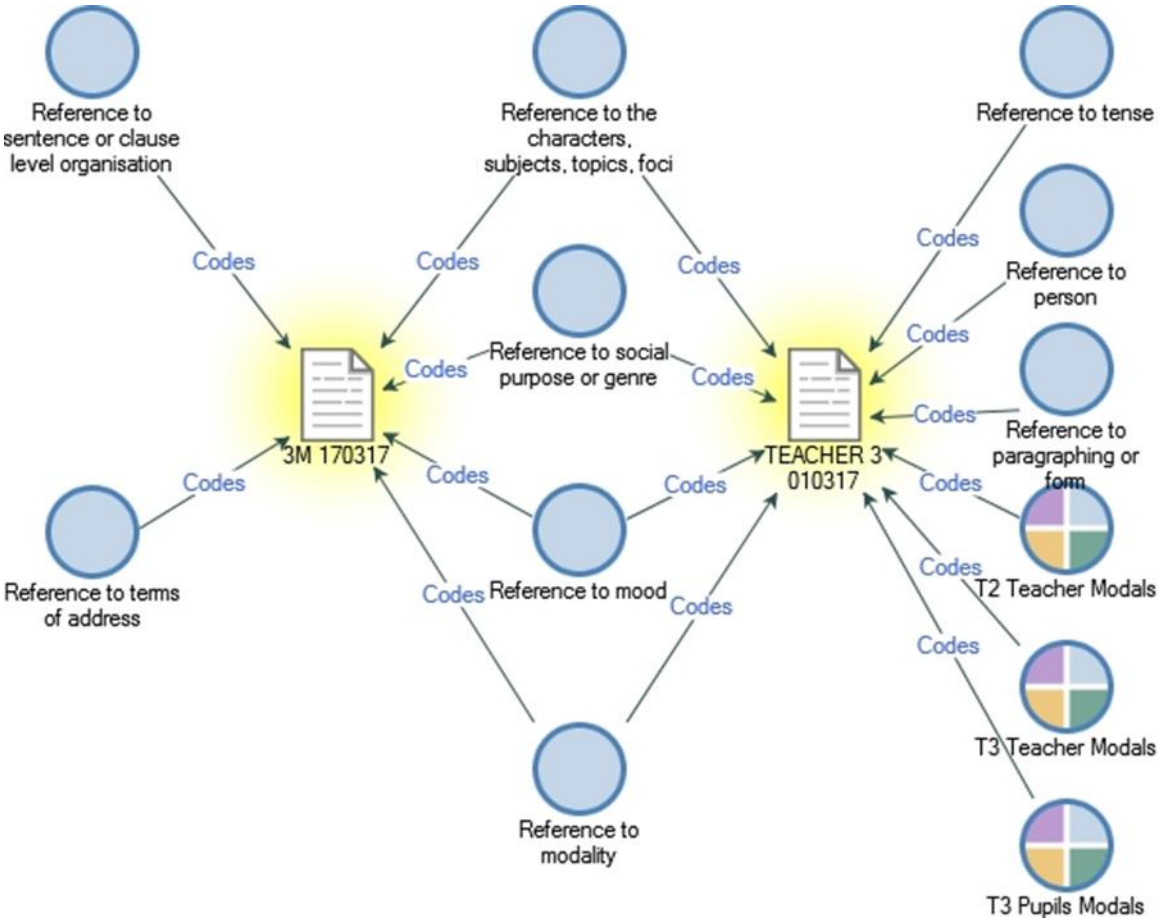

Figure 6-16: Participant 3M's links to modal intervention lesson

Figure 6-16 shows how participant 3M makes references to four areas which were included within the modal intervention lesson. Here, again, these references are shown to be part of the ideational metafunction and interpersonal metafunction with more emphasis placed on the interpersonal. The participant was clearly engaged with these aspects of the text when constructing her piece of writing. What is interesting here is that the intervention lesson includes references to tense, person and paragraphing or form, none of which were the focus of the Functional Linguistics teaching strategies used to teach the grammatical concept. It appears that the participant has particularly engaged with the aspects of the text which were taught using Functional Linguistics strategies.

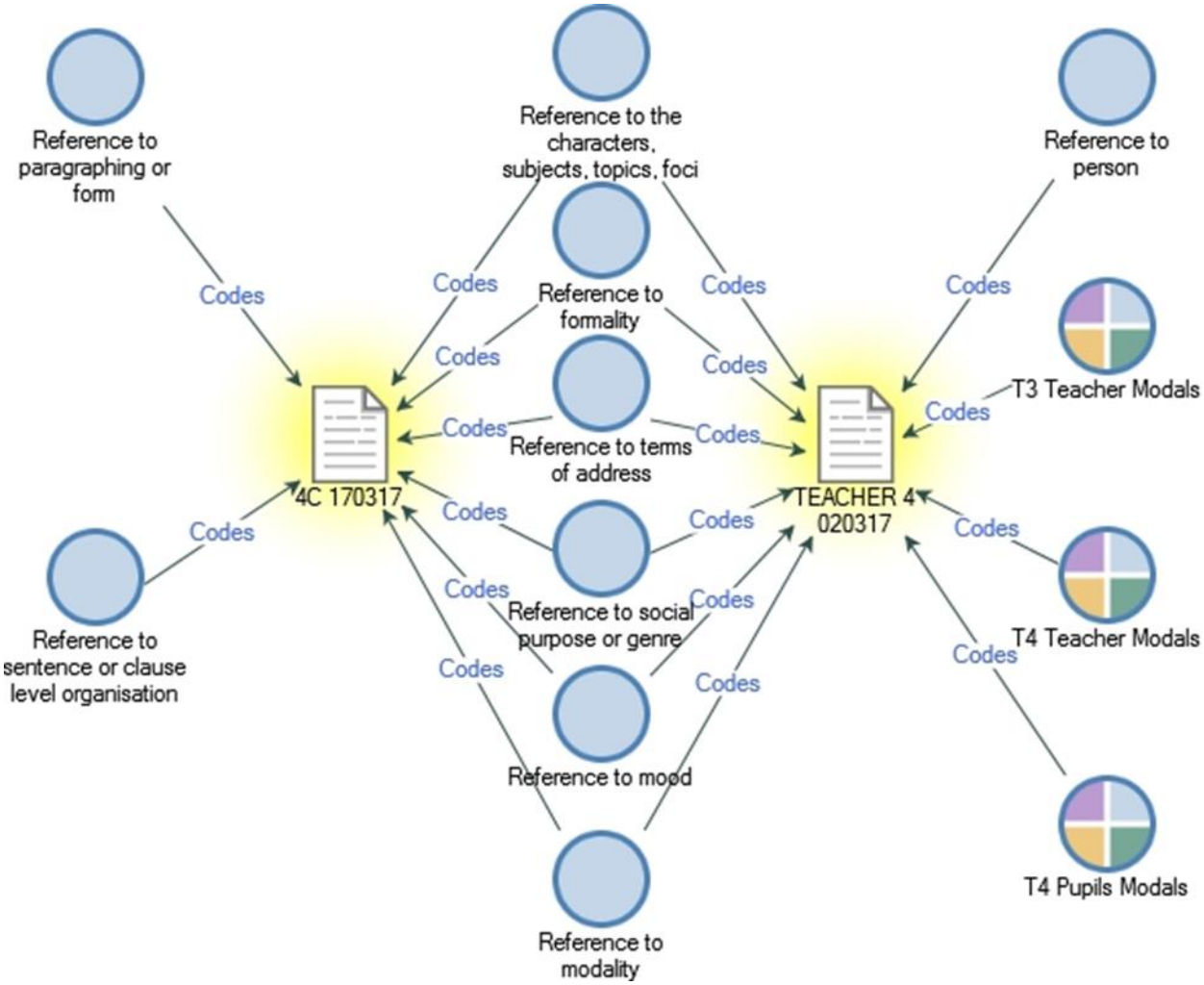

Figure 6-17: Participant 4C's links to modal intervention lesson

Figure 6-17 shows that there are six areas of commonality between the participant's references to the text she is constructing during her think aloud and the modal intervention lesson. The participant clearly shows links to many of the areas of the text which would be engaged with through Functional Linguistics strategies including ideational metafunction and interpersonal metafunction with more emphasis placed on the interpersonal. The scope of the shared codes is most striking here in that it infers that the participant gained a lot from the intervention lesson and engaged with many of the concepts being discussed. Also interesting is the only aspect which is left out of the common phrases explored within the lesson: 'reference to person' is the only aspect which is not discussed by the participant in this case-

an aspect of genre- which was not the focus of the Functional Linguistics teaching strategies used to teach the grammatical concept.

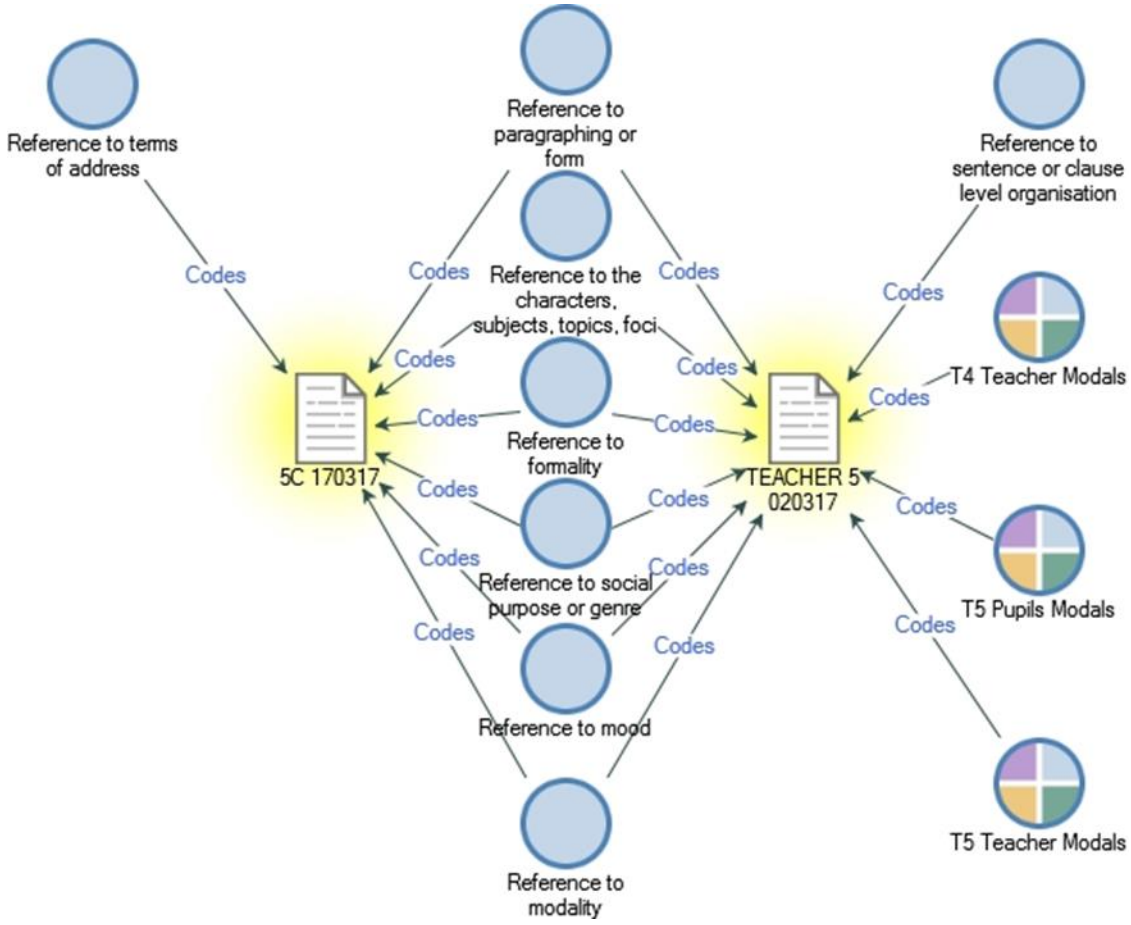

Figure 6-18: Participant 5C's links to modal intervention lesson.

Figure 6-18 also shows that there are six areas of commonality between the participant's reference to the text she is constructing during her think aloud and the modal intervention lesson. Again, the participant clearly shows links to many of the areas of the text which would be engaged with through Functional Linguistics strategies including ideational metafunction and interpersonal metafunction with more emphasis placed on the interpersonal. Similarly, the scope of the shared codes is most striking here in that it infers that the participant gained a lot from the intervention lesson and engaged with many of the concepts being discussed. The difference here is that the aspect of the text which is not referenced by the think aloud pupil is sentence or clause level organisation which would fit with the fact that the intervention lesson in question uses Functional Linguistic strategies which focus on modals, and therefore interpersonal metafunction, rather than sentence of clause level organisation which is part of a text's ideational metafunction.

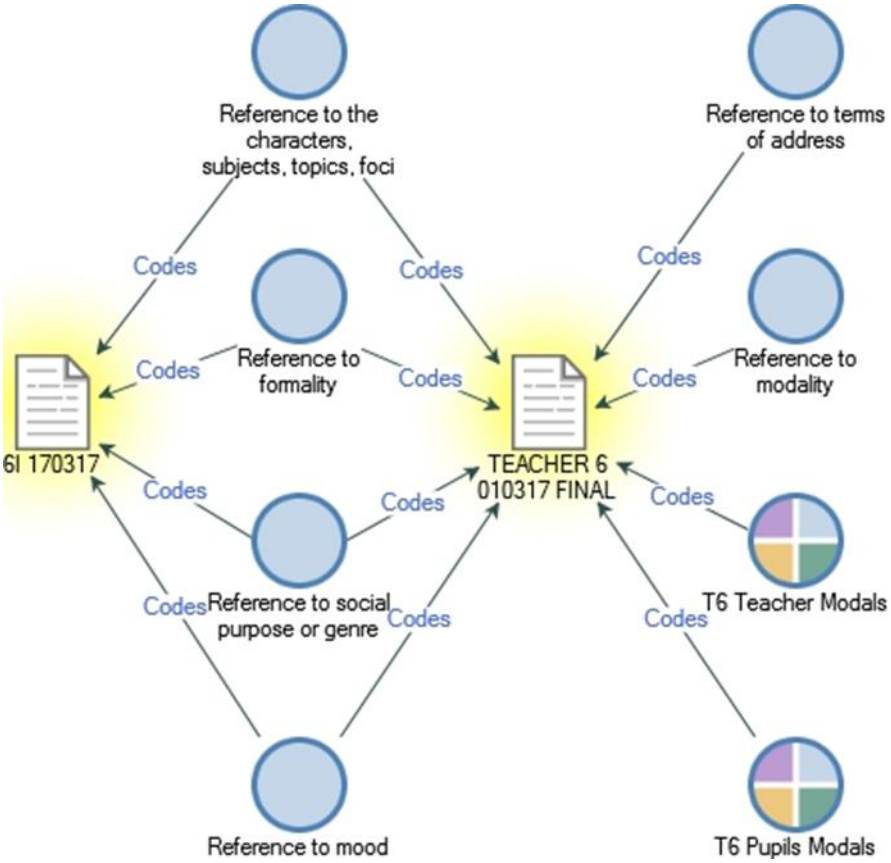

Figure 6-19: Participant 6I's links to modal intervention lesson

Figure 6-19 shows that there were four areas of the text which participant 6I referenced which were also discussed in the intervention lesson. Although most of the shared references are centred around the interpersonal metafunction, it is interesting to note that 6I does not make any reference to the modality of the text which she is writing. This may indicate that, although she does engage with several aspects of the text which are introduced by the Functional Linguistics strategies used that she did not appear to engage with the key concept of modality. However, also interesting is that 6I make no references to her text which were not also within the intervention lesson. This may indicate that the content of the intervention lesson was predominantly new to her and that she had no previous knowledge or understanding to bring to bear on the text which she was writing during the think aloud.

6.4.1.2 Cross-class analysis

A cross- class analysis would indicate that participants were able to engage with the content of the intervention lesson as all of them discussed the text by focusing on aspects which were also discussed in the modal intervention lesson. There was no think aloud participant who did not discuss at least one of the aspects of the text which were discussed in the intervention lesson. Therefore, it can be surmised that the content of the lesson, and therefore the Functional Linguistics strategies used, were effective as they can be linked to the ways in which the participants were discussing their writing and the construction of their own texts post-intervention lesson. The links between the participants' discussions and the content of the intervention lessons are predominantly focused on the interpersonal metafunction of the texts, which is the area of which modal verbs are associated; although modality may not have been an explicit discussion for all participants, their focus on the interpersonal metafunction shows that the content of the intervention lessons was successful in placing emphasis on this aspect of written text.

6.4.1.3 The passive intervention lessons and pupil engagement

The below graphs are representations of the links between a single think aloud participant and their passive intervention lessons. In each case, the multi-coloured circles are irrelevant to the discussion as they simply represent the coding which has taken place on a wider scale of teacher passive and pupil passive and, as such, shows that both teacher and pupil discussions are included in the lesson transcript which is compared to the think aloud participant transcript.

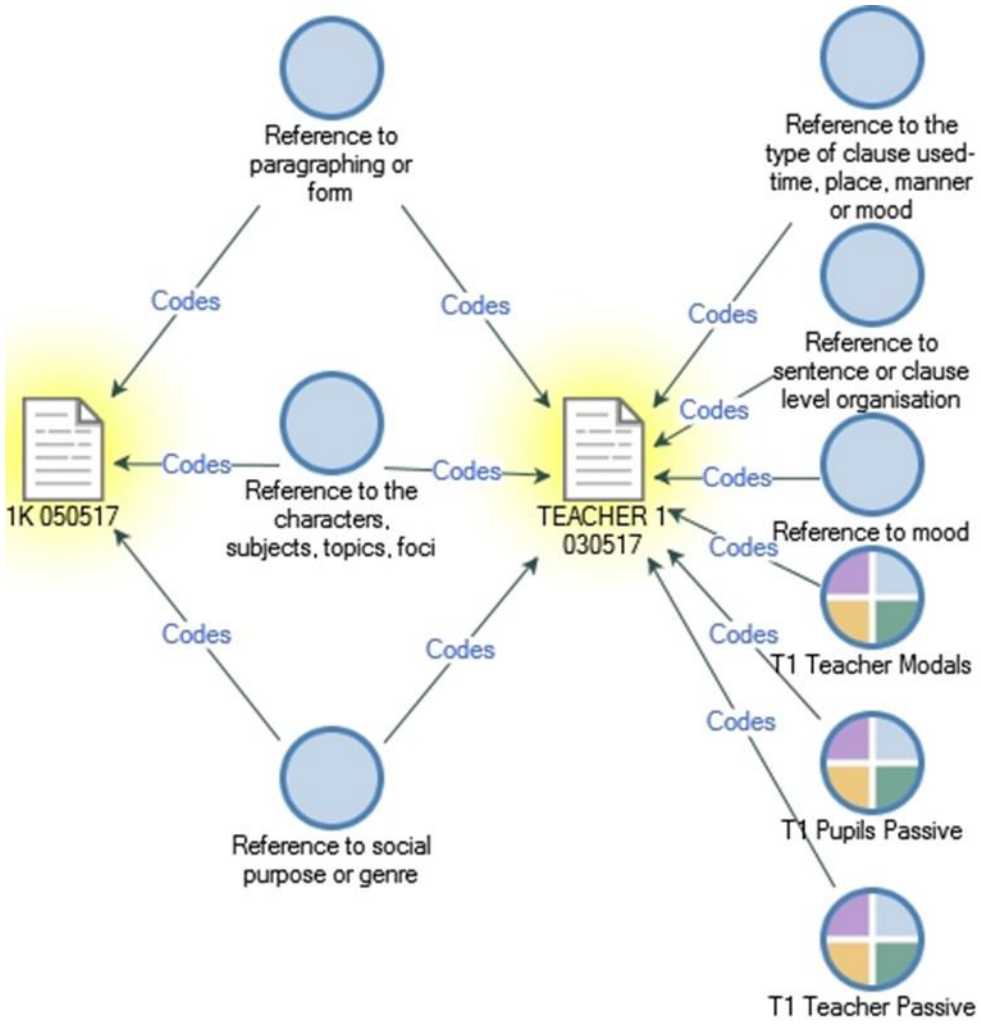

Figure 6-20: Participant 1K's links to passive intervention lesson

Figure 6-20 shows that there were three areas of commonality between the discussion that 1K had during the think aloud recording and the intervention lesson on the passive. The three common aspects are interesting in that each fulfils a different area of the text: ideational metafunction (reference to characters, subjects, topics and foci), interpersonal metafunction (reference to social purpose) and genre (reference to social purpose or genre). In this way, it is

unclear as to what the participant has taken from the intervention lesson apart from a more general understanding of how to construct a written text. The key aspects which are not referenced by the participant are reference to sentence or clause level organisation and reference to the type of clause used both of which are integral to the understanding of how to use the passive voice in texts. However, 1K can discuss aspects of the text which she is constructing in a way which shows she has been influenced by the content of the intervention lesson.

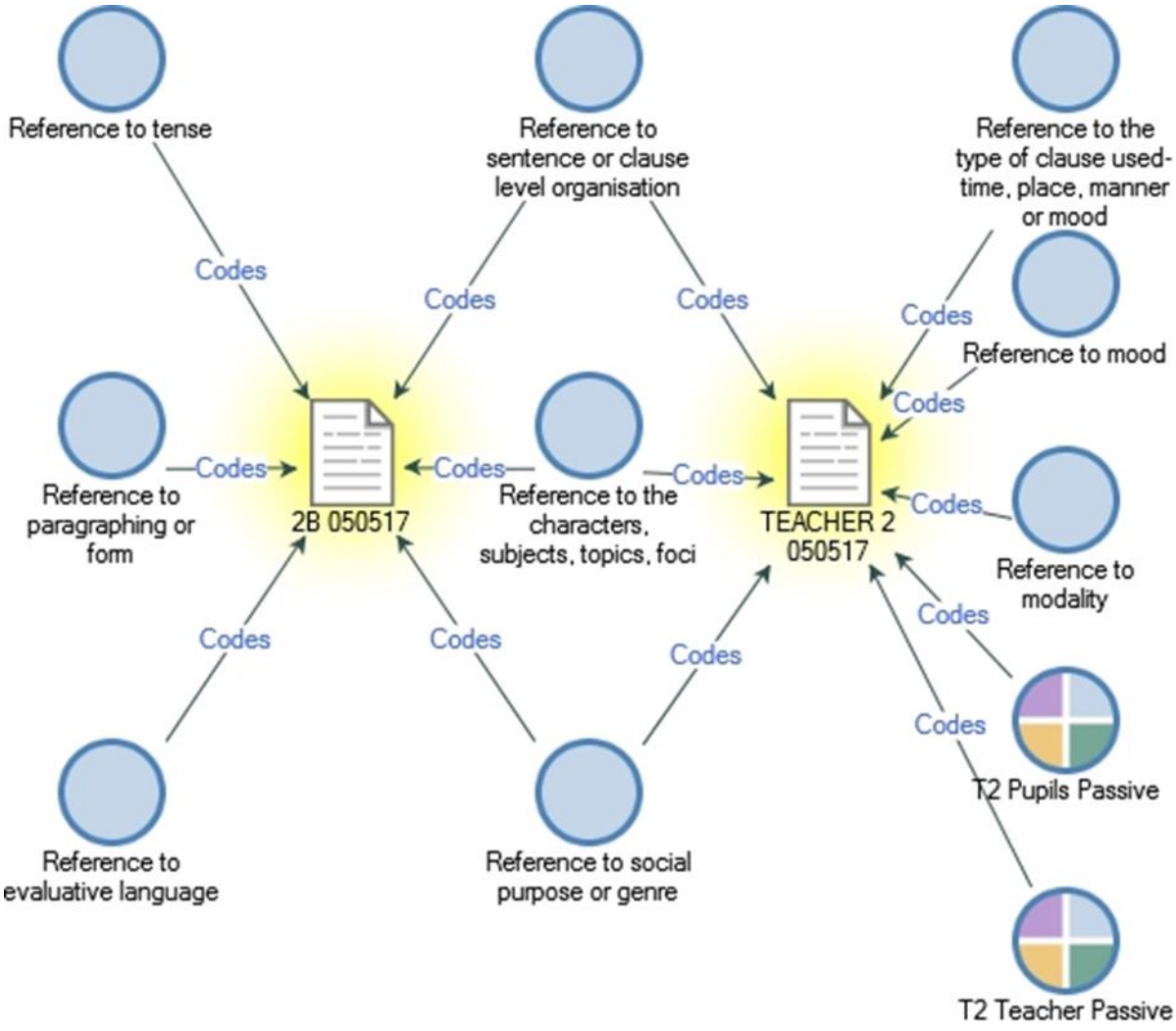

Figure 6-21: Participant 2B's links to passive intervention lesson

Figure 6-21 shows three areas of commonality between the references made by 2B in her think aloud and the content of the passive intervention lesson. These common references are interesting as they are more focused on the manipulation or angle of representation which is,

overall, the ideational metafunction. This was the focus of the Functional Linguistics teaching strategies which were used and therefore this shows that these aspects of the lesson influenced the way that the participant considered how to construct her text. The shared reference to sentence or clause level organisation is particularly useful in allowing the study to make the assertion that the participant engaged with the content which focused on the passive voice.

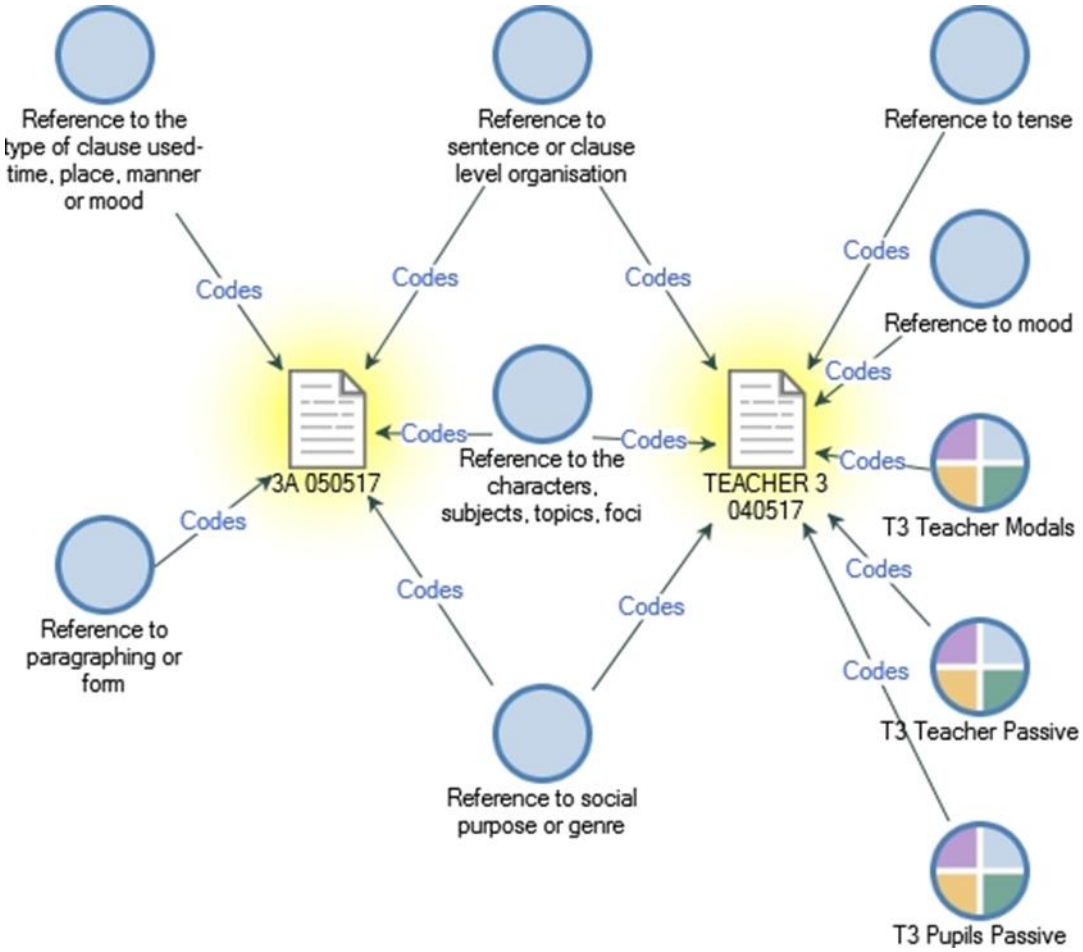

Figure 6-22: Participant 3A's links to passive intervention lesson

Figure 6-22 shows three main areas of commonality between the references made by 3A in her think aloud and the content of the passive intervention lesson. These common references focus the ideational metafunction and the genre of a text with emphasis on the ideational. This was the main focus of the Cognitive Linguistics teaching strategies which were used and therefore this shows that these aspects of the lesson influenced the way that the participant considered how to construct her text. What is interesting here is that the participant made

reference to the type of clause used which was not referenced in the intervention lesson. Although this would appear to be counter to the suggestion that the intervention lesson helped the participant to understand how to use the passive voice to construct text, it is in keeping with this ascertain as this aspect of text is part of its genre not its ideational metafunction. In this way, the participant still referred to aspects of the text which were in line with the main purposes of the intervention lesson.

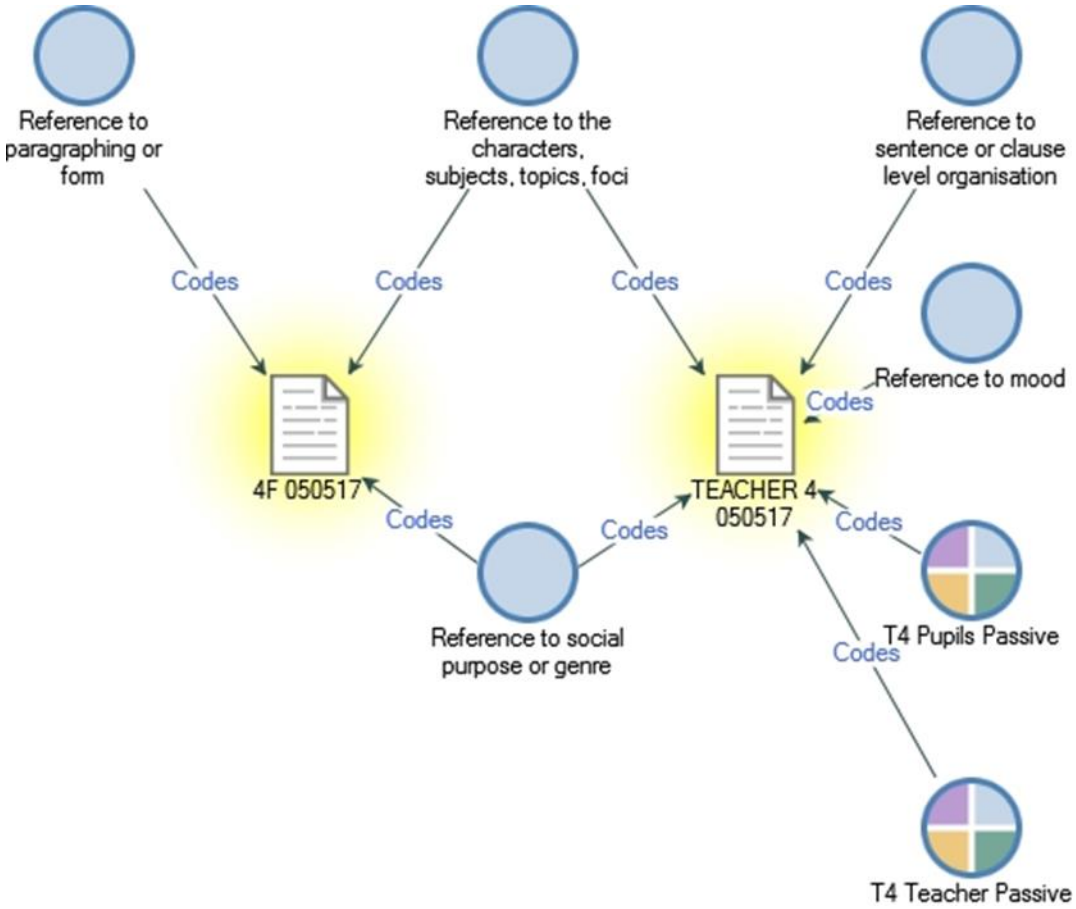

Figure 6-23: Participant 4F's links to passive intervention lesson

Figure 6-23 shows that there were two aspects of the text which were referenced by 4F which were also referenced in the passive intervention lesson. One of the shared references is the ideational metafunction of texts and the other is the genre of texts which may demonstrate that the participant did not necessarily engage with the intended area of focus with any comparative depth. Here, it is also useful to note that 4F did not refer to sentence or clause level organisation and, therefore, did also not refer to the focus of the intervention lesson: the

passive voice or its impact on the reader. However, the fact that the participant has two common links to the referenced lesson material shows that there is a relationship between the two and that the intervention lesson may have had an influence on the participant.

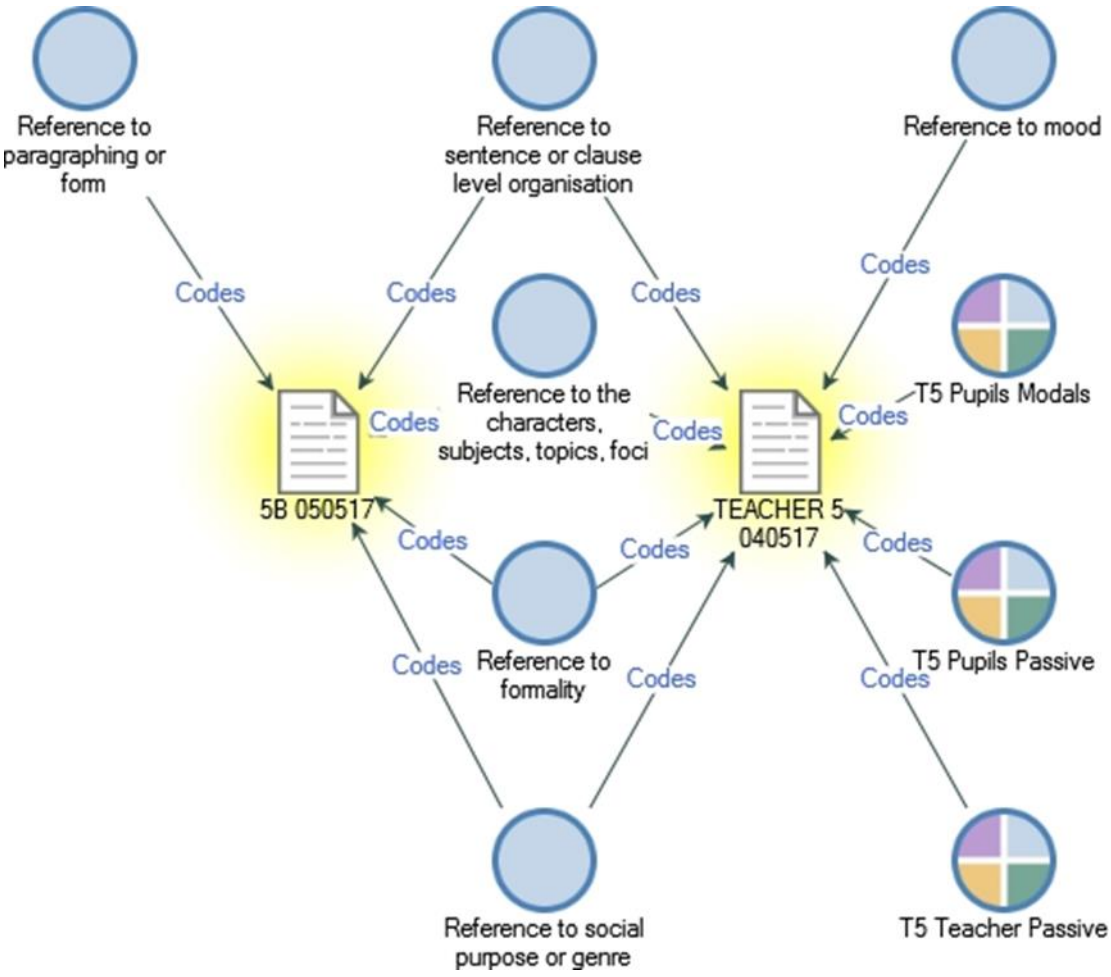

Figure 6-24: Participant 5B's links to passive intervention lesson

Figure 6-24 four areas of commonality between the references made by 5B in her think aloud and the content of the passive intervention lesson. These four common areas of reference cover all aspects of the text: ideational metafunction, interpersonal metafunction and genre. There is, however, more emphasis placed on the ideational as both reference to clause or sentence level organisation and reference to characters, subjects, topics and foci are part of the ideational metafunction of the text; therefore, this aspect makes up 50% of the common references to text which are shared by the participant and the intervention lesson. It can be

clearly seen that 5B engaged in a variety of aspects of the intervention lesson including the intended focus of the passive voice (contained within the references to sentence or clause level organisation).

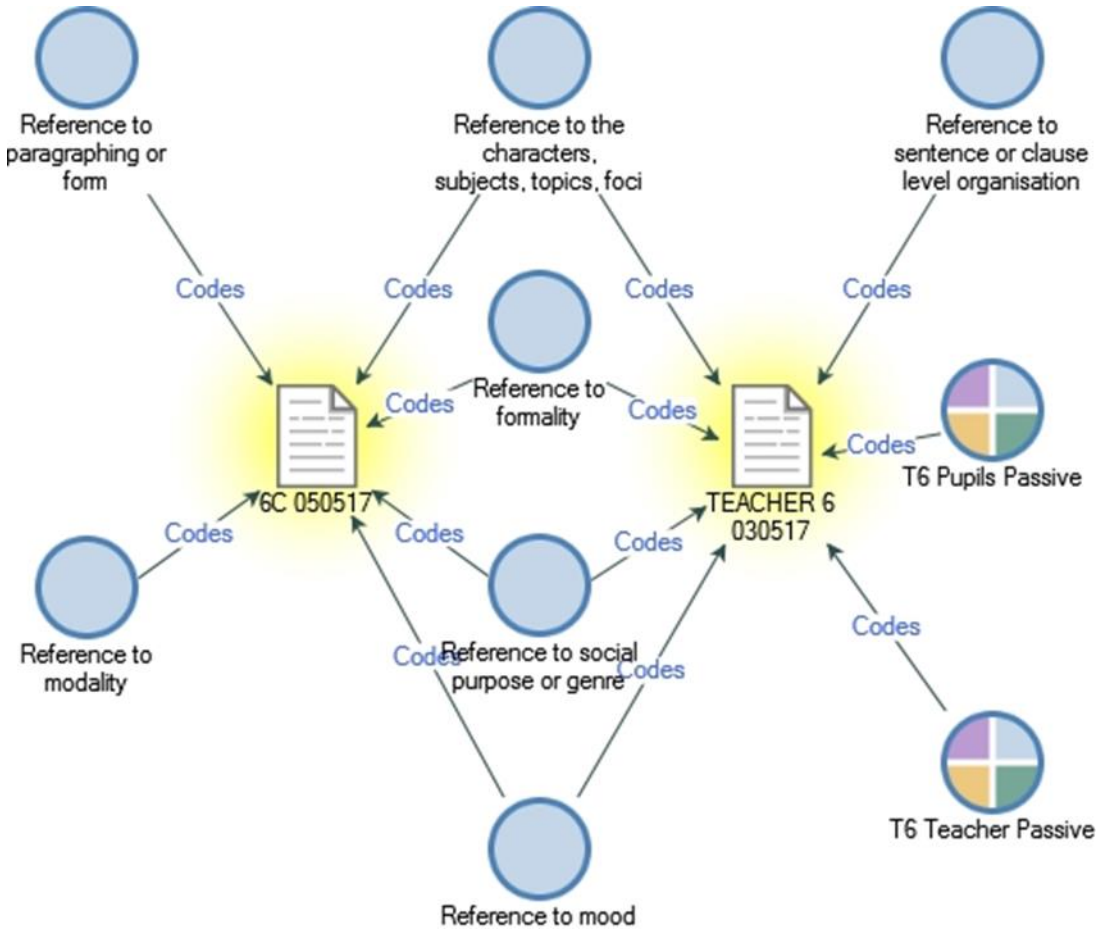

Figure 6-25: Participant 6C links to passive intervention lesson

Figure 6-25 four areas of commonality between the references made by 5B in her think aloud and the content of the passive intervention lesson. What is interesting is that Figure 6-25 shows 6C to reference predominantly the interpersonal metafunction aspects of her text which link to the intervention lesson. There is one element which links to ideational metafunction, and therefore the focus of the intervention in the referencing to characters, subjects, topics and foci. Also worth note is the fact that the intervention lesson did contain references to sentence or clause level organisation, which is the aspect which includes the passive voice, but the participant does not reference this. However, the intervention lesson

did influence the participant in several ways even if this is predominantly focused on the interpersonal metafunction.

6.4.1.4 Cross-class analysis

A cross- class analysis would indicate that participants were able to engage with the content of the intervention lesson as all of them discussed the text by focusing on aspects which were also discussed in the modal intervention lesson. There was no think aloud participant who did not discuss at least one of the aspects of the text which were discussed in the intervention lesson. Therefore, it can be surmised that the content of the lesson, and therefore the Functional Linguistics strategies used, were effective as they can be linked to the ways in which the participants were discussing their writing and the construction of their own texts post-intervention lesson. The links between the participants' discussions and the content of the intervention lessons are predominantly focused on the ideational metafunction of the texts, which is the area of which the passive voice is associated; although the passive construction may not have been an explicit discussion for all participants, their focus on the ideational metafunction shows that the content of the intervention lessons was successful in placing emphasis on this aspect of written text.

6.5. Summary

The ways in which the teachers across the groups taught the intervention lessons indicates that all the lessons focused primarily on the interpersonal metafunction for the modal intervention lesson and the ideational metafunction for the passive intervention lesson. These were appropriate foci given the intervention lesson's different uses of Functional Linguistics strategies and there was a clear relationship shown between the discussions being held in the classroom and the outlined teaching strategy. As each intervention lesson was taught in a similar way and showed some accordance with the teaching strategies outlined in the given lesson plans, this diminishes the variable of different teachers' styles giving a clearer causation for pupils' responses to the intervention lessons.

Considering this in more detail showed that teachers across all six teaching groups provided a similar experience for pupils in all the intervention lessons that were delivered. Each class, however, did not respond to the lesson content in the same manner which is in accordance with the ontological beliefs of the study that pupils are individuals who experience, and interpret reality in their own ways (Gage, 2008). Pupils tended, in fact, to respond to the material within the lesson rather than the style of delivery or the teacher's use of language

potentially strengthening the connection between the use of Cognitive Linguistics strategies and the pupils' responses.

Pupils' responses to the intervention lesson content showed that there was an exploration of interpersonal metafunction in response to the modal intervention lesson and an exploration of ideational metafunction in response to the passive intervention lesson. There was, however, more use of the terminology which was introduced for the first time in the passive lesson which detracted from the amount of time available in the lessons for the exploration of the meaning of the passive construction. This may indicate that the lesson plan resourced for the passive intervention lesson requires more focus on the meaning of the grammatical concept rather than the use of new terms. However, overall, there was no indication that the use of this type of terminology had any detrimental effect on the quality of the discussion of the meaning of the passive voice when this was able to take place in the intervention lesson.

The intervention lessons and the ways in which the pupils discussed their writing post-intervention were certainly linked. Although within the lessons themselves, the teacher and pupil utterances showed, in some cases, to be dissimilar they were dissimilar in the sense that pupil utterances seemed to develop the discussion further and explore meaning in a creative way. The passive intervention lesson did show a correlation between the teachers' utterance and the pupils' utterances, but this could be caused primarily through the participants repeating new terminology rather than developing the discussion any further. There were trends in the think aloud participants' utterances which showed a great deal of commonality with the discussion held in the intervention lesson with the predominant focus being the interpersonal metafunction for the modal intervention lesson and the ideational metafuncion for the passive intervention lesson. These trends are discussed in more detail in Chapter 8 and related back to the research literature.

CHAPTER 7. THE IMPACT OF FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS TEACHING STRATEGIES

This chapter presents the findings of individual participants as narratives designed to explain and describe the relationship between the intervention lessons and the ways in which participants understand the writing tasks they have completed. Each class is presented separately with two participants from each discussed as a chronological narrative, and a cross-participant analysis follows.

7.1. Class 1

7.1.1. Background and Constraints

This class was taught by two English teachers. One of the English teachers taught three out of the five thirty-five-minute lessons (constructed of 1 double lesson and 1 single lesson) of English and the other taught two out of the five thirty-five-minute lessons (consisting of 1 double lesson). The study ensured that the intervention lessons were delivered by the same teacher; this teacher was the one who took only the double lesson per week with this class. The teacher who delivered the intervention lessons had a background in English Literature with no known formal English Language study. Intervention lessons were bounded by the fact that this teacher could not refer to the previously taught contents; therefore, removing the likelihood, and possibility, of detailed consolidation and reiteration. As such, the class' learning using the strategies outlined was truly bounded by the timing of the lessons: seventy-five minutes for the modal verb intervention lesson and seventy-five minutes for the passive voice intervention lesson. The intervention lessons were taught as specified by the lesson plan distributed by the researcher in timings and activities using the resources provided.

In the instance of this class, the first intervention lesson was impacted by the process of pupil immunisations which took place throughout the first double intervention lesson. This meant that not all pupils were present for the intervention lesson in its entirety, although the majority were present in the room for the section of the intervention lesson which is directly connected to Functional Linguistics. The researcher had no control over this and, as such, the intervention lesson replicated the real-life learning experience of the pupils. The class had fifteen pupils, one of which withdrew at the parental consent stage leaving fourteen participants. Out of the fourteen participants, three also undertook the 'think aloud' element of the study.

7.1.2. Participant 1G

7.1.2.1. Background

Participant 1G was also a 'think aloud' participant. She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, weaker than those in the rest of the class; this weakness was exemplified in her writing through a lack of accuracy in spelling and punctuation. This participant was taught by the researcher before in her previous year of schooling.

7.1.2.2. Data

Eight pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples in order to analyse the writing of this participant. Three data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O), the *Think Aloud Recording Transcripts* (T) and the *Sample written work* (W). For the case of this participant, who was also a 'think aloud' participant, her 'think aloud' transcripts were used to add depth to her narrative. Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. It happened that she was absent for the first 'think aloud' recording due to unforeseen circumstances so an initial 'think aloud' transcript has not been included in the narrative.

7.1.2.3. Narrative

Participant 1G completed the first writing [Appendix 28] within the thirty minutes allocated time during the lesson. The overall purpose of her writing tended towards the informative or descriptive with a use of a combination of subordinating and coordinating clauses and some use of past tense to describe a previous experience. The piece was predominantly written in first person to show a personal experience with second person used only in the final paragraph for direct referencing. Although the piece used a clear letter-format in that it provided a salutation the final paragraph can be described as list-like in structure with suggestions as to how the school can be changed or altered. There is a declarative mood throughout although a repeated use of 'you should' makes the tone of the final section of the letter closer to imperative or commanding; this is also demonstrated through a repeated use of 'should' as a modal which reads as forceful and commanding.

Participant 1G was present for the first intervention lesson [Appendix 26], which focused upon modal verbs and their force. She not only participated in the freezeframes but also answered a question on the nature of the word 'ought': 'what does ought imply (/) (1.0) you ought to do something (/) 1G (/) [line 131] to which her reply was 'like you can do it but it's like (.) almost like right to do it you should do it but you but if you don't want to you don't have to but it's

kind of like….' [line 132]. This shows that she directly engaged with the meaning of the modal verbs presented as she begins to define the nature of the command. Her writing sample completed in the lesson [Appendix 30] does not use any modal verbs; however, the instructions given to complete the task did not explicitly request the use of modal verbs instead requesting that 'you need to think about plot and what you know about those characters so far (.) but the main thing I want you to think about is the relationship between (.) these two characters…' [line 450-451 [Appendix 26]. Therefore, the participant's response to the task instructions was entirely appropriate. The participant made clear the relationship between the two characters of Romeo and Benvolio through using contractions: 'you're' which would suggest a more informal, closer relationship and the advisory tone of the letter: 'First of all, I think you're in love with the idea of being in love…' when writing on a topic as personal as someone's love interest. Inclusive use of the pronoun 'we' would also indicate that the text producer and the text receiver are on close terms.

Following the first intervention lesson, Participant 1G completed the second writing task whilst also 'thinking aloud'. It can be seen from the transcript [Appendix 29] that the participant's think aloud monologue was centred around understanding the character of Paris: 'how is Paris arrogant (/) urm (.) hmmm I guess we talked about it in class…' [line 40] alongside surface details of her writing: 'comma comma there…' [line 131]. This is reflected in her writing which focuses upon Paris, marriage and the benefits of marriage with the overall intention of the piece summarised within the think aloud: 'yeah she basically describes Romeo at the end'. There is a wide range of modals used within the piece: must, would, might, could, may, can with the overall tone being one of demand: 'I should marry somebody…'. There is one use of inclusive 'us' but the term of address 'Lady Capulet' indicates a distance between the text producer and the text receiver.

During the second intervention lesson focused on the passive voice [Appendix 27], 1G did not respond to any questioning. She was, however, involved by necessity in the freeze framing of the sentences so she had direct contact with the given material. She also read out the given real-life example text and so was exposed to the idea of the passive voice within texts. The instructions given before completing the in-class writing task was to 'urm actually I'm going to change my mind there sorry I'm going to give you the choice (.) you may either (.) write as a detached and neutral newspaper who is which is aligned with either the capulets or the montagues (.) if you would like to do so (.) either way I want you to be very deliberate (.) in how you use your language'. In this case, as in the previous intervention lesson, there was no explicit instruction that the class had to use the passive construction here; instead, they were

to focus on syntax and sentence construction and how that impacts the meaning of their writing. In her in-class writing (a newspaper report on an event in the play of Romeo and Juliet) 1G demonstrated in her writing that she had considered the construction of her sentences to place blame on the character of Tybalt: 'without any warning the Capulets slaughtered our brave Mercutio [Appendix 30]. In this way, she showed that she had focused on her writing at sentence level.

In the second post-intervention writing task [Appendix 31], 1G focused mainly on structure in her 'think aloud' with outlining how many paragraphs and what was to be included in each. She showed an awareness of formality: 'oh yeah I'm not supposed to use abbreviations'. There is also a clear indication that she is controlling her language to present the characters within her text in a certain way: 'well I don't think I should include the fists and rage bit cos we're trying to make Selkirk sound like a hero and make him sound vulnerable (.) so may be be miss that out and say'. There is also a sense within the writing that 'blame' is placed explicitly: 'other people are to blame' without engaging with word choices or syntactical choices to alter the meaning of the text.

The final piece of writing [Appendix 32] which was part of the end-of-year examination was completed by the participant in forty-five minutes. The writing task was intended as an end of unit assessment and, as such, should have taken place after a period of revision; as such, there were no explicit instructions as to what to include or how to control language or writing. 1G used first person throughout to show an opinion and focused on the topic of vertical grouping. There was no use of direct referencing but one inclusive 'us' was used to speak to the text receiver. Declarative mood was used throughout to give information: 'The main problem is that the students feel uncomfortable learning…'. The piece did show a use of modals: …our school should introduce vertical grouping…', 'This will introduce a wide range of problems…'; in context the use of these confused the general opinion of the article rather than establishing a clear level of force. The general sense of the piece was that it was informative or descriptive and intended to outline the scheme being brought into the school.

7.1.2.4. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 1G demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-1 below:

Table 7-1: Participant 1G's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language	Use of could, may, might and can moderate exercise of power Second person 'you' used	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text	Use of 'us'
Ideational Metafunction	Focus of the children Evaluative language used to describe	Focus on the character of Paris and evaluation of his looks	Use of an interview with one of the characters of the text	Use of an interview with one of the characters of the text and reference to another person's opinion
Genre	Structured with salutation and paragraphs centred around key ideas	Declarative mood to give information Letter has salutation	Declarative mood to give information The structure of the report is outlined and what is included in each section Use of the past tense to show reported event	Declarative mood to give information Clear structure to provide and outline of the scheme

Table 7-1 shows that participant 1G could control her language and structure to respond to the writing task given as her use of language and sentence structure changes across the writing tasks she completes to fulfil purpose. This is shown through her understanding of interpersonal metafunction and the choices she made in each different instance of the text. By adapting her use of pronouns and direct references she has shown that she had an awareness of the relationship between the text producer and the text receiver when completing the writing tasks as the use of these adheres to the relationship between the text producer and the text receiver. There is also some sense of an understanding of ideational metafunction because she used interviews within the newspaper report and magazine article which were not present within previous writing tasks both of which were letters. It is interesting to observe that post-intervention on modals, the participant used modals with more authority within her writing to exercise authority and power. However, there was a lack of distinction between the genre of the writing tasks: the participant competed all her writing tasks in the declarative tone with no use of interrogative or rhetorical questions to imply persuasion or to ensure that the purpose of the text was fulfilled.

7.1.3. Participant 1K Narrative

7.1.3.1. Background

Participant 1K was also a 'think aloud' participant who was present for all intervention lessons. She was taught by the researcher in her previous year of schooling. This participant was included as an average or middle-range participant comparative to her class.

7.1.3.2. Data

Eight pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples in order to analyse the writing of this participant. Three data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O), the *Think Aloud Recording Transcripts* (T) and the *Sample written work* (W). For the case of this participant, who was also a 'think aloud' participant, her 'think aloud' transcripts were used to add depth to her narrative. Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. Participant 1K completed all writing tasks within the set time. She was not absent due to illness for the second thinking aloud recording and so her recording is not included within the narrative, but she completed the writing itself for her prep task; this was handed in by the teacher and so her writing sample for the task is included in the narrative below.

7.1.3.3. Narrative

Participant 1K completed the first writing task [Appendix 33] within the thirty-minute time frame set for the task within the lesson. The structure of the letter written for the task was eight paragraphs which were centred around describing different areas of the school of which the text receiver had experience. The 'think aloud' transcript [Appendix 34] shows that the participant did consider the structure of the letter: 'there are three main paragraphs we are focusing on…' [line 2] despite producing eight. The purpose of the letter tended towards the informative or reflective as shown both by using first personal pronoun 'I' throughout and the paragraphing which suggested a personal experience and the structure previously mentioned; adverbial clauses also added to this tone: 'Within my first year of teaching, my pupils' results…'. There is one use of direct referencing and a sense of formality through the terms of address: 'To whom it may concern' and the formality of the language with no use of contractions or ellipsis; however, the exclamatory '…there is a reason my room is plastered with copies of their work!' makes the tone confused. The reference to 'with a presence of a new headmaster' without using a more inclusive possessive pronoun suggests that there is ambiguity concerning the social distance of the text receiver; this was also shown in the 'think aloud' transcript when the participant states 'it's quite hard to think about how to address (.) the letter cos you have t to think about the right title...'. She also shows some confusion concerning the purpose of the letter: 'well we're not writing a persuasive letter oh I guess we are trying to persuade change within the school' [line 43] the realisation of genre comes too late to impact the style of her writing. Generally, the declarative is used to transfer information with a use of modals such as 'must' and 'would' lending a more forceful tone to the letter.

1K was present for the first intervention lesson on modals. Her participation in class consisted of the following section of the transcript which discusses the given real-life source text (a post card from the Salvation Army):

> T1: yeah that that co-that statement in itself please help us to <u>prove</u> that people really do care show your worth as a human (.) demonstrate that you have some soul somewhere in there (.) urm I know what you mean there is there is you know there's quite a moral actually there's a real sense of moral urgency in that isn't there (/) 1K
>
> 1K: is definitely like asking you for something (.) so that's why it's using like please and stuff (.) but it's also like really accommodating for the person reading it so it's like if you don't want to like put your name on the card you know rest assured and stuff (.)

which makes you like (.) more (.) susceptible to like to what they're saying like oh they're trying to help me as well yeah

T1: good so we're kind of naturally evolving into this third question here about the relationship between the text and the audience (.)

[lines 264-269 Appendix 26]

This exchange suggests that 1K can identify the genre of persuasion through the language used in an example text; she is also very aware of how a text can make the text receiver feel as demonstrated by the teacher. The focus here is upon the relationship between the text producer and the text receiver. She was also asked to read out her letter which was completed in class; the instructions for this task did not explicitly state that the pupils had to use modal verbs but that they did have to consider the relationship between the text produced and the text receiver as indicted, also, by the request for the rest of the class to consider the language and how this demonstrates the relationship between the two people.

1K: I'm not sure about how well it's done

T1: no no no no don't worry don't fuss about that (.) so (.) 1K

1K: ok

T1: everyone else listening we want to see if we can work out whose talking to who by the tone by the nature of the language (.) ok

1K: urm I pray that this letter reach you well and you may be in a mind willing to discuss the brawl of this morn (.) and if we two men of fine households cannot settle a dispute urm (.) spawned of airy words then what hope for the rest (/) you must know that my intention was not to hurt thee but simply to part the brawl however when you took the first swing it was of course in my best interest to return your blows (.) if it pleases you to know I too was ordered to the office of the prince and her left no doubt that he firmly endorses a reconciliation between us two

[lines 601-610 Appendix 26]

The class guessed correctly which character 1K was writing as and to whom she was writing; it can, therefore, be suggested that her use of modals and tone was successful in establishing a clear relationship between the text producer and the text receiver.

Following the first intervention lesson, the second writing task [Appendix 36] was persuasive in tone alongside providing information for the text receiver. The use of 'dearest mother'

repeated throughout the text, 'you', 'your' and 'mother' showed a clear understanding of a close relationship between the text producer and text receiver as well as a clearly directed message. The use of modals supports this understanding with 'you would not wish your daughter to be a woman of such little character, I am sure…' demonstrating a highly persuasive tone through attempting to make the text receiver feel a certain way: 'I implore you…' and 'I beg you…' are also used to place emphasis on the urgency and depth of feeling of the text producer. There is also control shown through the application of modals to alter the tone of the sentence: 'I daresay you believe Paris to be a suitable man to wed and believe he could make me happy. For someone I am certain he would be a great husband…'. There are also two interrogatives used as well as declaratives which would indicate that the text producer is closing the distance between herself and the text receiver. There is an indication of an overly complex structure with five paragraphs used but these are focused on certain ideas with the introductory paragraph explaining why the text producer is writing.

In the second intervention lesson, Participant 1K was silent. The outline of the lesson meant that she must have been involved with the freezeframing of the sentences containing the passive voice as well as completing the writing task within the lesson. Her writing sample completed within the lesson demonstrated that she can control her language and syntax to introduce bias into a text as per the instructions given to the class for this piece of work. Her use of evaluative references: '…the murderous fiend…' and '…of courageous Romeo…' clearly show the text producer's construction of bias through positively and negatively associated adjectives. The writing also avoids attaching blame to the authority figure, which is requested by the instructions, the Prince of Verona, by using the passive: 'Romeo Montague has been exiled on pain of death…'. The participant was able to identify that she had introduced bias but was unable to identify the passive construction accurately. The general tone of the newspaper article is informative with subtle bias throughout.

Following the second intervention lesson, participant 1K competed the writing task for a prep task alongside 'thinking aloud' [Appendix 37]. Her writing used various interviews and quotes from characters from the given text and she was able to ascertain in her thinking aloud that the task required establishing a subtle bias and she states that she is attempting this: 'I feel like I am leaning the bias towards them' [line 18]. Her think aloud recording has many lengthy pauses from this point onwards giving little insight into her choices and decisions following her initial thoughts. Her writing sample shows that she understands that the tone of a newspaper article should be informative through her use of direct quotation from a range of characters and her chronological ordering of events.

For the final writing task [Appendix 38], the participant seems to have understood the question itself differently to that which was intended and, rather than writing as a student within the school, writes as the headmistress of the school to the parents of the students; therefore, she constructs a relationship between the text producer and text receivers which is complex. She establishes a clear tone of authority through her repeated use of the modal 'will': 'students of varying ages will be taught by a single…' lending a tone of certainty rather than evaluation. This gives the writing a genre of informative and descriptive rather than persuasive; although the participant did not interpret the question in the usual way her relationship between text producer and text receiver is clearly and consistently constructed throughout showing a control of her language. This is shown through her use of formal language showing a social distance between the text producer and text receiver and her use of more forceful modals to construct a power discrepancy between the two.

7.1.3.4. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 1K demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-2 below; however, it should be noted that the original analysis of the writing task provided was based on the assumption that the text producer would be writing as a student within the same school as the text receivers. In this table, the context of the participant's writing is taken into consideration for writing task 4 and evidence has been gathered which correlates participant 1K's reading of the question so that her writing is evaluated against her unique reading which was based on a natural ambiguity within the question.

Table 7-2: Participant 1K's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language Can and may used to influence	Use of could and may moderate exercise of power Second person 'you' and 'your' used	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text	Use of first person to introduce authority and personal experience. Use of will provides certainly about the future and any proceeding events Use of 'your' to reference parents
Ideational Metafunction	Focus of the children Evaluative language used to describe	Focus on the character of Paris and evaluation of his looks	Use of an interview with one of the characters of the text	Use of the passive to alleviate blame
Genre	Structured with salutation	Declarative mood to give information Use of interrogatives Letter has salutation	Declarative mood to give information The structure of the report is outlined and what is included in each section	Declarative mood to give information Clear structure to provide and outline of the scheme

Table 7-2 shows that 1K has controlled her use of language according to the type of task she is responding to: when writing a persuasive letter, she initially demonstrated that she was uncertain about the genre of her writing with a more declarative tone used throughout. Following the initial intervention lesson, she was able to construct a more persuasive piece of

writing by playing with the options and choices given to her. Although read differently to other participants, her writing in response to task 4 showed that she can adapt her language to construct a clear relationship between text producer and text receiver partly through use of constructions discussed in the second intervention lesson. Her understanding of how to construct the genre of her writing seems to be improved across the writing tasks as she understands that persuasive writing can include interrogatives to strengthen the clarity of the persuasive genre.

7.1.4. Cross-participant analysis Class 1

The main assertion which can be made from the analysis conducted above is that both participant's use of language changed between writing tasks. Language and syntax were adapted and altered according to the participant's perception of the writing tasks they were completing which shows some control over the language choices the participants were making. It can be suggested that the strategies used in the lesson provided a different way of discussing text and writing and so provided participants with choices regarding their language.

It is clear that the way in which the activity was instructed to be completed had an impact on the way participants in this class used both the modals and the passive; the expectation that the pupil was to use modal verbs was very implicit in the instruction given and leaves the understanding to the student as to how the lesson links together. Both participants showed a good awareness of interpersonal metafunction which may be related to the focus on this area within the lesson. The structure of the writing tasks was common across participants; it is unclear whether this is due to previous explicit instruction over the structure of letters and newspaper reports or whether the participants have done this through an innate sense of understanding of why each text is structured in the way they have attempted.

7.2. Class 2

7.2.1. Background and Constraints

This class was taught by a single teacher whose background was English Literature. The lessons were then delivered as part of a whole cogent course which followed the scheme of work for the term [Appendix 1] and the teacher had the ability to refer to the intervention lessons in detail as consolidation. The intervention lessons were taught as specified by the lesson plan distributed by the researcher in timings and activities using the resources provided. This class followed the timings exactly: seventy-five minutes for the modal intervention lesson and thirty-five minutes for the passive intervention lesson. Apart from the statistically expected absences due to illness and other extraneous factors, the lessons ran as planned with no

interruption from immunisations. The modal intervention lesson, however, did occur on World Book Day which meant that the class were wearing costumes of a literary bent therefore giving the classroom a celebratory tone and the transcript some diverging dialogue centred on the costumes of the teacher and class.

7.2.2. Participant 2A

7.2.2.1. Background

Participant 2A was also a 'think aloud' participant. She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, stronger than those in the rest of the class. This participant had never been taught by the researcher.

7.2.2.2. Data

Eight pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples to analyse the writing of this participant. Three data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O), the *Think Aloud Recording Transcripts* (T) and the *Sample written work* (W). For the case of this participant, who was also a 'think aloud' participant, her 'think aloud' transcripts were used to add depth to her narrative. Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. It happened that she was absent for the first 'think aloud' recording due to unforeseen circumstances so an initial 'think aloud' transcript has not been included in the narrative although her writing has been included as it was completed later. This participant was also not present for the final end-of-year examination, so this piece of writing is also not included within the narrative.

7.2.2.3. Narrative

Participant 2A completed the initial writing task [Appendix 41] within the thirty minutes assigned. She shows a clear structure in her letter which opens with an explanation as to why she is writing: 'I am writing to express my concerns about the state of the school…'. The second paragraph is list-like in structure with a declarative tone as the state of the school is described. The letter then tends towards the informative or descriptive given the use of the declarative tone throughout and the lack of direct referencing. The use of modals 'could' and 'should' make the ending of the letter more forceful, therefore, showing some lack of understanding of interpersonal metafunction although the letter is written in formal language and is addressed formally to 'Sir'. The participant writes the letter to the head of the governing council rather than the whole; therefore, the effect of the lack of direct referencing is enhanced.

The participant was silent for the majority of the intervention lesson focusing on modal verbs [Appendix 39] but she does ask one question showing evidence of her presence in the room. She, therefore, must have participated in the freezeframes and been present for the discussion of the meaning of modal verbs. The writing task she completed in the lesson showed that she understood modal verbs and how to use them to construct a clear relationship between text producer and text receiver.

Participant 2A's letter post-intervention lesson [Appendix 42] is predominantly descriptive and explanatory in genre. There are instances of persuasion such as the use of direct referencing 'mother' which is repeated throughout; however, the use of first person without any second person direct referencing presents the information within the letter as reflective and personal rather than focused on the text receiver; this is emphasised through the use of past tense when describing how the narrative voice met Paris. There is use of modal verbs 'will', 'would' and 'should' used within the context of explaining how the text receiver feels rather than commanding the text receiver: 'I would like to take it slowly and marry the man I truly love…'. The tone is also tempered with 'please' suggesting that the text producer understands that the text receiver is in authority. The tone is mainly declarative with no use of interrogatives or imperatives.

Participant 2A was present in the second intervention lesson on the passive voice and interacted with the teacher in the following way when discussing the resource material:

> T2: how does the extract manage to avoid blame (/) so it does avoid blame but how (.) does it manage to avoid blame so let's have a little think about that (.) to go through urm 2A
>
> 2A: oh so urm the last sentence like peaceful protest (.) then violence broke out it didn't say which
>
> T2: good so we can think about the previous examples at the beginning violence broke out (.) there is no (.) commitment there (.) in telling us who perpetrated the violence excellent so what is or is not mentioned (/)
>
> 2A: like (.) the reasoning of who was shot
>
> T2: [good

2A: and it doesn't have any like (.) it doesn't say like was shot (.) for no reason or something that doesn't relate to

[lines 276-285 Appendix 40]

The discussion is focused on sentence level construction and meaning of the passive. Participant 2A then uses the passive within the short writing task [Appendix 43] completed in the lesson: '2 men were shot'. Her observations led to a correct construction of the passive and she biases the piece by leaving out who shot the two men and why they might have been shot. She manipulates her text receiver carefully through her control over the syntax of her writing.

The writing task completed after the intervention lesson on the passive [Appendix 45] shows that 2A has some ability to alter and adapt the structure of her sentences to fulfil the genre of her piece. Multiple clauses which leave the explanation to the final part of the sentence: 'What led to Stradling's strong opinions about one of his crew members, Selkirk, was Selkirk's telling his fellow crew-mates to go against their captain, Stradling.' Leaves out key information in order to temper the blame attached to Selkirk and bias her writing. The passive is used: 'Selkirk was found stranded…' again to temper the blame attached to Stradling which would suggest that a non-biased report is being constructed. The use of the third person to refer to characters and the use of the past tense shows that the genre of the piece is to report.

7.2.2.4. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 2A demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-3 below.

Table 7-3: Participant 2A's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language Use of 'could' is tentative and moderates power	Formal term of address and formal language	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text	
Ideational Metafunction	Focus of the children Evaluative language used to describe	Focus on the character of Paris	Use of an interview with one of the characters of the text Use of a statement by the main character	
Genre	Structured with salutation Declarative mood	Declarative mood to give information Letter has salutation	Declarative mood to give information Past tense shows a report Use of the passive to avoid blame	

Although the final writing task was not submitted to the study, it can be seen in Table 7-3 through the writing tasks which follow the intervention lessons that 2A is highly responsive to the language options that have been provided in the lessons: writing tasks show control of syntax and an understanding of genre- particularly for writing task three, aspects of the texts are changed and adapted according to the perceived genre and the participant clearly attempts to change her language and structure to fulfil the genre of the text she is writing. The understanding of the area of genre seems to have increased as the participant demonstrates increasingly in her writing that she knows how to fulfil genre.

7.2.3. Participant 2L

7.2.3.1. Background

Participant 2L was not a 'think aloud' participant and had not been taught by the researcher previously. This pupil was considered EAL at the time of the study as English was not her first language and was not the language that she spoke at home. She was considered a high range participant in comparison to her class.

7.2.3.2. Data

Six pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples to analyse the writing of this participant. Three data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O) and the *Sample written work* (W). Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. She was present to complete all elements of the study and was present for both intervention lessons.

7.2.3.3. Narrative

Participant 2L completed the first writing task [Appendix 46] in the given time of thirty minutes. The tone of her writing overall suggests a descriptive or explanatory genre due to the predominance of sentences in the declarative tone. Her term of address is limited to the salutation only: 'To the chairman of Governors' which also assumes that she is writing to an individual rather than a body of people as suggested by the question. Her sentences are mainly complex with subordinating, and in most cases parenthetic, clauses to provide additional information: 'There is a rudeness, and inappropriate behaviour in other lessons, and the teaching staff aren't taking responsibility over the situation.'. The use of first person and past tense throughout denotes a report or description of prior events. There is some sense of explanation in why the text producer is writing: 'I am a teacher at North End Secondary School, I have some concerns addressing the ethos and community of the school.' but, due to a lack of direct referencing or interrogatives, the persuasive element is lacking.

In the intervention lesson focusing on modal verbs, participant 2L is mentioned on one occasion and then participates in the discussion on a further two occasions. Firstly, 2L is mentioned when the class is discussing the freezeframe of 'you may open the door' presented by 2L's group:

> T2: [good (.) absolutely (.) the overall gesture was one of openness (.) and (.) there's a lack of (.) antagonism isn't there (/) it's (.) I want you I would like you to do this (.) er very good and indeed what about 2L's facial expression (.) obviously in costume so er ha slightly restricted (.) did we notice anything about 2L (/)
>
> P: she was quite like happy with it (.) she wasn't like f-under pressure
>
> P: [being forced
>
> T2: good she didn't look forced absolutely she did not look forced (.) very very true (.) so it seemed to be (.) yeah a mutually amicable kind of (.) arrangement (.) ok (.)
>
> [line 86-93 Appendix 39]

This shows that 2L, and her group, were carefully considering the meaning of 'you may open the door' which facilitates an exploration of the meaning of 'you may'.

And once when requested to repeat a comment she made on the meaning of the modal 'ought' when paired with 'please' during a class discussion exploring the force of modal verbs as outlined in the lesson plan:

> T2: so you ought to open the door please (.) would it have changed it (/)
>
> [general chatter]
>
> P: the way you urm (1.0) body language you would still be the same but the wording would have been different cos body language you're still kind of wanting them to open the door so you'd kind of have the same body language (.) then there would be less conviction
>
> [general chatter 0:05]
>
> T2: right girls this is very interesting one (.) and just listening in there you clearly have kind of got onto the main point (.) it does change the meaning doesn't it (/) 2L I just heard you say something interesting there you ought to open the door (.) please (.) what what's the effect of the please (/)

2L: it sounds more aggressive like

T2: yes keep going

2L: trying to urm it's like a more polite way of the last one

T2: but it's meaning is the same (/) (1.0) do you think (/) so you cos 2H said passive aggressive (.) for (.) you ought to open the door and you think that please (.) as in aggression (.) who agrees with 2L here (/) I think she's definitely (.) onto something yeah

[lines 131-145 Appendix 39]

In this discussion, 2L actively participates in exploring the full depth of meaning communicated when using the word 'ought'; she provides an alternative to the class' perception and introduced another dynamic to the discussion thus aiding the understanding of the class when using modals.

2L also participates when the class are discussing the Salvation Army postcard provided as an example of a real-life text:

T2: [yeah and well done for focusing in on that particular sentence there's a lot to say about this (.) please help <u>us</u> prove (.) that people really <u>do</u> care (.) by signing the card and returning it with your gift (.) what's going on in that sentence (/)

P: like

T2: just again literally (?) 2L

2L: urm

T2: obviously you said something

2L: urm they are being on a personal level

T2: on a personal level isn't it that that they seem to have to (.) somehow justify their own existence (/) please help <u>us</u> prove (.) that people really care (.) is it the salvation army's job exclusively (/) (.) to to prove that people care about the homeless (.)

[lines 417-428 Appendix 39]

Here, 2L discusses directly the impact of the inclusive plural pronoun 'we' which speaks to the text receiver 'on a personal level'; therefore, she demonstrates an understanding of the impact of using this word on the text receiver.

In the writing task [Appendix 47] completed in this lesson, 2L also shows that she can use modal verbs in a controlled fashion through using 'may', 'will', 'would' and 'shall' to show the authority of the text producer over the text receiver. The interpersonal metafunction is clearly constructed in her writing with certainty shown through the declarative tone.

The second writing task [Appendix 48] was completed in the allocated time of thirty minutes as a prep task. Participant 2L's writing shows a use of modals which establishes certainty: '…he would not be around me much so I would still feel as lonely as I already am…' in order to persuade the text receiver that the future of the marriage with Paris would be poor. The general tone used is declarative with no use of interrogatives so there lacks some direct and targeted attempt to engage with the text receiver's emotions. There is some use of direct referencing with the term of address 'mother' used as well as 'you' and the more inclusive 'we' and so there are undertones of persuasion. 2L does not, however, read the question very carefully as it requests that there is no mention of the character of Romeo and yet the main topic and character throughout is Romeo which would mean that the text would not be able to fulfil the ideational metafunction.

In the second intervention lesson, 2L is referred to twice when discussing the initial freezeframe of 'the man smashed the stone':

P: was 2L the man or the stone (/)

P: [the man smashed the window

T2: oh kay so

P: [2L were you the man or the stone (/)

T2: 2L did a clear fist gesture (.) oh kay (.) so (.) yes

P: the stone

T2: the fist

P: [yeah but the stone could have been round

T2: [would she have had a different hand gesture if she were carrying a stone (.) who thinks it's

P: [number two

T2: number two (2.0) who says number two (/)

P: [oh I thought it was the just the stone that was actually

T2: [it is the stone

P: no I though the stone was (.) I thought the stone actually just smashed the window itself

T2: oh kay (.) so (.) who thinks it's number two (/) (.) hands up (1.0) who thinks it's number one (/) would you like to reveal it

P: number two (.) number two

T2: 2L you put your (.) you put your hand up (.) for your own group

[lines 24-43 Appendix 40]

In this case, what can be seen is how 2L participated in the freezeframes and how she facilitated discussion of the sentence under consideration. To avoid bias within the intervention lesson writing task Appendix 49], 2L deploys the passive voice to avoid blame on multiple instances: 'two men were killed', 'Romeo Montague was seemingly involved…', 'Tybalt Capulet and Mercutio were killed…'; therefore, showing that she is capable directly after being taught the passive of using this construction to fulfil genre.

2L's third writing task [Appendix 50] was completed within the thirty-minute time slot given as a prep task and fulfils the genre of explanatory and reporting. The use of past tense, third person and interviews of the key characters all enhance the tone of reporting and clearly outline a prior event or incident. There is a use of the passive voice in the piece: '…Selkirk, a pirate and buccaneer who apparently belonged to a crew sailing the South seas for gold and treasure, was found stranded on a remote island…' allows the text producer to avoid bias at the beginning of the text. The structure lays out prior events in a chronological order for ease of understanding and details allow for the fact that the text receiver is not knowledgeable of the events being outlined.

The final writing task [Appendix 51] was completed by 2L within a forty-five-minute examination period. The task shows elements of explanation through sentences in the declarative tone: '…family grouping is teaching method which…'. There is some sense of

understanding of interpersonal metafunction with the inclusive 'we' and 'us' used throughout to place the text producer on the same power level as the text receiver with the use of 'would' and 'will' when describing the narrator's feelings towards the scheme. There is some use of the conditional aided by the use of 'additional dilemmas may occur' which is enhance by the inclusion of rhetorical questions which bring the reader's attention to the potential aspects of the scheme which are uncertain. There are, however, no interviews of characters and a focus on the narrator's opinion with a use of first person for the majority; the piece then is opinion based and evaluative rather than persuasive in genre.

7.2.3.4. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 2L demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-4 below.

Table 7-4: Participant 2L's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language Use of 'could' is tentative and moderates power	Formal term of address and formal language	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text Use of the passive in order to avoid bias	Use of rhetorical questions to level power Terms of address are direct and inclusive
Ideational Metafunction	Focus of the children Evaluative language used to describe	Focus on the character of Paris	Use of an interview with one of the characters of the text Use of the passive to recount sequence of events	
Genre	Structured with salutation Declarative mood	Declarative mood to give information Letter has salutation	Declarative mood to give information Past tense shows a report Use of the passive to avoid blame	Declarative mood to give information

Table 7-4 show that 2L can adapt and alter her language and syntax according to the genre of her writing following the intervention lessons given showing that she is highly responsive to the language choices provided. There is little sense of improvement or consideration of ideational metafunction within the final piece of writing but her understanding of genre seems to strengthen as she progresses through the intervention period.

7.2.4. Cross-participant analysis Class 2

There seems to be a good awareness of how to construct genre across the pupils in the class although there is some lack of clarity as to how far this was due to the participants' previous knowledge. There is some improvement in the fulfilment of genre across the two instances for which narratives are provided. Therefore, this seems to indicate that there has been an impact on the writing of the participants in the area of genre. There is also some control of language and syntax shown as this alters according to the writing task being completed. However, the genre does show little variation in cases which may indicate that participants did have previous knowledge and simply applied this in every instance.

The way that the lesson was structured and conducted showed a clear adherence to the instructions given in the lesson plan which had an explicit focus on modals and the way to construct the passive voice. This explicitness may have been a factor in the participants' increased fulfilment of the aspects of genre. There does seem to be less clear understanding of how to fulfil ideational metafunction of the text which may indicate a more careful focus on the interpersonal metafunction and genre of the texts provided in the resources during the intervention lessons. 2L's use of the passive in the post-intervention writing task explicitly links the lesson to her writing in a way which is uncommon across the writing of the group.

7.3. Class 3

7.3.1. Background and Constraints

This class was taught by a single teacher who also taught Class 4. The teacher's background was Theology and she held a doctorate in this subject; she had no prior known formal training in English Language. The lessons were delivered as part of a whole cogent course which followed the scheme of work for the term [Appendix 1]; therefore, the teacher had the ability to refer to prior learning in order to consolidate the learning in the intervention lessons. The intervention lessons were taught as specified by the lesson plan distributed by the researcher in timings and activities using the resources provided. As this teacher taught two groups within this year group, she was able to alter and change the given resources and material for the group which she taught second. This group was the group which she taught second out of

group three and four; therefore, she was more familiar with the lesson plan and provided material when teaching this year group.

Both intervention lessons were conducted at the same time of the week as each other within the same lessons to ameliorate external factors such as the impact of the time of day on the participants' focus or response. The class was made up of sixteen pupils, one of which withdrew consent at the participant consent stage meaning that there were fifteen participants taking part from this class. Out of the fifteen participants, three also undertook the 'thinking aloud' section of the study.

7.3.2. Participant 3A

7.3.2.1. Background

Participant 3A was also a 'think aloud' participant. She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, weaker than those in the rest of the class. This participant had never been taught by the researcher.

7.3.2.2. Data

Nine pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples to analyse the writing of this participant. Three data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O), the *Think Aloud Recording Transcripts* (T) and the *Sample written work* (W). For the case of this participant, who was also a 'think aloud' participant, her 'think aloud' transcripts were used to add depth to her narrative. Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. She was present to complete all elements of the study and for both intervention lessons.

7.3.2.3. Narrative

Participant 3A completed the first writing task [Appendix 54] in the thirty minutes allocated. The genre of the piece tends towards the descriptive and informative through the predominance of sentences in the declarative tone. The use of first person, and past tense, indicates that this is a personal experience which is being reported. There is no use of direct referencing throughout although the formal salutation of 'dear governing body' indicates that the text producer understands that there is a distance between themselves and the text receiver which necessitates formality showing some sense of understanding of interpersonal metafunction. There is a singular use of 'should' and 'could' within the context of discussing the teachers: '…the teachers are not a good influence of the students and should change their attitudes' showing a forceful opinion about the narrator's colleagues. Through this, there is

some sense of persuasive tone as the opinion throughout is authoritative but, overall, the tone of the text fulfils a different genre. The transcript for the thinking aloud for this piece of writing demonstrates that the participant is concerned primarily with the content of the writing rather than how it is being delivered and the impact it might have upon the text receiver referring briefly to how 'k I'm gonna start with the first bullet point [0.5] we've already highlighted everything so I kind of know what I am going to write about already' [line 3-4 transcript]. The rest of the recording is the participant verbalising the words that she is writing.

During the first intervention lesson, participant 3A is involved in the discussion concerning the context of the use of 'must' rather than 'have to':

> T3: sorry 3A give me your opinion
>
> 3A: er we-nobody really says you must open the door if everyone is really like you have to open the door
>
> T3: yup I would agree so so when give me a context when must would actually come out of your mouth
>
> 3A: you must
>
> T3: maybe maybe you need another word [?]
>
> 3A: you must brush your teeth twice a day
>
> T3: is that stronger or weaker than you have to brush your teeth twice a day
>
> 3A: I feel like has to
>
> T3: sure
>
> 3A: you have to open the door or you should
>
> T3: open it next to it
>
> [lines 543-555 Appendix 52]

Here, it is shown that the class, and particularly participant 3A, is considering the force of the modal 'must' and how this would be used not just in the context of a sentence but what type of moment, or situation, that word would be used in. During the intervention lesson, 3A's written work shows that the class have written down a definition of modals provided by the teacher (this was not included in the lesson plan- Appendix 3). They were also instructed to

write down the 'scale' of modals to refer to when they were writing. Her written work shows that she can use the modal 'will' to establish dominance or the power of the text producer over the text receiver: 'You will stay away from him…'. This exemplifies that the participant can use modal verbs to construct a clear interpersonal metafunction.

In the post-intervention writing task [Appendix 57], participant 3A shows several uses of language which give a tone of persuasion to the letter: the use of direct referencing 'you' and 'mother' despite the social distancing of the salutation 'Dear Lady Capulet' adds a tone of desperation as well as inclusion of 'please' in 'please concider this…' and 'please cancel the wedding…'. The use of modals 'could', 'can', 'will' and 'would' add a certainty to the statements of the text producer: 'I simply will not be happy if I am married to Paris…'. The majority of sentences are in the declarative tone which leads to a more certain tone than one which is clearly persuasive. The use of first person and the outlining of the narrator's feelings lend the text a reflective: 'this makes me feel I have too many faults…', journal style which is too intimate for the expected genre of the text. In the think aloud recording the participant states that 'it's to her mother so it doesn't need to be formal…' which, for the participant, seems to mean that she believes that she can use exaggerated language as well as contractions. This statement immediately follows the writing of the sentence 'Thank you so much for chosing him for me but my heard it telling me it isn't true love.'. Her salutation of 'Lady Capulet' is counter to this idea, hence, it appears that formality to the participant is demonstrated through the topic and amount of personal detail the text producer shares.

During the second intervention lesson focusing on the passive voice [Appendix 53], 3A does not actively engage with any of the discussion. Her writing sample [Appendix 59] from this lesson, however, shows that she is capable of using the passive construction to alter the text receiver's perception of reported events: 'Mercutio Filebox was stabbed by Tybalt Capuleton on the streets of Verona…'; her comment on this use of the passive is that it 'made mine more to the point and factual. It made it more objective.'. In this way, she links the use of the passive and the way that bias might be constructed in the text.

In the writing task post-passive-intervention [Appendix 60], 3A shows a clear awareness of the genre of the piece in her think aloud recording. Her considerations [Appendix 61] are more clearly focused on word choice and decisions concerning structure which links to the newspaper report she is writing: 'after reading the passage (.) I might start with (.) just a few facts (.) like the date and yes so (3.0) urm yeah I'll just start with some facts that are so I'll start with on cos it's a newspaper report'. This shows that she has an awareness of the type of

language and content that fulfils the social purpose of a newspaper report; she also repeats that '..that's quite a few facts in there so…'. She also refers to the fact that 'I don't know if in a newspaper I can start with I believe that (.) though I probably could cos it's like opinion (3.0)'. There is use of the passive in the writing which supports the ideas that she has concerning the lack of bias or opinion within a newspaper report: 'Selkirk was accused of mutiny and overthrowing the captain…'.

In her final writing piece [Appendix 62], 3A explains and describes the vertical grouping scheme which is outlined in the given passage. The genre of the piece appears to be focused on the explanatory or descriptive rather than the persuasive or informative. The use of first person throughout lends a reflective tone to the piece as well as a distance between the text producer and the text receiver: 'my school' which is not expected given the interpersonal metafunction indicated by the question. There is a predominance of sentences in the declarative tone which also gives a sense of certainty to the piece rather than introducing hypotheticals or potential possibilities. It is worth noting that the participant writes as if the scheme has already been introduced which is not accurate given the information in the question: 'My school has recently introduced vertical grouping…'.

7.3.2.4. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 3A demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-5 below.

Table 7-5L: Participant 3A's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language Use of 'could' is tentative and moderates power	Formal term of address and formal language Use of contractions reduce the social distance	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text Use of the passive in order to avoid bias	
Ideational Metafunction	Evaluative language used to describe	Focus on the character of Paris	Use of the passive to recount sequence of events	
Genre	Structured with salutation Declarative mood	Declarative mood to give information Letter has salutation Direct refencing used of 'you'	Declarative mood to give information Past tense shows a report Use of the passive to avoid blame	Declarative mood to give information

Table 7-5 shows that participant 3A is limited when showing her understanding of the ideational metafunction of texts. However, she seems to engage well with genre although there is one key element which is not altered or adapted according to the text: the use of the declarative tone to provide information. Her understanding of interpersonal metafunction appears to be the strongest in most instances as this is altered and adapted until she

completes the final writing task which is lacking in examples of language or syntactical decisions which are expected of the interpersonal metafunction of the text being constructed.

7.3.3. Participant 3D

7.3.3.1. Background

Participant 3D was not a 'think aloud' participant. She had never been taught by the researcher prior to the study. She was considered an average or middle-range participant.

7.3.3.2. Data

Six pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples to analyse the writing of this participant. Two data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O) and the *Sample written work* (W). Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. She was present to complete all elements of the study and for both intervention lessons.

7.3.3.3. Narrative

Participant 3D's first writing task [Appendix 63] is written as a description: sentences are predominantly written in the declarative tone: 'the staff overworking the students and controlling them made the school change from being creative areas into a prison of sorts.' and the use of past tense makes the piece sound like a report. There are contractions used: 'I'm' which may show a lack of engagement with the interpersonal metafunction of the text as this reduces the social distance between text producer and text receiver. There are also idioms such as 'The pastoral care has one down the drain…' used which reduces the formality of the writing, again obscuring the clarity of the relationship between the text producer and the text receiver. The use of first person, with no direct referencing or use of interrogatives, and listing of the negative aspects of the school give the letter a tone of complaint rather than persuasion. This may demonstrate that the text producer lacks some understanding of how to establish genre.

3D participates at every stage of the first intervention lesson focusing on modals. The first is a discussion of the purpose of the provided resources; therefore, understanding how genre is established:

> T3: you may I'm on the water today it's not coffee in my mug urm i know of one other sorry 3D not right now

3D: urm It's kind of like if you're only going to send like one card then send this card yeah

T3: mm-hmm

3D: Then one card

T3: what what purpose does that tie in to?

3D: that you ought to send this card must I don't know it's must not ought to

T3: what's the purpose when we talk about

3D: It's more important than every like any other card you've ever given cos like they're miserable they're not going to get another card any other card any other year

T3: do this so yeah sort of sort of getting you to prioritise this yeah that's the purpose saying it's important at Christmas time to be charitable right that will give you the guts to do this

[line 181-192 Appendix 52]

In this way, the participant begins to consider the overall purpose of a piece of text and the way in which the text receiver might be made to feel on receiving a text.

The second instance when 3D participates is when the class are discussing the forcefulness of modals including the word 'implore':

T3: I think implore implore you shhhh what why is command with implore I think implore you're still recognising that they person has a choice so you're like your I'm begging you to but you're not saying you have to and you will because I can't hold all the power urm 3D one final comment

3D: the only thing is is with implore the kind of person who would implore you to do something would be like stricter than someone who like not use it

T3: mmm just because the word itself

3D: [?] would not implore you to do something she would be like I expect you to try I implore you to do this

T3: mmm

3D: so obviously I would do it

T3: well maybe it's kind of the idea of the person who is using it because if it's just a word like with ought I think of someone of my grandmother's generation as someone who would actually use that word so it sounds stiffer so but I think it is more respectful because it's not saying I command urm you know you could implore you could say to your parents I implore you to take us to Disneyland this summer but you can't it would be silly to say I command you cos they would just laugh you off good

[line 598-613 Appendix 52]

The participant considers with the teacher the type of person who would use the word 'implore' and, therefore, the type of context in which this word would be used based on its meaning and tone.

The final part of the lesson in which 3D participates is when the class are reading out their partner's writing and their own feedback on that writing:

T3: sure I like it at the end you will not I think that is a very strong one to use one that you could use in your everyday speech it is a very powerful er but subtle sort of command isn't it er 3D

3D: oh no dear tybalt I will not lie to express to you my disappointment at the banquet your hatred for the Montagues seems to be growing every time I will expect you to show more composure in the future this Romeo that you name as a villain is not what you think he is encourage (?) civil words Verona [?] of him and he has the potential to be a virtuous youth you must keep your negative feelings from getting away I command you to do so or I shall st-or I shall keep him away from you I hope to see you soon [?]

T3: very good er give me your analysis

3D: I said that she sh-she showed tactics when talking to Tybalt by using patronising words like erm er disappointment disappointed in you urm and then urm also he has power over him like I'll teach him the way to behave er but he also shows that he is like a father in that and a son like he's trying to make him better so he's kind of like a kind and friendly attitude

T3: yeah very good er good let's stop there

[line 836-849 Appendix 52]

The participant here clearly discusses the interpersonal metafunction of the piece of writing she has peer assessed: her use of the word 'power' shows that she has engaged with the way the text producer and text receiver can have a difference in status and power; she has also begun to consider how this difference in power is constructed. The participant's own writing [Appendix 64] constructs a clear relationship through use of modals such as 'I shall have to blow you out' and 'I will not have a brawl in my house' demonstrating certainty through the declarative tone. She also uses the phrase 'I implore you to cause no harm to Romeo…' which is a direct response to the content of the lesson as she has already stated that 'the only thing is is with implore the kind of person who would implore you to do something would be like stricter than someone who like not use it' showing that she has perceived the meaning of 'implore' to be partially contained within who uses the phrase and that her intentions are to construct a text producer with authority over the text receiver when she uses this.

Participant 3D's second writing task [Appendix 65] was completed within the time frame given of thirty minutes but is considerably shorter than the other participants' work. Her use of '…to plead' to explain the purpose of the letter in the first sentence demonstrates some intention to persuade the text receiver with the strength of the verb. There is also a use of direct referencing with 'you' to target the text receiver. The use of modals 'would', 'may' and 'will' all show certainty and authority although the context: '…I will renounce may name and flee all I wish is for me to choose.' lends a tone of threat rather than persuasion. Paris is the central topic and character which is consistent with the ideational metafunction of the text as the text producer describes and explains Paris' flaws. There is some inaccuracy in the reading of characters: 'I believe father wants me to have a choice to whom I marry…'. The formality of the language, however, is used consistently to demonstrate a distant relationship between the text producer and the text receiver.

In the second intervention lesson focusing on the passive voice [Appendix 53], 3D does not actively participate but her resulting writing exemplar [Appendix 66] shows that she understands how to deploy the passive voice in order to avoid assigning blame. Her use of the passive: 'Violence broke out on the streets of Verona', 'Tybalt Capulet was killed', 'Romeo's friend Benvolio and Tybalt's body was found by citizens…' all show that she can construct the passive voice. She then demonstrates consideration of the meaning of the passive in her self-reflection section: 'I used the passive…by almost not focusing on the person to blame but the fact of the matter'. This suggests that the participant's comprehension of the meaning of the passive is that is a construction that she can use in newspaper reports in order to alter or change the text receiver's understanding of events.

3D's third writing task [Appendix 67] was completed within the given time frame but typed rather than handwritten. She uses the passive voice: '…he was accused of mutiny...' to avoid assigning blame in the first paragraph. The use of sentences with multiple subordinate clauses, including adverbial clauses, shows that the text's genre is being established as informative or a report – also shown thorough the use of the past tense to describe events which have already taken place. There is evidence to suggest that the participant understands how to construct the genre of this piece of text but there is some lack of indicative use of language or control of syntax to show a clear interpersonal metafunction. The structure does not give any sense of chronology; therefore, the description lacks clarity.

The participant's final writing task [Appendix 68] shows some awareness of how to establish interpersonal metafunction in the use of the inclusive 'our'; the structure of the opening also shows that there is an attempt at establishing the genre of an informative text with an explanation of what vertical grouping is. There are interviews with other students at schools which already have the scheme, which fulfils the genre successfully. The use of first person at the end of the text demonstrates a personal opinion is being shared: 'I firmly believe…'. Both the passive: 'it was used at Green College…' and modals: 'may', 'would' are used in the text. The former is used when describing an instance in which the scheme has not worked in the opinion of the text producer and thus defers any assignation of blame. The use of the modals are used to establish a hypothetical situation: '….since our school may be different.' and certainty: '…many would think it unfair…'. All examples of language and syntactical choices show that the participant has a consistent understanding of the genre of the text which she wishes to construct and how to begin to construct this through her language choices.

7.3.3.4. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 3D demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-6 below.

Table 7-6: Participant 3D's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language Use of 'could' is tentative and moderates power	Formal term of address and formal language Use of 'may' to moderate tone	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text Use of the passive in order to avoid bias	Use of inclusive 'us' and 'our'
Ideational Metafunction	Evaluative language used to describe	Focus on the character of Paris	Use of the passive to recount sequence of events	Use of the passive to avoid blame Use of interviews to show different perspectives
Genre	Structured with salutation Declarative mood	Declarative mood to give information Letter has salutation Direct refencing used of 'you'	Declarative mood to give information Past tense shows a report Use of the passive to avoid blame	Declarative mood to give information

Table 7-6 shows that participant 3D can alter and adapting language and syntax according to all three focus aspects of the texts. There is some replication of the declarative mood for each text which may suggest that her understanding of how to construct genre is not as thorough as her understanding of how to establish ideational metafunction or interpersonal metafunction. Her use of the passive voice is pertinent to the type of text she is writing as are

the modals she decides to use in order to create a clear relationship between text producer and text receiver.

7.3.4. Cross-participant analysis Class 3

There was a strong understanding of interpersonal metafunction across the participants by the end of the intervention period, but they lacked some knowledge of ideational metafunction. There was some focus in the first intervention lesson on the definition of modals, which was not explicitly stated in other classes, and this may have meant that the pupils were focused on the more formalised definition of the concept rather than its meaning in relation to text producer and text receiver. In both instances, the participants did not show a control of genre in that they used the same tone (declarative) across all pieces of their writing. This may indicate that there was little by way of language choice provided in the area of constructing genre; however, neither of the intervention lessons were focused upon this area.

The first intervention lesson, as previously mentioned was formal in the respect of providing a definition which was not given on the lesson plan provided by the researcher. It was then interesting to note that this kind of formalised view of the grammatical concept did not have an overriding influence on way in which the participants in this class were writing in comparison to the rest of the year group. Instead, the discussion of meaning and interpersonal metafunction seems to have influenced the way in which the participants fulfil the interpersonal metafunction of the text.

7.4. Class 4

7.4.1. Background and Constraints

This class was taught by a single teacher who also taught Class 3. The background and constraints are therefore the same as section 7.3. This group was the group which she taught first out of group three and four; therefore, she was less familiar with the lesson plan and provided material having had less practice in delivering the material.

Both intervention lessons were conducted at the same time of the week as each other within the same lessons to ameliorate external factors such as the impact of the time of day on the participants' focus or response. The class was made up of fifteen pupils, one of which withdrew consent at the participant consent stage meaning that there were fourteen participants taking part from this class. Out of the fourteen participants, four also undertook the 'thinking aloud' section of the study.

7.4.2. Participant 4G

7.4.2.1. Background

Participant 4G was also a 'think aloud' participant. She was put forward for the 'think aloud' element of the study as a pupil who was, comparatively, strong in relation to the rest of the pupils in the class. This participant had never been taught by the researcher.

7.4.2.2. Data

Nine pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples to analyse the writing of this participant. Three data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O), the *Think Aloud Recording Transcripts* (T) and the *Sample written work* (W). For the case of this participant, who was also a 'think aloud' participant, her 'think aloud' transcripts were used to add depth to her narrative. Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. She was present to complete all elements of the study and for both intervention lessons.

7.4.2.3. Narrative

Participant 4G completed the first writing [Appendix 71] in the thirty minutes allocated. This piece tends towards the informative in tone with declarative sentences predominating the writing. The use of first person, and past tense, indicates that this is a report of a personal experience. There is, however, a use of direct referencing in places, which indicates that some thought may have been given to introducing a persuasive element to the piece. The formal use of 'Dear Governing Body' shows that the participant has an understanding that there is a social distance between the text producer and the text receiver showing some sense of understanding of interpersonal metafunction. There is a single use of 'can' in the text within the context of '…that what they learn in school can never…' and a single use of 'will': 'I trust that you will take all that right decisions are made.'; neither use of the modal shows a concern of the forcefulness of the statement although there is a sense that the text producer is suggesting they are in power over the text receiver. The repeated use of 'I believe' indicates that the text is mainly focused on declaring and explaining opinion. The range of adjectives used suggest that the text is being used to communicate judgement of the school and its pupils: 'The pupils at Titan High are extremely curteous and obidient…', 'The play they put on at the end of this school term, was witty and extremely promising…', 'Titan High is a school filled with bright students..'.; this adds to the tone of reporting rather than persuading. The transcript for the think aloud [Appendix 72] for this piece of writing demonstrates that the participant is concerned primarily with content rather than tone: 'she said why there is a

problem so now she has to suggest how to fix it' [line 22-23] and 'mm maybe I need to talk a about what she actually thought of the school' [line 15-16]. Therefore, the participant can be said to not explicitly discuss how the text is being delivered and its effect on the text receiver.

During the first intervention lesson, participant 4G is involved in the discussion of the resource from the Salvation Army and how the inclusion of the word 'please' changes the tone:

> T3: well no no I think that's right (.) the us language is helpful urm 4G
>
> P: well when they say please help us prove that people really do care cos it's like (?) but like haven't done anything so it's like
>
> T3: good urm (.) can I ask you a question what does (.) er we were talking about forceful language earlier commands (.) if something started with help us (.) if it read help us prove that people really do care (.) by signing the card and returning it with your gift (.) how does that sound (/)
>
> P: not as like (.) not as (.) urm persuasive as please cos please is really like (.) makes you think really like awwww I'm a horrible person
>
> [lines 368-375 Appendix 69]

She also responds later in the intervention lesson to questions concerning the tone of the advert overall:

> T3: urm ok let's keep going girls let's keep going (.) er final question shhhhhhh final question what tone is the advert trying to convey (/) is it successful in creating this tone (/) 4G
>
> P: (?) cos if you don't have then you're sort of selfish
>
> T3: ok and tell me about the tone specifically
>
> P: urm (.) was like (.) it's it's forceful but it makes me feel (.) it does it's not like (.) oh you have to do this it's basically like (?)
>
> [lines 415-420 Appendix 69]

It can be seen through these sections that 4G is engaged in the discussion of the meaning, the force, of the text and how it might persuade the text receiver. She is clearly exploring how the text makes her feel in both of her contributions and, therefore, it can be said that she is becoming aware of the interpersonal metafunction here. During the intervention lesson, 4G's written work shows that the class have written down a definition of modals provided by the

teacher (this was not included in the lesson plan- Appendix 3) .They were also instructed to write down the 'scale' of modals to refer to when they were writing. Her written work shows that she can use the modal 'will' to establish dominance or the power of the text producer over the text receiver: 'You will leave Romeo alone.'. This exemplifies that the participant can use modal verbs to construct a clear interpersonal metafunction.

In the post-intervention writing task [Appendix 74], 4G shows several uses of language which give a tone of persuasion to the letter, including the use of a rhetorical question: 'What is so special about Paris anyway?'. She also uses direct refencing such as 'mother', 'you' and 'your' throughout which allows a persuasive tone to permeate the writing. There is a close social distance with the informality of 'yes, you were married…' which is almost conversational in tone. Interestingly, the modals used throughout the piece increase in forcefulness as the text producer writes beginning with '…all I could ever want' and ending with a repeated use of 'will' and 'would': 'I simply would not be happy…', 'I promise you I will choose my husband well.' adding more certainty, and desperation, to the final half of the text than the first half. The use of first person and many statements in the declarative tone also allows constructs a tone of explanation: 'Mother, I tried my hardest…' in order to persuade the text receiver. In the think aloud recording [Appendix 75] the participant explicitly considers the relationship between the text producer and the text receiver through engaging with the salutation: 'ok so I'm not gonna start the mother the letter with dear mum because I don't think you would start a letter to your mother in that way (.) so I need to find a way to start it that makes it seem like she is talking to her mother (.) but through a letter if that makes sense..'; this indicates that the conversational tone is purposeful and that 4G was attempting to make it seem like there was little social distance between the text producer and the text receiver. She also explicitly discusses how she will persuade the text receiver: 'now she can bring up how her mother would want her to be happy...', 'and try to be personal so that she can be sympathetic to her so she can talk about mother married men and what happened to them as they got married so early' which clearly shows what impact she is trying to have on the text receiver. This also includes the reference to 'now she can really guilt trip her mother (.) and say I am pouring my hear out to you' along with 'so now she can almost threaten them' and 'she can use a rhetorical question'. These examples demonstrate that 4G is considering social distance but also social roles and social status as well as writer persona and degree of alignment which supports her focus on interpersonal metafunction further.

During the second intervention lesson focusing on the passive voice, 4G does not actively engage with any of the discussion. Her writing sample [Appendix 76] from this lesson,

however, shows that she can control her use of the passive voice in order to indicate blame: 'Mercutio was killed by Tybalt'. Her comment on this use of the passive shows how she is aware that she is constructing her sentence in order to alter the text receiver's perception of events: 'I used the passive voice rather than the active, to avoid putting blame on the agents of the sentences'. Particularly interesting here is the use of 'agents' which directly links to the intervention lesson presented.

In the writing task post-passive intervention [Appendix 77], 4G shows a clear awareness of the genre of the piece in the way that her writing is structured. Her writing sample includes specific references to the date of when the events took place: 'In September, 1703,…' as well as descriptive, evaluative phrases such as 'a large crew'. She writes in past tense showing that the text is reporting an event which has already occurred as well as including interviews with main characters. Her think aloud recording [Appendix 78] demonstrated some consideration of the content of her piece with the focus of any explicit comment about her decisions being primarily centred around structure. The genre of the piece is also considered here with reference to 'so I'm going to start my last paragraph with a rhetorical question' and 'so this is putting two rhetorical question in there makes the reader think' presumably to ensure that the text receiver begins to consider the events in the text and construct their own opinion as to who is to blame. She also mentions that she believes, on writing the first draft, that she has 'given my opinion' which clearly shows that she believes the characteristics of this type of text to include the text producer's own opinion which can be constructed through the writing. There is a use of the passive construction with '…Selkirk was rescued from an island…'.

In her final piece of writing [Appendix 79], 4G misreads the question and, instead of providing an article, she writes a letter to an editor about the assigned topic. Although not the task, it is useful to consider whether she understands how to construct the text which she believes she should; her use of predominantly declarative tone infers a sense of authority from the text producer on the topic being discussed which establishes an appropriate power dynamic between the text producer and text receiver for the task she believes she is completing. The use of first person throughout lends a reflective tone to the piece also adding to the sense that the information is based on a personal experience. The persuasive elements are clear in the use of modals: 'you could argue that…' and '…I think that vertical grouping would make a good difference to our school…'.

7.4.2.4. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 4G demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-7 below.

Table 7-7: Participant 4G's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language	Use of could, must, would, will and can moderate exercise of power Second person 'you' used as well as reference to 'mother'	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text	Formal language used in reference to the 'editor' Use of 'could' and 'would' shows authority
Ideational Metafunction	Focus of the children Evaluative language used to describe	Focus is primarily on marriage	Use of interviews with two of the characters of the text	
Genre	Structured with salutation and paragraphs centred around key ideas Declarative mood to impart information	Declarative mood to give information Use of rhetorical questions Structure of letter introduces demands for action and there is a final salutation	Declarative mood to give information The structure of the report is outlined and what is included in each section Use of the past tense to show reported event	Declarative mood to give information

Table 7-7 shows that 4G can adapt and control her writing according to the text type she is constructing. There is a replication of the declarative mood throughout the writing tasks which would suggest that she is not as engaged with the genre of the text in comparison to the interpersonal metafunction. Her misreading of the question for the final writing task is detrimental to showing any understanding of the task, although if her intention is taken into consideration, she does use modals effectively to construct a suitable social distance and social role demonstrating further understanding of interpersonal metafunction.

7.4.3. Participant 4L

7.4.3.1. Background

Participant 4L was not a 'think aloud' participant. She had never been taught by the researcher prior to the study. She was considered as middle-to-high ability in comparison to the rest of her class.

7.4.3.2. Data

Six pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples to analyse the writing of this participant. Two data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O) and the *Sample written work* (W). Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. She was present to complete all elements of the study and for both intervention lessons.

7.4.3.3. Narrative

Participant 4L's first writing task [Appendix 80] is written as a description or report. The purpose of the letter is outlined as 'I am writing this letter to you because I am worried about the overall atmosphere at…' without any suggestion as to what action should be taken by the text receiver. Sentences are predominantly in the declarative tone: 'The pupils are not intolerable or badly behaved and they treat me with respect…' without any direct referencing or use of interrogatives throughout. The language use is formal which maintains the social distance between text producer and text receiver which is accurate with the task. However, there is less sense of the text producer being a part of the school as the topic is focused on shifting blame to the staff body of which the text producer is supposed a part: 'The staff at this school are far worse than the students…'. There is also no use of modal verbs or interrogatives which may show that the participant lacks some understanding of how to construct genre and interpersonal metafunction.

During the first intervention lesson, 4L responds to a question directly related to the interpersonal metafunction of the text:

> T3: good urm (2.0) thank you and I think that this can also tie into the next question so (.) question three what's the relationship between the person writing the text and the person reading the text (.) how do you know (/) 4L
>
> 4L: well I'm guessing that the person who's writing it (.) is someone who's urm (.) like done quite a lot for charity (.) they've set this thing up (.) and so they've probably written loads of cards (.) and they're quite like a good citizen (.) and (.) they're making you feel bad cos you know they're like a good charity (.) and you want to be a bit more like them (.) and because they do like (.) using such persuasive language (.) it's like making you feel bad
>
> T3: good urm and the second part of the question how do you know where do you get that image from I think that's a very good image but where does it come from
>
> 4L: well (.) it has the salvation army badge on it so you know that they're part of the salvation army
>
> T3: good good urm (.) good
>
> 4L: urm but you you can kind of assume that they've never met each other
>
> T3: k
>
> 4L: cos urm (.) for m-because the fact that's it written so vaguely
>
> T3: sure
>
> 4L: urm it's kind of you can kind of be like yeah it's just been sent round here it's just something that everyone's been sent round urm (.) so you probably don't know them like you might know them (.) but there's no like urm (.) dear blah blah blah or (.) from blah blah blah
>
> T3: good
>
> 4L: urm so you kind of know that they have never met but he's he's (.) the writer is still trying to address them as personally as possible
>
> [lines 317-338 Appendix 69]

It can be seen in this section that 4L is engaged with discussing the interpersonal metafunction of text: she explains in detail the type of relationship which is indicated through the language used and how the text receiver would feel on reading. The written work which 4L completed in the lesson [Appendix 81] shows that she is not capable of identifying a modal verb: she has underlined 'forget' and 'do not' as well as 'you will' which indicates that she does not have an awareness of the construction or definition of modals. However, she is able to use them to establish force and a consistently authoritative text producer by using the modal 'will' to establish dominance and power: 'you will pay the price'. This demonstrates that the participant is able to use modal verbs to construct a clear interpersonal metafunction.

In the post-modal-intervention writing task [Appendix 82], 4L shows several uses of language which construct a clear interpersonal metafunction: the repeated direct referencing of 'you' and 'your' as well as the phrase 'as my mother' appeals directly to the text receiver and lends a pleading tone to the letter. There is also a use of 'please', and first person which makes it seem to be personal, which gives a tone of desperation to the text and suggests the genre of persuasion. However, the tone of the sentences is predominantly declarative with no use of imperatives or interrogatives which is more demonstrative of an explanatory or descriptive report. The text is also poorly structured with little to no consideration given to the impact of different sections of a letter. Overall, there seems to be little understanding of genre, but some skills shown when constructing interpersonal metafunction.

During the second intervention lesson focusing on the passive voice, 4L does not actively engage with the class discussion. Her writing sample from this lesson does show an effective use of the passive: 'Mercutio Ravioli was shot by a member of the Capulet family' which allows allocating culpability to be hindered through vagueness. She also manipulates events by not sharing the shooter's name: 'the killer is one the loose', '…the said main was banished…', which again allows for a manipulation of angle of representation. This shows that 4L can control the ideational metafunction in that she purposely fails to name one of the key blame-worthy characters.

In the writing task post-passive intervention [Appendix 83] 4L shows an understanding of genre through use of interviewing of the two main characters- this also allows her to ensure an unbiased approach. There is use of the passive: '…a man was found…' as well as a lack of naming the potential culprit for the abandonment of the named character until the end of the piece indicating that she can control the perspective of the text receiver. There is a use of third person in reporting the events which is in accordance with the genre of the piece in that it

should be reporting events which happened to other people. The tone is mainly declarative, there is an incorporation of adverbial clauses of time: 'Yesterday morning,…', and it is written in the past tense all of which strengthen the text's genre of an informative report.

In her final piece of writing [Appendix 8] 4L seems to lack understanding of the text receivers and uses highly evaluative, and derogatory, language about a text receiver: 'Mrs Perez is not thinking of the pupils future, despite her stating that she will not take risks…' which follows the statement 'I think that the program set up by Green College is completely idiotic…'. This shows an ignorance of the way to appropriately construct the interpersonal metafunction of the text in this case. Her opening: 'As a student of [] I am writing on behalf of the new plan to introduce vertical grouping…' is more explanatory in tone and is more likely to be the opening of a letter to a single text receiver rather than a group of peers and superiors.; however, the tone does become less forceful later in the text as she argues for both sides of the program. There is a use of modals when providing her opinion which increases the certain tone: 'This will lead to the other students getting less attention' which is persuasive in outlining the negative effects of the program thereby adding to the genre of the piece in its persuasiveness. The use of first person is more indicative of a personal opinion in this piece as she does not reflect on her experiences of the program but outlines her arguments instead. The overall tone of the text is argumentative which may show little understanding of the both the interpersonal metafunction and genre.

7.4.3.4. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 4L demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-8 below.

Table 7-8: Participant 4L's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language	Use of 'please' to lend pleading tone Second person 'you', 'your' used as well as reference to 'my mother'	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text	Formal language used Use of 'will' lends authority
Ideational Metafunction		Focus is primarily on Paris with evaluative language to discuss this character	Use of interviews with two of the characters of the text Use of the passive to avoid assigning blame	
Genre	Structured with salutation Declarative mood to impart information	Declarative mood to give information	Declarative mood to give information Use of the past tense to show reported event	Declarative mood to give information

Table 7-8 shows that 4L can adapt and control her syntax and clause structure according to the genre of the text. She shows limited understanding of interpersonal metafunction in the penultimate and final writing tasks which may indicate that this participant is responsive to lesson interventions but only immediately following the lessons themselves. There is a consistency in the use of the declarative mood throughout all writing tasks which does demonstrate that she may have some understanding of genre; however, the lack of interrogatives and imperatives in some cases means that there is little evidence to suggest that she is capable of completely controlling the language of her writing. The poor understanding shown in the final writing tasks may be indicative of a lack of revision but does

show that 4L is unable to demonstrate a consistent understanding towards either ideational metafuntion or genre.

7.4.4. Cross-participant analysis Class 4

There is little evidence to demonstrate that participants understood how to construct the final writing task; this may be indicative of a lack of revision. With these participants, there is a replication of the declarative mood across writing tasks which could indicate that participants do not alter or control their language in response to the rhetorical problem. There is some evidence, however, to suggest understanding of how to construct interpersonal metafunction using modal verbs.

It is interesting to note the differences and similarities between TGIII and TGIV here as the teacher was the same. The first intervention lesson, as previously mentioned, used a more formal grammar teaching approach in the respect of providing a definition which was not given on the lesson plan provided by the researcher. This does not seem to have an impact on the participants. Instead, the discussion of meaning and interpersonal metafucntion seems to have influenced the way in which the participants fulfil the interpersonal metafunction of the text. However, these participants seem to be influenced by the intervention lessons more readily immediately proceeding the lessons themselves.

7.5. Class 5

7.5.1. Background and Constraints

This class was taught by a single teacher. The teacher's background was English Literature based; she had no prior known training in English Language. The lessons were delivered as part of a whole cogent course which followed the scheme of work for the term [see Appendix 1] therefore, the teacher had the ability to refer to prior learning in order to consolidate the learning in the intervention lessons. The intervention lessons were taught as specified by the lesson plan distributed by the researcher in timings and activities using the resources provided.

Both intervention lessons were conducted at the same time of the week as each other within the same lessons to ameliorate external factors such as the impact of the time of day on the participants' focus or response. The class was made up of sixteen pupils, one of which left the school at the beginning of the term in which the study commenced resulting in fifteen participants taking part from this class. Out of the fifteen participants, four also undertook the 'thinking aloud' section of the study.

7.5.2. Participant 5E

7.5.2.1. Background

Participant 5E was not a 'think aloud' participant. She was present for every element of the study including the intervention lessons. The participant had never been taught by the researcher. She was considered as middle-to-high ability in comparison to the rest of her class.

7.5.2.2. Data

Six pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples to analyse the writing of this participant. Two data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O) and the *Sample written work* (W). Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. She was present to complete all elements of the study and for both intervention lessons.

7.5.2.3. Narrative

Participant 5E's first writing task [Appendix 87] was completed in the thirty-minute time allocation. The piece is predominantly written as a report outlining what the text producer has done to improve the school and her pupils' results. This is established using the declarative tone throughout: 'The ethos of this school is dull and relaxed…' which also include statements about her own involvement in improvement: 'I have noticed that the attitude of my students has vastly improved…'. The structure of the text and formality of the language used shows that there is some understanding of both the genre and interpersonal metafunction but the demonstration of this is limited by the lack of variety in both the syntax and tone used. There is one us of direct referencing with 'you' and the salutation: 'dear governing body' establishes a suitable social distance between the text producer and the text receiver early in the text. However, this is not maintained which may indicate that the text producer has little understanding of how to establish genre.

Participant 5E does not actively participate in the first intervention lesson. However, the writing completed during the lesson [Appendix 88] shows that she can use modals to establish a clear interpersonal metafunction and is conscious of how to control this. She uses 'ought' to establish force and authority in 'you had really ought to…' and 'would' in '…it would be an honour…'. Both instances of modal use show that the text producer has more power than the text receiver. 5E states in the reflective section of her writing that 'Lady Capulet has a distant relationship with her daughter, as she uses formal language with her daughter Juliet, for example, 'You had really ought.'. In this way, she shows that she is consciously aware of how she has used written language to construct the interpersonal metafunction of the text and the

impact that it has on the way that the reader perceives the text producer and text receiver. She also shows that she understands genre with 'The use of modal verbs creates a persuasive tone. Further backed up by 'outstanding privilege…prestigious/ such a respectable'. Here she lists the evaluative language she uses in order to create a consistent genre.

In the post-modal-intervention writing task [Appendix 89] , 5E shows that she can use a range of modals to construct a clear interpersonal metafunction: 'could', 'may', 'would', 'can' and 'should' are all used to construct a pleading and persuasive tone which indicates the text receiver has power over the text producer: in this case, Juliet to her mother. Direct refencing and repetition of the title 'mother' also emphasises the personal connection between the characters and increases this tone. There is a use of sentences in the declarative tone: 'Paris is an overbearing and crude figure'; although it can be seen that these are to ensure that any subjective aspects of the man she will be marrying are then objective in order to argue and persuade her mother to consider breaking off the engagement. There are also two uses of interrogatives, or rhetorical questions, to engage with the text receiver's emotions. Overall, 5E shows that she is adept at controlling and using modals in order to establish interpersonal metafunction and that she understands how to construct both this and the genre of her writing by being selective with her language.

In the passive intervention lesson, 5E participates twice in the discussion. Firstly, she responds to a direct question concerning which sentence the freezeframe is showing:

> T5: don't worry which one do you think they were trying to do there (/) yeah 5E
>
> 5E: the stone smashed the window (/)
>
> P: no
>
> 5E: oh the man smashed the window
>
> P: yeah
>
> T5: the man smashed the window
>
> [lines 82-85 Appendix 86]

Which clearly demonstrates that she is engaging with the visual representation, and therefore the Cognitive Linguistic element, of the lesson.

She then also discusses the meaning of the passive and how this alters the readers' interpretations of events by responding to questioning about the article provided for the lesson's resources:

> T4: be biased (.) so you just want to include the the facts (.) but you do say that he was shot by police officers (.) but you don't say (.) police officers shot mark dougan (.) does it make a difference (/) 5E
>
> 5E: I feel like it put it puts less blame on the police officers (.) cos if it's like police officers shot (.) him (.) it's like their the like (1.0) it it makes them seem like really bad
>
> T5: yes
>
> 5E: whereas mark Dougan was shot by police officers
>
> T5: [yes
>
> 5E: it makes it seem less their fault
>
> T5: yes I love that

[lines 290-299 Appendix 86]

It is shown within the discussion that 5E directly compares an active and a passive sentence construction and the impact that these have on the text receiver/s. The idea of blame is consistent with the ideational metafunction of texts as it can indicate a manipulation of an angle of representation. Here, 5E is exploring the ideational metafunction and has been given a linguistic choice to replicate in her own writing in order to alter the representation of events. She shows a similar understanding in her written work from the lesson in which she uses the passive construction: '…fellow kinsman to the prince, was killed by a member of a feuding family, Tybalt Capulet.' In her reflection 5E states 'I used the passive in a way that conveys a summary of the incident without using bias. Stating first the person who was killed, then the person who killed them takes the blame mildly off the criminal.'. Here, she explicitly outlines how the representation of events has been controlled and what type of interpretation the text receiver would have.

In the post-passive-intervention writing task [Appendix 90], 5E shows that she is capable of replicating this control by using the passive: '…he was abandoned on the west coast of a small island in the South Seas.' to alter the meaning of her article. She shows further understanding of the ideational metafunction by focusing primarily on the characters of Selkirk which allows

the blame for his condition to be unallocated by the text producer. The text is in past tense and predominantly uses declarative sentences which allows the genre of the text to be clearly informative in nature. The interpersonal metafunction is clearly established as the text producer writes in third person and describes the events which occurred in the past, thus having authority over the text receiver/s. Overall, 5E shows a clear understanding of how to construct the ideational metafunction of the text as well as the interpersonal metafunction; however, there is less evidence for the understanding of genre as she lacks any use of character interviews.

In the final writing task [Appendix 91], 5E showed that she understood the task by establishing a clear interpersonal metafunction: inclusive 'our' is used in reference to the school which shows that the text producer and text receiver are of a similar social status. There are also references to shared concepts or ideas which are not explained which shows that both text producer and text receiver inhabit the same social space. A tone of authority is given through use of first person and a repeated use of the modal 'will' in contexts of 'The school board has said that the teachers will change their methods of teaching…' and 'I think it will benefit the other girls…'. There is also a clear understanding of genre shown through use of not only declarative sentences but interrogatives: two rhetorical questions are asked which allows the text to have a tone of persuasion alongside its sub-purpose of being informative. The text still lacks, however, character interviews which would strengthen the genre further. Overall, there is awareness of how to construct interpersonal metafunction and genre but some lack of clear ideational metafunction.

7.5.2.4. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 5E demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-9 below.

Table 7-9: Participant 5E's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language	Use of 'please' to lend pleading tone Use of 'could', 'may', 'would', 'can' and 'should' to show authority Second person 'you', 'your' used as well as reference to 'mother' Formal language used	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text	Formal language used Use of 'will' lends authority Use of 'our' reduces social distance
Ideational Metafunction	Focus on the students' behaviour	Focus is primarily on Paris with evaluative language to discuss this character Use of rhetorical questions	Use of the passive to avoid assigning blame	
Genre	Structured with salutation Declarative mood to impart information Direct referencing: 'you'	Declarative mood to give information Use of rhetorical questions	Declarative mood to give information Use of the past tense to show reported event	Declarative mood to give information Use of rhetorical questions to persuade

Table 7-9 shows that 5E is highly capable of understanding how to construct the interpersonal metafunction and genre of the text which she is writing; however, there is less evidence to suggest understanding of how to construct the ideational metafunction. She adapts her language and syntax according to the type of written task and shows that she can control the way in which the text is received.

7.5.3. Participant 5N

7.5.3.1. Background

Participant 5N was also a 'think aloud' participant. This participant is EAL (English as an Additional Language) in the sense that English is not her first language and is not the language she speaks at home. The participant had never been taught by the researcher.

7.5.3.2. Data

Eight pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples to analyse the writing of this participant. Three data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O), the *Think Aloud Recording Transcripts* (T) and the *Sample written work* (W). For the case of this participant, who was also a 'think aloud' participant, her 'think aloud' transcripts were used to add depth to her narrative. Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. She was not present for the first 'think aloud' session but was in attendance for all other elements of the study.

7.5.3.3. Narrative

5N completed the first writing task [Appendix 92] in the thirty minutes allocated. The text is written as a description or report outlining the current state of the school in which the text producer is working. This is shown through using declarative sentences throughout with no use of imperative or interrogative. There is some use of modal verbs but these are poorly used in respect of expression and, therefore, do not infer anything about the intended interpersonal metafunction of the text: 'I would suggest providing vocational training…'. There is a repeated use of 'I' and 'I believe' shows that the text mainly concerned with declaring and explaining opinion. The use of a list structure, and past tense, increases the sense that the text's genre is informative rather than persuasive. There is a use of formal language and the salutation: 'Dear school council…' does show that there is some awareness of how to construct social distance; this may indicate more understanding of interpersonal metafunction that genre or ideational metafunction.

In the first modal-intervention lesson 5N does not actively participate in the discussion. The writing she produces in the lesson [Appendix 93], however, shows that she is capable of controlling her use of modal verbs to construct a clear interpersonal metafunction: 'I will try to come out of my room' shows a certainly in the tone as well as 'Please do not worry about me' which clearly emphasises a desperate or pleading tone which could be used between a text producer and text receiver with a close relationship. 5N, in her reflection, states that 'the use of language is also quite polite, the use of 'I shall try' and 'I will' suggests he is writing to a

familiar person (Montague).' Which indicates that she is aware of how her use of language may indicate, or infer, to the reader, what the relationship may be between the text producer and the text receiver. There is a lack, however, of explanation as to how this is established through the use of modals. Nevertheless, 5N does show that she can control her use of modals to establish an interpersonal metafunction.

In the post-modal-intervention writing task [Appendix 94], 5N shows some use of persuasive language through the use of 'please' lending a pleading tone to the writing: 'I beg you to please cancel the marriage…'. This, alongside the repeated direct referencing of 'you', shows that the genre of the writing is persuasive in nature. However, this is not consistently clear throughout the text as most sentences are in the declarative tone and the text lacks consistent direct referencing and interrogatives. The piece becomes highly emotive at the end: 'For the future of your daughter and the household, please reconsider the marriage' which is carefully constructed and considered- the 'and the household' was added later on proofreading and was clearly thought to be more persuasive. In the 'think aloud' recording [Appendix 95] 5N shows consideration of the genre explicitly: 'I think I should start with stating why I am writing this letter'; the fact that she thinks about the structure, and therefore the text receiver, indicates some awareness of genre. There is formal language used throughout which lends a social distance to the relationship between text producer and text receiver; as this is consistent, it can be inferred that 5N can control her use of language throughout. There is also a repeated use of 'will' which lends authority to the text in the sense that the text producer seems to know more than the text receiver (consistent with the character): 'I will get to make more friends and hopefully find my true love.'. Overall, 5N shows some understanding of how to construct genre and some understanding of how to construct interpersonal metafunction.

During the second intervention lesson focusing on the passive, 5N participates in a discussion about the syntax of the sentence 'the window was smashed by the man':

> T5: yes (.) so (.) by the man (.) so what is it about that sentence (.) that really pushes blame (.) er yup
>
> 5N: the (.) by the man (.) blaming it on the man
>
> T5: yes and anything else there's something for me that really makes it even more significant think think look yes yes 5N brilliant
>
> [lines 206-209 Appendix 86]

Here, it is shown that the class, and 5N, are considering the meaning behind the passive construction and the ways in which it could alter the perception of events by the text receiver. However, the in 5N's writing from this lesson, she does not explain her use of the passive constructions 'Mercutio was killed by Tybalt Capulet', 'Romeo was challenged by Tybalt', 'Mercutio was stabbed in the process by Tybalt' and 'Mercutio was fatally injured' with any focus on the text receiver. 5N's reflection simply states, 'I used the passive in the first sentence to emphasise that Mercutio died and was killed by Tybalt' and 'I also used the passive to emphasise Mercutio's injury'. Both explanations lack any sense of understanding of how the passive aids the construction of either genre or ideational metafunction.

In the post-passive intervention lesson writing task [Appendix 97], 5N does demonstrate that she understands how to construct a clear genre: her writing uses formal language, uses third person, and interviews a range of characters for eye-witness reports all of which are in accordance with the writing required by a newspaper article. The text is written in past tense which shows that the text producer is outlining events which have already transpired. In the 'think aloud' transcript [Appendix 98], 5N explicitly considers the interpersonal metafunction and genre with a comment about the formality of her language: 'I'm thinking adopt a formal tone and use formal words cos this is supposed to be like an unbiased newspaper report'. She alters her wording when expressing this idea later in the recording by stating 'I'm, not sure cos I'm not supposed to be biased in a newspaper report' which has a different meaning: here, she seems to be misunderstanding the ways in which reporters and journalists can manipulate language and, therefore, the real-life way in which reports are used: something which was demonstrated by the resources considered in the lesson. This lack of understanding is also shown through the lack of a use of the passive construction. Overall, 5N considered the genre of the piece and understood how to construct an interpersonal metafunction; her understanding of ideational metafunction is, however, lacking.

In her final writing task, 5N demonstrates a clear understanding of how to construct the interpersonal metafunction of a piece of writing. Her use of 'our' shows that the text producer shares a social situation with the text receiver and, therefore, there is little social distance. There is a sense of opinion with the use of first person, but this is not too forcefully expressed or too authoritarian which is in alignment with the interpersonal metafunction being established. This sense of discussion is created using less forceful modals such as 'may' and 'can' as well as use of the passive construction 'it is believed that family grouping leads to high academic achievement'. There is one use of 'will' in 'Hopefully, breaking down age barriers among age groups will..' but this is mitigated by the 'hopefully' which opens the sentence.

There is also a balanced argument provided, which is achieved through the structure: it gives the same amount of space for advantages of the scheme to disadvantages of the scheme. There is a subtle suggestion, also, that 5N understands how to create genre: persuasive elements such as rhetorical questions: 'So what is family grouping?' as well as a chatty use of 'Let me outline…' show not only an understanding that the piece needs to be explanatory but that the tone needs to be friendly, but not condescending. The predominant sentences in use are declaratives but there are signposts used through the listing of both sides of the argument: 'firstly…', 'secondly…'. There is a lack of character interviews, but this does not detract from the overall impression that the participant has understood how to construct both interpersonal metafunction and genre.

7.5.3.4. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 5N demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-10 below.

Table 7-10: Participant 5N's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language	Use of 'please' to lend pleading tone Use of 'will' Second person 'you' and direct referencing: 'your daughter' Formal language used	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text Formal language used	Formal language used Use of 'will' lends authority as well as 'may' and 'can' which soften the tone Use of 'our' reduces social distance
Ideational Metafunction		Focus is primarily on Paris with evaluative language to discuss this character	Use of interviews of multiple characters	Focus on both sides of the argument with opinion demonstrated through the use of first person
Genre	Structured with salutation Declarative mood to impart information	Declarative mood to give information	Declarative mood to give information Use of the past tense to show reported event	Declarative mood to give information Use of rhetorical questions to persuade

Table 7-10 shows that 5N understands how to construct the genre and interpersonal metafunction of a text and that there is, perhaps, a clearer understanding of how to construct ideational metafunction by the end of the interventions. There is a sense that the final piece of writing is more controlled and makes a more considered use of language and syntax choices available to the participant: she adapts and alters her language in each individual piece of writing according to the type of text she is constructing.

7.5.4. Cross-participant analysis Class 5

Both participants showed that they can control their language to fulfil the interpersonal metafunction of the texts they are writing and therefore they can control the way a text is received. The participants both seem to be heavily influenced by the intervention lesson with their final pieces demonstrating that they can adapt and control their language and syntax according to their writing task. There is some general use, similar to other classes, of the

declarative tone in order to fulfil genre but this, not only seems to be in keeping with the rest of the year group, but genre was also not an intervention lesson focus and therefore more importance can be placed on the understanding of interpersonal metafunction and ideational metafunction.

It should also be noted that this teacher followed the structure of the given lesson plan exactly and included only the content either stipulated or provided and so strong links can be made between the data shown through the narrative and the intervention lessons themselves.

7.6. Class 6

7.6.1. Background and Constraints

This class was taught by a single teacher. The teacher's background was English Literature based for her first degree. However, her doctorate was in Education rooted in English vocabulary learning of EAL pupils; this can be broadly considered to be Linguistics based. The lessons were delivered as part of a whole cogent course which followed the scheme of work for the term [see Appendix 1]; therefore, the teacher had the ability to refer to prior learning in order to consolidate the learning in the intervention lessons. The intervention lessons were taught as specified by the lesson plan distributed by the researcher in timings and activities using the resources provided.

Both intervention lessons were conducted at the same time of the week as each other within the same lessons to ameliorate external factors such as the impact of the time of day on the participants' focus or response. The class was made up of fourteen pupils, one who withdrew at the participant consent stage resulting in thirteen participants taking part from this class. Out of the thirteen participants, three also undertook the 'thinking aloud' section of the study.

7.6.2. Participant 6H

Participant 6H was not a 'think aloud' participant. She was present for every element of the study including the intervention lessons. The participant had never been taught by the researcher.

7.6.2.1. Data

Six pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples to analyse the writing of this participant. Two data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O) and the *Sample written work* (W). Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. She was present to complete all elements of the study and for both intervention lessons.

7.6.2.2. Narrative

6H's first writing task [Appendix 101] was not completed in the thirty-minute allocated time period and the piece was handed in ending on an incomplete sentence. The writing which was handed in shows that there is some lack of understanding of how to construct interpersonal metafunction as the only reference to the text receiver used is the salutation: 'dear sir/madams' which is too general to indicate the relevance of the text receiver. Sentences are all written in the declarative tone, many begin with 'I' which shows some lack of variety and consideration of the impact of syntax. There is some use of evaluative language when describing how 'one teacher shockingly advised me…' which shows that there is some sense of opinion and understanding of how ideational metafunction can be created. As the text is not complete, and the final section would have been suggestions as to how to improve the school and therefore the most potentially persuasive element, the text's genre is being presented as a report or to impart information.

Participant 5H is an active participant in the modal intervention lesson. Her first utterance is to ask a question in order to clarify the freezeframe task:

> T6: we're just going to take questions before we start 6H a question
>
> P: can we do some acting before the freezeframe like and be like
>
> T6: you can do a very brief bit of acting before but no more than maybe two or three seconds (.) the main thing it the freeze ok right girls off you go on your freezeframes
>
> [lines 69-71 Appendix 99]

She then analyses another group's interpretation of a sentence focusing particularly on facial expression:

> T6: ok so how you would you describe urm (.) the look on 6O's face there (.) you ought to open the door please (.) 6H
>
> 6H: it sound patronising
>
> T6: very interesting
>
> [lines 135-138 Appendix 99]

And provides clarity for the rest of the class on what the Salvation Army do:

> T6: does everybody know what the salvation army is (/)

6H: yeah a charity

T6: yeah so tell us more 6H (.) they're a charity you're right kind of things do they do (/)

6H: I'm not really sure but I know they give out like clothes and cards and stuff to the homeless and to like people who are on the streets and stuff

[lines 183-188 Appendix 99]

She then goes on to answer a question outlined in the lesson plan on the advert provided which asks how the language reflects the purpose of the advert:

T6: urm ok don't worry I'll not give it to you then urm 6H choose instead of 6D

6H: urm the language is kind of like persuasive (.) and soft because like the person cannot actually force you to do anything (.) so it's using language like me (.) and will (.) and it's short it's trying to persuade you (.) and make you feel it's it's being quite direct saying this will help someone but it's also being like also being like kind of gentle saying that like rest assured everything will be fine and help them (.) so the language is kind of persuasive (.) and calm and soft

T6: absolutely (.) cos what could go wrong (.) if you were to (.) erm what could go wrong (.) for the charity if their tone was too strong or too abrasive

6H: well then people would feel feel like they were being attacked and being forced to give to give to the charity which no one wants cos the whole point of charity is that it's voluntary so they have to like appeal to like people's hearts and like their better sides rather than saying you have to do this (.) people are in danger it's better to approach people by saying you would be nice if you did this and everyone would be so happy

[lines 225-237 Appendix 99]

Later on in the lesson, she more explicitly discusses the force behind modals:

T6: let's talk about the modal verbs that we've met so far (.) and we're gonna put them on our spectrum yes 6H

6H: can and will are both quite strong

T6: absolutely (.) so (.) let's get the erm (.) our spectrum down first (.)

[lines 279-283 Appendix 99]

Finally, she considers the modal 'ought' and where this should be placed in comparison to the modals already considered considering their forcefulness:

> T6: ok one person please (.) so erm (.) as this is what's so interesting about it people have different perceptions so 6N has suggested that ought (.) should be towards the middle you ought to do something does anybody strongly disagree (/) and think that actually they want to put it either stronger or weaker (/) 6H what do you think (/)
>
> 6H: I think ought should be slightly weaker be-not because it is towards the end and should should be towards the middle but because ought is like is a bit it's more archaic (.) so it was it is something that someone who is not as forceful would say even if it has the same meaning it just wouldn't be said in the same context as should so should would be used in a more forceful context than ought
>
> [lines 303-309 Appendix 99]

6H's participation in the first intervention lesson is interesting in that she engages with every key element concerning modal verbs. She also considers the interpersonal metafunction and genre of texts in her response to how the language reflects the purpose. There is a clearly a conscious interaction with the ways in which texts can have an impact on the text receiver and how this might be established in her own writing. In the writing completed in the lesson, 6H shows that she can construct a clear interpersonal metafunction in her own texts with the use 'will' to show the dominance and authority of the text producer and 'should' to persuade. This shows that she is highly capable of using the language choices presented to her in the lesson: her letter is from a mother (Lady Capulet) to a daughter (Juliet) and so the tone should be both authoritative and persuasive: 'You may not love Paris now, but you can learn to love him.'. By controlling her use of modal verbs, 6H constructs a clear interpersonal metafunction and genre.

In the post-modal-intervention writing task [Appendix 103] 6H constructs a highly persuasive text through using the repeated direct references of 'you', 'your' and 'mother': 'Really, mother, marrying Paris could do us more good than harm'. There is a controlled use of modal verbs including 'would', 'should', 'will' and 'could' which are less forceful and more persuasive in tone. There is also a use of the verb 'beg' and 'please' which add a pleading tone: 'I beg of you, please cancel the marriage…'. Although predominantly declarative sentences are used, there is one use of interrogative: 'What would I do then?' to evoke sympathy. Overall, 6H shows a clear understanding of how to construct genre in this piece. There is also a use of

formal language in the main, but the use of exclamatory tone: 'Think of the scandal and shame that would bring to our family!' as well as the use of inclusive 'our' shortens the social distance between text producer and text receiver. Through this, 6H shows a clear understanding of how to construct interpersonal metafunction demonstrating a clear relationship between text producer and text receiver.

During the passive-intervention lesson, 6H asks a few irrelevant questions at the start of the lesson about handing in a previous prep task. The only other time she participates in the lesson is to respond to a question about what one of the sentences in the first resource is 'missing':

> T6: oh kay 6H what does it not have (/)
>
> 6H: instrument
>
> [lines 92-91 Appendix 100]

Here, 6H is simply identifying an element of the sentence using the terminology introduced in the lesson by the teacher. This shows that she is aware of the different elements of a sentence which may be manipulated. In her writing from this lesson, 6H shows that she can use the passive to have a particular, and intentional, impact on the reader: 'Mercutio was killed by a small cut to his side…'. In the reflective section of her work, 6H states that she 'used the passive to explain how Mercutio died. I wanted the readers to feel pity, not anger, over his death. To want to grieve with the Prince not to incite hatred or questions about who killed him.'. By writing in the passive and leaving out the part of the sentence which allocates blame, 6H successfully controls her syntax showing a good understanding of how to construct ideational metafunction.

In the post-passive writing task [Appendix 105], 6H shows that she is capable of controlling her syntax in order to place blame on a particular party; therefore, altering the readers' perceptions of events. At the beginning of the newspaper report it is written that '…he was abandoned on the island by his crew…' which is followed later in the report by '…I believe the crew of 'The Golden Sparrow' are more to blame for their complacency…'. This opinion is demonstrated early through the manipulation of syntax showing a clear understanding of how to construct ideational metafunction. There is also use of two interviews with characters, and the report is written in the past tense, which also shows some understanding of how to create the genre of an informative newspaper report. The use of first person does, however, lend too much of an opinion to the text which is mitigated by the fact that the text producer has

responded to the interviews which are reproduced in the article. Overall, there is evidence to suggest that 6H understands how to create genre and ideational metafunction.

In the final writing task, 6H shows that she is adept at constructing genre and interpersonal metafunction. There is a clear relationship demonstrated between the text producer and text receiver through the use of 'our' in 'our school' which indicates a shared space and minimal social distance. There is a variety of modals used including 'could', 'would', 'may' and 'will' all of which are used within contexts which indicate they are not forceful but are used to soften an opinion. There is also a sound construction of genre in that the article outlines the concept early in the article to ensure that the text's receivers understand the concept being discussed; therefore, fulfilling the genre of an opinion piece or informative article. The use of a rhetorical question: '…is this really the direction the school should go in?' shows that 6H has considered how to persuade a reader and engage them with both sides of the argument. Overall, the participant shows a clear understanding of how to construct both interpersonal metafunction and genre of text; however, there is a lack of evidence to state that there is complete understanding of how to construct ideational metafunction.

7.6.2.3. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 6H demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-11 below.

Table 7-11: 6H's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language	Use of 'will' and 'should', 'would', 'could' Second person and direct referencing 'you', 'your' and 'you, mother' Use of 'please' and 'beg' to show desperation Use of 'our' decreases social distance Use of exclamations for informality	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text Formal language used	Formal language used Use of 'could', 'would', 'may' and 'will' to show authority and opinion Use of 'our' reduces social distance
Ideational Metafunction		Focus is primarily on Paris with evaluative language to discuss this character	Use of interviews of multiple characters Manipulation of syntax to place blame on characters	Outline of concept to explain to the reader
Genre	Structured with salutation Declarative mood to impart information	Declarative mood to give information Use of imperatives Use of interrogatives	Declarative mood to give information Use of the past tense to show reported event	Declarative mood to give information Use of rhetorical questions to persuade

Table 7-11 shows that 6H responds to intervention lessons successfully in that there is evidence to suggest that she understands how to construct the interpersonal metafunction and genre for each different type of text she is writing. This is shown through her ability to

react to the different text types as well as how she can control her language and sentence structure across the different types of tasks. The difference between the evidence demonstrated in the first writing task to that demonstrated in the final task may indicate that she has been influenced by the intervention material and, by the time she completes the final writing task, she has more language options available to her in order to construct the various aspects of the texts she is writing.

7.6.3. Participant 6L

Participant 6L was also a 'think aloud' participant. She was present for every element of the study including the intervention lessons. The participant had never been taught by the researcher.

7.6.3.1. Data

Eight pieces of data were used to provide a wide scope of examples to analyse the writing of this participant. Two data sources were used for this analysis: *Lesson Observation* (O) and the *Sample written work* (W). Her writing samples across all writing tasks and intervention lessons were also used to provide as full a description as possible. She was present to complete all elements of the study and for both intervention lessons expect for the second 'think aloud' task- for this, she completed the writing task in her own time without being recorded thinking aloud.

7.6.3.2. Narrative

6L's first writing task [Appendix 107] is primarily written to inform and, therefore, impart information to the text receiver. Her use of declarative sentences throughout, as well as the text being written in the past tense, shows that she is outlining events which have already occurred and that she is writing the text as a report. There is some use of direct refencing with 'I am writing to you today…' and '…to inform you…' which indicates there is some awareness of the text receiver and shows some understanding of how to construct genre. There is some lack of understanding of how to construct interpersonal metafunction as the salutation is 'dear sir/madams' which is too general to indicate the relevance of the text receiver. The description, which uses evaluative language, of the way in which the teachers behave (of which the text producer is supposed to be a part) is highly derogatory: 'They have terrible work ethics…' which shows that 6L has very little understanding of how to communicate social status or construct this within their writing. There is a use of modals towards the end of the task, when the text producer is making suggestions for change: 'You could…' is repeated twice which, although showing direct referencing, lacks some force and the required authority to be

persuasive. However, there is some awareness here of interpersonal metafunction; the tentative tone suggesting that the text producer is aware that the text receiver holds power. In her 'think aloud' [Appendix 108] which accompanied the writing task, 6L states that 'I feel like you need to be quite simply and plain in what you do in what you put on the page..' which shows that, despite, the complexity of the writing task, she is aware of the text receiver and, to some extent, the genre of the piece.

In the first intervention lesson focusing on modals, 6L discusses the freeze frame and the meaning around the phrase 'you may open the door' with her partner in front of the class:

> T6: ok (.) so (.) urm just a second 6C so between the two of you (.) was there one of you's (.) giving the order and one of you who was listening or did you not think about that (/)
>
> 6J: hmm it was more like out of the three it's more like more like opening the door for one of your friends opening the door for one of the girls rather than opening the door for one of the teachers (.)
>
> 6L: it's more like a statement like you may open the door for one of your friends (.) you just like go up to (.) it wasn't really like verbal
>
> P: oh I see that's really clever
>
> T6: ok (.) ok so it was more mutual (.) so it's more erm
>
> 6L: [yeah
>
> T6: so (.) you may open the door erm (.) were you thinking of one person being (.) higher than another or were they more (.) equal (/)
>
> 6L: they were just equal
>
> T6: [a level of equality ok very interesting indeed ok thank you very much girls give them a clap
>
> [lines 92-105 Appendix 99]

Here, the exploration of who may be using the modal 'may' and to whom shows that there is some consideration of interpersonal metafunction and how the modal itself may indicate the type of relationship between text producer and text receiver. The focus and understanding of how to construct interpersonal metafunction is also replicated in 6L's writing from during the

intervention lesson where she uses 'You ought to think of…'and 'you may want to remember how…' to establish that the relationship between text producer and text receiver is one in which there is some power difference between the two but that their relationship is close enough to for them to communicate on a more equal basis.

In her second writing task [Appendix 110], 6L shows the ability to construct a clear interpersonal metafunction within her writing. There is a use of a range of modals including 'will' to show certainty of Paris' unsuitability, 'would' to show authority of the fact that the marriage would not work and more tentative modals such as 'can' and 'may' which are used to suggest that there could be the possibility of a better marriage match. The text is highly persuasive through the application of these modals but it also shows that there is a close relationship between the text producer and the text receiver as they demonstrate that there is a minimal social distance between the two. There is also a clear genre established through the use of direct referencing 'mother', 'you' and 'your daughter' throughout which increases the persuasive elements of the text. There is a use of a range of sentence types, predominantly declarative to show certainty but also interrogatives or rhetorical questions which draw attention to the more emotive concepts. The use of inclusive 'we' and 'our' throughout in the context of 'our family' shows unity and a sense that the text producer and text receiver have the same aims; again, a highly persuasive trait of the writing. Overall, 6L shows through her writing that she has a clear understanding of how to construct both interpersonal metafunction and genre through the language and syntactical decisions she makes.

In the second intervention lesson focusing on the passive, 6L responds to a question about the sentences provided and the elements shown within the sentence:

> T6: oh kay (.) fantastic urm number two (.) the man smashed the window (2.0) interesting so what do you notice what's the difference (/) between number one and number two 6L
>
> P: there's no instrument in that sentence there's only a subject and an object
>
> [line 82-84 Appendix 100]

Here, it is clear that she is able to discuss language on a sentence level and apply the terms which have been introduced to describe the elements of the sentences provided. She also responds to a question which focuses on the type of text one of the sentences might be included within:

T6: oh kay what so so for example (.) what I'm getting at is what (.) what kind of (.) writing or what kind of (.) document or what kind of situation might you hear this sort of (.) sentence in 6L

6L: maybe like a law report (.) cos

T6: oh kay

6L: cos they might say this is what happened the window was smashed by the man

[lines 177-181 Appendix 100]

It can be seen from this exchange that 6L has some understanding of what type of language may indicate that the genre of the text is informative: the idea that 'they might say this is what happened' indicates that she has a good awareness of the fact that reports would include facts from reported events in the past. This shows that she has some understanding of how to construct the genre of a piece of writing. Her writing from the lesson shows that she is able to use the passive construction in order to (as she states in her reflection) 'balance/neutralise the blame presented'. Her use of the passive: 'Tybalt of House Capulet was killed by Romeo of house Montague…' shows that she is able to control the passive construction within her writing and that she is consciously aware of trying to impact the text receiver.

In the writing task post-passive intervention [Appendix 112], 6L showed that she had a clear understanding of how to construct genre with the use of the past tense to report events which had already occurred as well as multiple interviews with characters to show the variety of opinions of the events which transpired. There was no evidence, however, of the use of the passive construction in order to avoid or neutralise blame; instead, there was a balanced opinion provided by the text producer in first person which would indicate an opinion or argument. The use of third person to refer to the characters of the events showed 6L understands how to construct interpersonal metafunction in these types of texts and the detail of the description of events indicates that the text producer and text receiver have a great social distance in that they do not share the same social space. In her 'think aloud' recording [Appendix 113], 6L clearly shows that she has a conscious understanding of how to construct genre: 'we need to be kind of reporting…' and 'I might need to make sure it mentions senses to it's sets the scene so it's better…'. Overall, there is a lack of evidence to suggest an understanding of ideational metafunction and how to manipulate the representation of events to impact or alter the text receiver's views of reported events.

6L's final piece of writing [Appendix 114] there is a sense of understanding of how to construct genre with the use of past tense to report the trial of the scheme in other schools as well as interviews with two different characters within the article. However, the article's structure does not establish a clear genre: 'Last Monday, I had the opportunity to go see and interview the Principal…' is narrative and informal in tone which does not fit with the genre requested by the question of a school magazine article in that there is little explanation or description of the scheme under question. There is a use of first person throughout to indicate a personal response or opinion showing that there is some awareness of how to construct ideational metafunction. There is also a careful use of modals such as 'may', 'could' and 'would' which infer a tentative tone in order to make suggestions of how the scheme might transpire in the future. Overall, 6L shows that she understands how to establish genre and ideational metafunction but there is a lack of evidence to suggest that a confident understanding of interpersonal metafunction.

7.6.3.3. Understanding of writing tasks

To engage with whether the participant understood the writing tasks completed throughout the study and any change that could be seen, this section used the following data sources: *Analysis of questions and resources provided* (R) and *Sample Written Work* (W).

The ways in which participant 6L demonstrated understanding of the writing tasks within the writing samples collected is shown in Table 7-12 below.

Table 7-12: 6L's understanding of writing tasks

Area of SFL	Task 1 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 2 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 3 Evidence to suggest understanding	Task 4 Evidence to suggest understanding
Interpersonal Metafunction	First person showing authority Declarative mood to impart information Formal address used as well as formal language	Use of 'will' and 'can' and 'may' 'would' Second person and direct referencing 'you', 'your' and ' mother' and 'your daughter' Use of 'please' and 'beg' to show desperation Use of 'our' and 'we' decreases social distance	Use of third person in reference to the characters of the text Formal language used	Formal language used Use of 'could', 'would', 'may' to show authority and opinion
Ideational Metafunction		Focus is primarily on Paris with evaluative language to discuss this character	Use of interviews of multiple characters	Use of multiple interviews with different characters
Genre	Structured with salutation Declarative mood to impart information	Declarative mood to give information Use of interrogatives	Declarative mood to give information Use of the past tense to show reported event	Declarative mood to give information Use of past tense

Table 7-12 shows that 6L has a varying degree of understanding of the requirements of the writing tasks and how to construct the various aspects of these. The third writing task and the final writing task are very similar, particularly in their evidence to suggest the understanding of genre which indicates there has been no adaptation of language or syntax according to the piece being constructed. This seems to suggest that there is very little distinction made by 6L between newspaper articles and magazine articles which may infer that it is the sub-categories of texts which may be more complex to differentiate and construct. There is some evidence to suggest that 6L understands how to establish interpersonal metafunction through her writing as this has been altered and adapted according to the type of writing she is creating. The

construction of ideational metafunction also lacks substantial evidence to suggest that it is being controlled according to task and it can, therefore, be suggested that the understanding here is limited.

7.6.4. Cross-participant analysis Class 6

Both participants showed that their understanding of how to construct the interpersonal metafunction and the ideational metafunction of texts had deepened following all intervention lessons. There was some indication that participants could find it difficult to engage with the more subtle nuances of genre when writing texts which are a sub-category of a text which has a more general purpose. However, overall, there was an alteration in the way the participants used language and syntax between the first writing tasks and the final writing tasks they completed.

It should again be noted, in a similar way to TGV, that this teacher followed the structure of the given lesson plan exactly and included only the content either stipulated or provided and so strong links can be made between the data shown through the narrative and the intervention lessons themselves.

7.7. Summary

These participant narratives are useful in order to compare the pre and post intervention understanding of pupils. The use of chronological reporting allows the participant's journeys to be considered in a holistic fashion.

It can be seen from this data that participants were predominantly influenced by the content of the intervention lessons and that this altered their understanding of how to construct their writing. There are interesting differences in the abilities of each participant, given their presence in the same intervention lessons, by the end of the investigation. There are multiple instances where participants have misread the question, particularly under exam conditions. It could be concluded from these instances that Functional Linguistics allows a clearer construction of ideational metafunction, interpersonal metafunction and genre rather than ensuring that participants understand writing tasks or questions. The nature of the effect therefore might be not the understanding of the question but understanding how to construct a text which has a text producer and a text receiver- giving language options and choices to allow fulfilment of this.

CHAPTER 8. DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the analyses of the data and interprets this analysis. The discussion is linked back to the current educational climate and research which has taken place recently in the area of grammar and writing. This section answers the research questions directly. This chapter also begins to suggest why the study is important and how it fits with current discussion around this topic.

8.1. Introduction

Although the study has considered an area (in regards grammar and writing) which has received so much attention in recent years, it does provide a current view and much-needed different perspective on how to teach grammar. Grammar holds a place in both the primary-level *National Literacy Strategies* (DfEE, 1998) as well as the *English Programme of Study* (National Curriculum, 2013), receiving much critical discussion concerning its more formal re-entry into SATs testing (gov. uk (accessed 2017)). It also holds a place within the secondary level Framework for teaching *English: Years 7, 8 and 9* (DfEs, 2001) alongside having a notable presence in qualifications such as the CIE IGCSE English Literature and CIE IGCSE English Language (see Chapter 3) both of which are used as a framework in the study. Although grammar is embedded in such a wide range of our education system, there still seems little by way of guidance, or even choice, in the way that it is taught. When there is guidance, this seems to be as prescriptive as the schools of grammar to which teachers seem naturally opposed. Grammar teaching continues to be an area which is contested and 'emotionally-charged' (Watson, 2001:223) with no objective discussion leading the way. This current study, rather than questioning why teachers should be teaching grammar seeks to provide an answer as to how grammar should be taught or, more specifically, whether there are more effective ways of approaching grammar teaching. The study provides an alternative method of teaching grammar to develop the metalinguistic understanding of learners so that they are more able to control and apply their knowledge of grammar (Gombert, 2003) to their writing.

There is important evidence to indicate that the method of teaching grammar which is used does have an influence on writing but that the result is very much dependent on the way in which grammar is introduced and embedded, or contextualised, within the teaching. Therefore, the study has also made a significant contribution through showing that there can be a purposeful relationship between grammar and writing and that Functional Linguistics (FL) strategies can be used as a framework in which to structure this relationship. It also provides a potential solution to the problem of teachers' linguistics knowledge, and its limitations (QCA

1998; Myhill et al., 2012), by demonstrating that grammar can be taught, and in some cases should be taught, without the, in these cases, burdening element of linguistic terminology. Moreover, it provides a practical method of teaching grammar which has been developed, tested and presented by a practitioner for practitioners - it is 'user friendly' and does not try to avoid or ignore the complexities of an educational setting. It has also shown some lack of understanding on the part of current educational practitioner guidance on teaching and learning and demonstrated the, seemingly obvious, disparity between 'teaching' and 'learning'. Alongside this, it also outlines original methods of data analysis in the form of word frequency tests which provide a new and interesting way of considering the relationship between utterances in a classroom setting.

8.2. Answering the research questions

8.2.1 What type of relationship is created between writing and metalinguistic understanding when learners are taught using Functional Linguistics strategies?

The study supplies evidence which supports the claim that a combination of CG and SFL approaches to teaching grammar have an influence on the writing of Year 9 learners. This is indicated in Chapter 7 and the narratives of selected participants and demonstrated through the relationships shown in the diagrams in Chapter 6. There are many examples which show that pupils are much more inclined to construct an appropriate interpersonal metafunction, ideational metafunction and genre for the text they are constructing after the intervention lessons. Participants, therefore, had an increased awareness of the text receiver and purpose of the texts they were constructing and exemplified this in their writing through a controlled application of language or a 'wilful manipulation' of language (Van Lier, 2010:136). This can be seen in those instances where a participant makes a conscious decision about how to alter the language that they have already used in their writing to achieve an effect on the reader:

'well I don't think I should include the fists and rage bit cos we're trying to make Selkirk sound like the hero and make him sound vulnerable' [Appendix 31]

The writing of Participant 1G (above) shows that there is some explicit reference to language leading to alteration of the piece of writing. There are also instances in which the participant discusses how they will manipulate their language to have an impact on the reader before writing:

'now she can really guilt trip her mother (.) and say I am pouring my heart out to you'

[Appendix 75]

Here, the participant is showing that she is capable of purposeful manipulation which is a development of understanding (See Chapter 2). As this shows that there is a development in metalinguistic understanding, this indicates that the relationship between writing and metalinguistic understanding is strengthened when using Functional Linguistics strategies. Participants showed that, post intervention lesson, they considered the text receiver more carefully than prior to the intervention lesson taking place demonstrating a change or alteration in the way that they approached writing tasks.

It seems that Functional Linguistics strategies provide a method of gaining declarative knowledge which is the precursor to procedural knowledge (Gombert, 1992). As seen in the data from the intervention lessons, participants can discuss the rules and principles of the grammatical concepts under question. When 2L states that the modal 'ought' 'sounds more aggressive like' [Appendix 39] it is clearly shown that she is adding to the class discussion of the exploration of the meaning of the grammatical concept. Therefore, aiding her writing by deliberately 'structuring of the web of meaning' (Vygotsky, 1986: 191). It is this confidence in the discussion of the impact of both the modal and passive constructions which allows participants to then replicate and put this knowledge into action with the greatest effect. It can then be said that teaching grammar using Functional Linguistics strategies makes the connection, and therefore the relationship, between writing and metalinguistic understanding more direct.

8.2.2 In what ways does the use of contextualised grammar teaching using Functional Linguistics strategies allow writers to engage with texts?

The ways in which learners could potentially engage with writing tasks have been outlined and framed in Chapter 2 in which Cognitive Linguistics is linked to Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). There are a range of different ways in which both areas of Linguistics enable pupils to engage with language and its meaning. Both this and the ontological stance of the study being that reality is seen as mentally and subjectively constructed (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013) makes it unsurprising that there were multiple, varied, ways in which pupils can engage with the texts. This is true of both the texts that were being analysed and the texts that were being constructed. The way that this question can be answered, therefore, is not just through considering the potential options available to pupils when engaging with texts, but what exactly individual pupils have engaged with and whether there are any trends within the

analysis. These trends look particularly for patterning in the areas of the texts with which the pupils engaged.

The ways in which the FL strategies enable pupils to engage with the meaning of the grammatical concepts taught in the intervention lessons are clear. Cognitive Grammar (CG) or 'Space Grammar' (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999) allows pupils to explore grammatical concepts through physical exploration. The more kinaesthetic approach also allows the type of complex grammatical concepts introduced through the intervention lessons to be accessible to these types of learners (Gardener, 1983). The use of freezeframes engages pupils in a new way as exemplified by participant 2H's statement when commencing the planning of her group's freezeframes: 'we've never done anything like this before' [line 38, Appendix 39]. This means that the strategy enabled pupils to approach grammar from a new perspective which avoids negative, and potentially damaging, bias against grammar. This is also true of the teachers; it has previously documented that teachers' beliefs can affect their pedagogical practice (Findlay, 2010; Nespor, 1987; Poulson, Avramidid, Ox, Medwell & Wray, 2001). By providing a 'new' alternative to teaching grammar, both teachers and pupils' previously constructed negative opinions about grammar can be avoided. The study provides a different and interesting way for pupils to engage with texts which is exemplified through the pupils' reactions to the tasks. TGVI is a good example of this where the lesson intervention transcript shows the group laughing together in response to several of the freezeframes exploring the meaning of the modal verbs; this laughter is convivial within its context and shows that pupils' responses are positive.

The investigation shows that the CG approach enables pupils to explore and create an 'actual bodied experience' (Hope, 2012) and the grammatical concept being used which allows the meaning of the concept to be explored. This was shown through the types of questions which the teachers used when considering the freezeframes produced by the pupils which were predominantly 'why' questions. This type of open questioning is exemplified when T1 asks 'tell me a little bit about why you're holding your body and things like that (/)' [line 9, Appendix 25]. An exploration of language is therefore initiated in the classes when the freezeframes take place which allows pupils to engage with language in a creative and meaningful way. This reflects ideas which advocate movement as a learning tool as meaning derives from movement and the physical grasping of forms (Gallagher, 2005; Gibbs, 2005).

The types of sentences which were provided for the CL tasks also enabled pupils to engage with the subtlety of the meaning of language. Distinctions between the forcefulness of modal

verbs enabled pupils to argue and deliberate over the context in which the specified grammatical concept would be used. As T6 states when the class are considering the forcefulness of the modal verbs under question: 'as this is what's so interesting about it people have different perceptions' [line 302, Appendix 99]. This demonstrates that CG enables pupils to engage with texts in a range of different ways and gives them confidence as readers to discuss their own interpretations of grammatical concepts.

The study also used a way of teaching grammar which can be objectively considered as fun as demonstrated by the laughter and interest shown by the pupils in the transcripts particularly when completing the freezeframes. The unique way of teaching grammar suggests a potential way of avoiding issues such as pupils being unable to retain grammatical metalanguage and teachers' negative emotional response to teaching grammar (Watson, 2012). As Pomphrey and Moger (1999) suggest: this can prevent teachers from engaging with questions about language and structure and so it is important that the study provides a method of teaching grammar which supports teachers. Different methods should empower them to explore language at a level which is beneficial to pupils' knowledge. This is shown through the types of discussions that the teachers in the study were having in intervention lessons. These discussions focused on the reader's receptions and feelings when receiving the text which ultimately made the intervention lessons pupil led. This is exemplified well by TGV when the teacher is questioning a single pupil on the real-life text provided in the given resource: an advert from the Salvation Army:

> T5: yes so you think the guilt (.) works on the reader to encourage them (.) to do what the salvation army feel would help people the most when they feel lonely at Christmas so it's a very persuasive task isn't it (.) how does the language use here reflect that purpose (/)
>
> P: they also say if you <u>can</u> do this you <u>will</u> do this (.) I mean if you want to do it they say this card will be given so they're already telling you will do it
>
> T5: ah so the level of presumption (.) that yeah so it's a I mean I don't think it's (.) it's harsh to use the word manipulation (.) but sometimes when you're in a charity when else are you going to get money you have to work on people somehow use all the tactics in your armoury so you're right there's that level of assumption (.) urm which which perhaps would would would (.) would stop the reader considering not doing it that's very clever (.) yes

P: in a way they're just trying to guilt trip the reader

T5: go on

P: they're like urm (.) urm like (?) you like someone cares

[lines 110-122 Appendix 85]

Here, the teacher is enabled through the focus on the reader (and therefore, the pupil) in her questioning of the meaning of the grammatical concept. The use of a real-life text and the introduction provided by the CG strategies are evidenced as an enabling factor in initiating discussions which explore meaning. This is a characteristic required by Carter's definition of contextualised grammar which outlines that grammar must introduce language in context in order to be able to explore meaning (Carter, 1990). The study also supports the idea that teaching grammar in a contextualised way has a beneficial impact on pupils' writing (Myhill, 2012). All teachers, even though they were all trained in other areas than English Language or linguistics, demonstrated some confidence in their ability to discuss language at both word and sentence level. This was shown in the frequency of these words in the intervention lessons: 'word' was used very frequently in the modal intervention lessons and 'sentence' very frequently in the passive intervention lessons.

Teacher-led discussions in the intervention lessons were focused on reader reception and feelings when receiving the text leading to an exploration of this area. The questions to initiate these discussions were outlined on the intervention lesson plans [Appendix 3 and Appendix 4]; therefore, the discussions which were conducted can be attributed to the CG approach. Given the predominance of the use of the word 'feel' in the intervention lessons, the study clearly shows that Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) teaching strategies allowed pupils to engage with the texts on the level of both creator and receiver. The idea that language can be used to create 'guilt' in the reader was suggested across multiple intervention lessons – an idea which was not explicitly suggested in the type of questions given in the lesson plan [see in the section of transcript above]. Therefore, the study supports researchers such as Perera (1987) who distinguish between what teachers need to know about language and what they need to teach as it demonstrates that the use of metalinguistic terminology is not necessary in order to explore the texts' social purposes. This suggests that pupils can therefore learn about, and explore, grammar without needing to use metalinguistic terminology. The study does not suggest an explicit application of Linguistics but an implicit application through pedagogy. This can be seen through the lack of metalinguistic terminology used in the intervention lessons.

There is a clear distinction, however, between the modal intervention lesson and the passive intervention lesson. The modal intervention lesson plan does not include any suggested definitions or metalinguistic language. Those teachers who used definitions for modal verb:

> T4: we're talking about modals today which you use when you're talking about how certain probable or possible (.) something is
>
> [lines 435-436 Appendix 69]

did so of their own volition. However, the passive intervention lesson outlined some terminology: agent, instrument, object, subject, verb which can be considered to be grammatical metalinguistic terminology. The study demonstrates that there was a closer correlation between pupils' use of language and teachers' use of language in the passive intervention lessons. This can be interpreted as supporting claims which suggest that learning metalinguistic terminology can limit pupils' exploration of language (Graham & Perin, 2007). As pupils in the passive intervention lesson simply replicated their teacher's use of terminology the correlation was stronger in comparison to the weaker correlation seen in the modal intervention lesson. The discussion was considered successful in the passive intervention lesson if they had identified the correct element of the sentence. This is exemplified in TGII's passive intervention lesson where the discussion is halted when the pupil correctly identifies the missing element of the focus sentence:

> T2: …what have we got in play there (/) agent target or instrument (/)
>
> P: urm agent
>
> T2: [we've got agent and target (.) the man smashed the window (.) we don't have an instrument (1.0) hence (.) it's been very interestingly done earlier (.) was (?) portraying the instrument or not (/) oh kay fantastic so number three the window was smashed by the man
>
> P: target and agent
>
> T2: target and agent (.) yeah with no instrument good number four
>
> P: Instrument and target
>
> T2: Instrument and target very crucially no agent yeah and number five
>
> P: Instrument and target
>
> P: No target

T2: Target yup so why is that interesting what are we learning so far

P: Don't know

[laughter]

P: That we that we don't need an agent and the and a instrument all the time to be

T2: Yeah to create to convey a message to create meaning that's super this is very much the point of the lesson to use the passive voice successfully so we can actually subtley change the meaning just as our lesson on modal verbs did ok great

[lines 132- 141 Appendix 40]

Thus, the exploration of the meaning of the grammatical concept is limited as the learning of the grammatical metalinguistic terminology takes precedent over the more ambiguous discussion of meaning. In this way, the passive intervention lesson was more limited in the ways it allowed pupils to engage with the texts that they were both considering as receivers and constructing themselves. In comparison, the type of CG methods used in the modal intervention lessons allowed pupils to fully develop and explore aspects of the text such as how language of the text can be manipulated in order to have a specific effect on a reader. This is exemplified in TGII:

T2: yeah good firm is a key word isn't this a teacher's word (/) you mean I mean not exclusively but (.) you ought to really do your prep this evening (.) so there's a sense of (.) maybe suggestion (/) kind of mature suggestion yeah

P: it's quite like passive aggressive

T2: a ha interesting

P: [it's not like it's kind of saying basically you must but in a kind of nicer way because if it was saying like you ought to open the door you should probably open the door now (.) like you should probably do that

[lines 115-122 Appendix 39]

This shows how the class begin to naturally discuss the meaning behind the modal verb 'ought' as well as the type of context in which it might be used. In this case, this can be directly linked to the interpersonal metafunction of a text. It is important to note that in this case no grammatical metalinguistic terminology is used; therefore, the study supports prior research which may suggest that pupils do not have to learn this terminology to learn about grammar

(Andrews, 2005; Myhill et al., 2008). Therefore, the study shows that combing CG and SFL does allow pupils to engage with texts in a myriad of ways. The ways in which pupils engage with texts can be seen to be partially dependent on the way that the approach is packaged and its delivery by practitioners. It is, therefore, important to also consider how pupils responded to understand which aspects translated into the individual realities of the pupils in the classroom.

The study provides evidence to suggest that pupils engaged with a variety of aspects of the texts which they were constructing. The most revealing examples of this were the texts which were produced post-intervention. Whilst writing these pieces, pupils made comments during their think aloud recordings which considered the text receiver and how to construct their text to control or manipulate their reader's emotions. One example of this is 4C on discussing her letter from Juliet to Lady Capulet:

> 'I would like which sounds more demanding which is kind of good to change the tone maybe (.) to make her in control instead of lady capulet'
>
> [lines 37-39]

This shows that there is an explicit consideration of how the participant would like to construct their text to alter the relationship with, or manipulate, the text receiver. This indicates that the study provides evidence for SFL allowing pupils to engage with the way that they construct text as well as the way that they understand text. The study therefore supports prior research which suggests that the teaching of grammar can impact writing (Myhill et al., 2008). Not only this, but the study shows evidence to suggest that pupils have control over their sentence structures post passive intervention. Several pupils made comment on the way in which they could structure their sentences in the post-passive think aloud recordings. Participant 4G outlines how she places emphasis on different ideas by fronting clauses in her post-passive intervention writing:

> when selkirk realised that none of the crew or his belongings would stay with him he immediately changed his tone stradling was (.) no actually once selkirk heard realised no urm heard of the punishment (.) cos that would change his tone heard of his punishment and realising that none of the crew or his belongings would stay with him he immediately changed his tone (.)
>
> [lines 87-91 Appendix 75]

She clearly states that the inclusion and fronting of the additional clause 'heard of his punishment' alters the tone of the sentence. This would indicate that SFL could be one

method of enabling pupils to gain understanding of the control that they have over their writing. This may enable them to meet GCSE and IGCSE mark schemes which stipulate that pupils must 'vary sentences for clarity, purpose and effect' (DCSF & QCA, 2008:5) to gain marks. Therefore, SFL approaches may provide an effective alternative pedagogy for teaching grammar towards the current examination specifications.

Overall trends across the year group show that combining CG and SFL approaches had an impact on pupils' writing. There is evidence to show that pupils engaged with the more interpersonal metafunction of the texts they were both reading and constructing when methods were used to teach modal verbs. Pupils were more likely to discuss the relationship between text producer and text receiver during the intervention lesson and throughout post intervention think aloud tasks. This is exemplified by TGIII when they are discussing the real-life text provided in the modal intervention lesson:

> T3: good urm what urm three what is the relationship between the person writing the text and the person reading the text? So you're the person reading the text er maybe imagine you are the person reading the text and you got this through your door er what's the relationship between you and the person who wrote it er 3N
>
> 3N: well if you were the one receiving that through your door the person writing it is trying not like guilt trip you but kind of like make you feel bad for all the people who are homeless so the- that you'll give them the card so they will be happy
>
> T3: good good so they're sort of urm an emotional element to that relationship yeah?
>
> P: also it's kind of like you know when your parents like before when you were a child like you should be kind you should help people no yeah yeah so basically your mum makes you do good things right? Like makes you do good stuff for charity and like be kind of like a parent being like you should be a good person
>
> [lines 212-223 Appendix 52]

The class explore the context of the text and when it would, and should, be used in real-life situations. CG strategies, therefore, being used at the start of the lesson, enable pupils to engage with the interpersonal metafunction of the text – an SFL approach. Trends suggest that this was the case across all the modal intervention lessons. However, evidence suggests that it was the ideational metafunction with which pupils were more likely to engage with when CG methods were used to teach the passive voice. Here, pupils were more likely to discuss the

structure of the sentence and how to manipulate syntax than the impact on the text receiver. This can be seen in, as a direct comparison, in TGIII:

> T3: ok good good good (.) what was lacking there (/) was lacking in sentence two (/)
>
> P: instrument
>
> T3: instrument we are not given an instrument (.) errrrmmm
>
> P: I'm guessing the man is the instrument
>
> P: yeah exactly
>
> T3: in the sentence the man is the (.) no no I think he is the agent (.) I think he is not employed as the instrument (.) what you want to say I don't agree (.) you have a good argument for it (.) but I wouldn't I wouldn't that doesn't mean I'm right
>
> [lines 75-82 Appendix 53]

Here, the discussion is much more focused on the structure of the sentences rather than the meaning behind them. Therefore, in the passive intervention lessons, pupils engage much more with the ideational metafunction of the text; this area is much more limited in its scope.

These trends were also prevalent in the data which were taken to outline the frequency of pupils' words in intervention lessons. This evidence suggests that the intervention lesson on modal verbs enabled more developed discussion of interpersonal metafunction. The evidence also suggests that the intervention lesson on the passive voice enabled more developed discussion of ideational metafunction. The writing tasks completed during the lesson also show these trends. During the intervention lessons, the completion of a section to reflect upon their writing enabled pupils to demonstrate what they had learnt. These reflections invariably contained words or phrases which had been used within the discussion of the meaning of the grammatical construct. In TGVI, the teacher requested that this was done as peer assessment:

> 'This piece is persuasive forceful and guilt making which is really good! By using and giving all the benefits of marrying Paris which not only softens the 'will's and 'musts' but makes the marriage seem really beneficial for Juliet'
>
> [6B/01/03/17]

This shows that participants engaged with the discussion within the intervention lesson by replicating the use of language. It can then be stated that SFL approaches enabled pupils to

discuss the way that they construct their own writing and to analyse how other people construct text. This particularly focused on the ways in which they had controlled both their language and their syntax in their writing to have a specific impact on the text receiver. The study then supported previous studies which claim there is a link between writing and grammar teaching (Myhill et al., 2008).

There is still some ambiguity, however, concerning how explicitly grammar should be taught and whether teaching implicitly or explicitly has an impact on writing. The study looked particularly at what could be nationally perceived as more able writers. Grammar may not need to be taught explicitly to these writers in order to have an impact on their writing (Watson, 2010). Furthermore, the study does not consider whether the use of able pupils had an impact on the way in which pupils engaged with CL approaches. Previous studies have suggested that more able pupils can more easily engage with terminology and the level of abstraction needed to apply it (Petruzella, 1996; QCA survey, 1998). In this way, it could be suggested that there is evidence in the investigation to support these findings as the more able pupils are capable of assimilating grammatical metalinguistic terminology quickly and accurately. This is shown most clearly in the lesson intervention transcripts indicating that either implicit or explicit grammar teaching will benefit the more able pupil.

The longevity of the effects of CG and SFL approaches on writing should also be considered. Overall trends across the year group suggest that in the final writing task which took place long after the interventions, there was less evidence to suggest that pupils were engaging with as many aspects of the texts they were writing. This could indicate that these approaches when teaching grammar have an immediate impact on writing which then diminishes without recurring practice. The study provides some support for Humes (1983) assertion that lower ability writers are those that are more interested in the surface accuracy of their writing. Lower ability pupils had a greater tendency in their think aloud recordings to question the spelling and punctuation. There is still some further discussion to be had over the best method to teach grammar to those of lower writing ability. Although CL strategies were evidenced to have an immediate effect on the writing of lower ability pupils there was still some question as to how to ensure that this impact was permanent.

The study is also important in that it provides a link between CL and SFL which has never been tested in the classroom setting and therefore is a new pedagogical approach to teaching grammar. This is in line with the suggestion from the QCA (1998:17) which states that 'No single model of grammar is proposed in the English order…Teachers may choose for

themselves their preferred model(s) of grammar'. The intervention lessons provide one such example in its use of blending two different theoretical approaches to teaching grammar. It has been argued that CL and SFL can be naturally linked (Liamkina & Ryshina-Pankova, 2012). CL acts as a visual representation whereas SFL viably links CL to writing (see Chapter 2). The investigation is therefore fundamental in the way that it links two methods of teaching grammar.

8.2.3 How does teaching writing using Functional Linguistics strategies aid the development of learners' metalinguistic understanding?

The tables in Chapter 7 for each selected participant show a trend towards participants' understanding being influenced by the content of the intervention lessons in writing directly following the lessons. Comparisons between pre and post intervention lessons show that participants make more explicit, and therefore conscious, reference to the decision they are making about areas of their writing. This indicates that the participant has metalinguistic awareness (Masny, 1987) which has been aided by the grammar acting as a mediating tool (Jones & Myhill, 2011). There is an increase in the frequency of references which are related to the grammatical concept directly after the intervention lessons take place. Although this could simply indicate that pupils have become more adept at the 'thinking aloud' method, it should be noted that pre and post intervention recordings are similar in length with most participants. This could indicate that they are not more efficient, or more capable, in fulfilling the requirements of the method but that they are more aware of the decisions they make as a writer. This shows that they have a 'conscious' awareness of the language they are using. As participants have increased their references to grammatical concepts, they have shown an increase in the frequency of their intentional monitoring; therefore, showing an alteration in their metalinguistic knowledge (Cazden, 1976; Hakes, 1980). This trend shows that CL and SFL strategies do lead to a more developed understanding but the discussion of whether this alteration is an improvement is more complex.

Understanding can be linked to improvement in writing if an improved understanding is defined as knowing when to apply knowledge (Bryant & Bradley, 1980). The definition of 'metalinguistic understanding' has been discussed in Chapter 2. When the study seeks to find a development in understanding in the participant it looks for differences in the participant's 'control of language' and 'conscious manipulation' (Gombert, 2003). Participant 4G shows examples of this in her think aloud whilst completing her writing task following the intervention lesson on modal verbs [Appendix 75]: 'now she can really guilt trip her mother (.) and say I am pouring my heart out to you'. Manipulation of language can most easily seen

when participants make an adjustment or alteration to what they have already written justified through a consideration of the text receiver: 'well I don't think I should include the fists and rage bit cos we're trying to make Selkirk sound like a hero and make him sound vulnerable' [Participant 1G, Appendix 31]. In these cases, participants have a conscious control of their language and can manipulate language in order to have a specific effect on the reader. When considering the 'development' of metalinguistic understanding, the narratives outlined in Chapter 7 become essential as they show any differences between the participants' awareness, and manipulation, of language pre and post intervention lessons.

The study provides evidence in the narratives in Chapter 7 which implies that many of the pupils can apply the knowledge they have and respond to each text. This can be seen in the case of 6H who was not considered to be the most able pupil in the class. In 6H's case she responds appropriately to each given writing task and alters her language and syntax accordingly. This supports the claim that 6H has not just altered her understanding but improved her understanding of how to construct texts as this ability altered over the timeframe of the study. However, when the less able writer is exposed to Functional Linguistics approaches there is less evidence to suggest that there is evidence to show an improved understanding. This can be exemplified by the performance of 3A who was submitted to the study as a comparatively weaker pupil. In Table 7-5 there is little sense of improvement in her understanding of the writing task by the end of the research period. In these cases, it may be that there are too many factors for a less able writer to consider: less able writers tended to explicitly discuss structure, spelling and punctuation supporting Humes (1983) alongside wider factors such as impact on text receiver. Overall trends also show that even the less able writers were influenced and effected by CG and SFL approaches but that this was limited in relation to the way the more able writers were applying the same concepts. Overall, the study supports previous research that suggests that the teaching of grammar for writing benefits the more able pupil (Myhill, 2012) exponentially more than the less able.

The influence of CG and SFL approaches and any alteration in understanding generally was shown to be less evidenced in the writing task that was completed the longest time after the intervention lessons. There was a general trend across all pupils within the year group in that their understanding of how to construct the text and apply the knowledge gained from intervention lessons was less predominant in their final writing task. This task was unseen, and completed under exam conditions, which differed from the tasks completed during the study. This may indicate that the influence of Functional Linguistics approaches lessened over time. It could also be the case that there were other factors to consider when completing a text under

timed conditions; therefore, pupils were more likely to experience cognitive overload (Gobert, 1992).

Judging the understanding of pupils is also highly dependent on the context in which the teaching takes place. The contemporary aims regarding grammar when the investigation took place were intrinsically linked to writing assessment. Under the National Literacy Strategies pupils needed to have an awareness of 'key principles and their effects' (DfEE, 2000:7). The investigation was conducted with the inclination towards assessment which credits experimenting with grammatical structures for effect rather than writing with accurate standard English. This is appropriate given that the next examinations that Year 9 sit which focus on grammar would be the IGCSE or GCSE English Language [see Chapter 3]. These qualifications allocate marks for varying sentence structures. As this is the aim at this time in the participant's academic careers, their understanding is most commonly marked by the teacher in accordance with a more prescriptive mark scheme. The study provides valuable evidence which shows that pupils can still achieve these aims when taught using a rhetorical model of grammar or even models which seemingly have no link to writing.

This has important implications for the teaching of writing and how this is done. It is important to note there is a difference between the act of writing and the process of analysing texts. In this case, the investigation showed how these different skills were incorporated into the same lesson and how they can be bridged by the practitioner. It may be that several elements of writing a text need to be explicitly ignored to influence one area at a time and to avoid cognitive overload on the part of the writer. The think aloud recordings showed that there are many elements for the writer to consider when constructing a text. Many of the recordings showed a similar structure to the protocol analysis showed in Flower and Hayes (1963) in which the way that the writer structures a text is a key aspect. In this way, the study has also shown how the method of 'thinking aloud' can be used to indicate more implicit considerations of the writer as they create a text. The fact that grammar is only one small consideration to the writer is demonstrated by the think aloud transcripts; there are many aspects of the text considered by the writer. In the case of participant 1K, in her first writing task, she comments on the following:

> there are three main paragraphs we are focusing on so I am just beginning to address the letter at the moment
>
> [lines 2-3]

so I keep on referring to the text even though you're using your own words cos you have to answer the question directly rather than just waffling

[lines 11-12]

it's actually I'm trying to allocate ten minutes to everything I'm a bit over but

[lines 28-29]

s'maybe the idea we're not actually allowed to quote anything from the paragraph makes me think that we're not supposed to be writing anything

[lines 35-37]

it's difficult to adopt a style when writing a letter because well we're not writing a persuasive letter oh I guess we are trying to persuade change within school we're not writing a letter to the president

[lines 41-43]

These are not exhaustive examples from the transcript, but they do successfully show the sheer amount of decisions that a writer is making. Here, 1K discusses timing, structure, answering the question appropriately, quoting from the given passage, formality, genre and audience to name a few. The way in which grammar for writing, and writing itself, is taught then needs to be carefully considered based on its complexity.

8.3 Teaching grammar for writing

The investigation shows that teaching grammar in a contextualised way seems to have a beneficial impact on writing (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2012). This is due, in part, to the study showing that the learning of terminology can take precedence over discussion of meaning or effect which can detract from the application of pupils' knowledge to their writing. There is evidence to suggest this when the modal and passive intervention lesson transcripts and pupils' written responses are compared. Teachers and pupils overall tended to focus on words such as 'feel', 'forceful' and 'guilt' in the modal intervention lessons. However, in the passive intervention lesson words such as 'agent', 'instrument' and 'passive' were used more frequently across the teaching groups. This not only gave less time to discuss the meaning of the passive construction but also seemed to have an impact on the way that pupils applied their knowledge to their writing. Overall, a trend can be identified where pupils made less explicit reference to the passive construction and to sentence or clause level organisation in their passive think aloud recordings. Comparatively, there were many more frequent

references to modality and mood post-modal intervention. This could be attributed to the more developed discussion of the meaning of modal verbs as evidenced by Figure 6-1. This seems to support previous research which indicates that grammar for writing is more effective when it is taught in a contextualised way (Myhill, 2008). This also seems to support the opinions of teachers of grammar who believe that poor pedagogical approaches are those which consist of rote learning (Watson, 2010). The ways in which the pupils responded to the real-life examples were also useful for teachers who may not have had the confidence to discuss effects of language with pupils (Andrews, 2001). The use of contextualised grammar teaching allowed pupils to engage with texts through placing importance on the reader and the way that they interpret text. This means that teachers did not necessarily have to provide multiple explanations or complex grammatical metalinguistic terminology in order to have a meaningful discussion about grammar.

Teachers of grammar have also found it hard to teacher grammar in a 'fun' way (Watson, 2012). The investigation provides multiple examples of pupils engaging with grammar with enthusiasm and interest. This is exemplified through the pupils' responses to the freezeframing in both intervention lessons which was invariably to laugh together and question each other's interpretations. Creative ways of teaching grammar are more likely to engage pupils at this level as it uses a different to the way they may have been taught at primary level. The use of 'Space grammar' is appealing and engaging as it distances the teaching of grammar from the pedagogical approaches that pupils may have been exposed to in their previous education. The lesson intervention plans do not focus on grammar [see Appendix 3 and Appendix 4] but instead give prominence to writing. The lack of focus on grammar itself may help to avoid the negative perception that pupils have of grammar which has been found by previous research (Elley et al., 1976). As the CG and SFL approaches are pupil-led pupils also have more confidence in their interpretation and more awareness that they can 'play' with grammar.

It is important that the purpose of teaching grammar is clear in the mind of the practitioner before they use an approach or model. Functional strategies lend themselves particularly to use in the rhetorical model as it explains the benefits of grammar for writing in terms of 'effects', 'decisions' and 'choices'. This fits with Kolln's description of rhetorical grammar in that it works 'as a tool that enables the writer to make effective choices' (Kolln, 1996:29). When framed in this way, the investigation provides evidence to suggest that CG and SFL strategies, and writing, should be taught within this framework as pupils were provided with more choice of language and syntax. The decision-making process was clear in many of the

think aloud recordings demonstrating that pupils were in control of their writing process. This was shown by participant 4G when she states:

> (.) this my (3.0) and this is not for me and tricking her mother (3.0) now she can really guilt trip her mother (.) and say I am pouring out my heart to you (2.0)
>
> [lines 52-53 Appendix 72]

Here, 4G shows that she is consciously making an active decision about how to use her language to impact or effect the text receiver. She also refers directly back to the words 'guilt trip' which were used in the intervention lesson. There was a dominant trend of pupils discussing the manipulation of either their language or their syntax rather than the accuracy of their writing. This shows that to provide writers with the necessary tools to control their writing it should be taught through a rhetorical model. This also allows pupils to meet the intentions of The National Literacy Strategy which are to focus on 'exploring the decisions that writers make' (DfEE, 2000:12) as well as the requirements of The English KS3 National Curriculum (2013) which states that pupils should be able to 'write for a wide range of purposes and audiences' including 'arguments, and personal and formal letters' (DfE, English Programmes of Study: KS3, 2013:5). Although the rhetorical model is considered to be the most apt method of teaching grammar when aiming for the previously mentioned creativity, teachers show little confidence over how to put these values into practice (Watson, 2012). Therefore, the teaching of grammar for writing using any kind of new model needs to provide explicit and practical guidance for teachers. The investigation shows that CL and SFL strategies have the potential to provide the required alternative method for teaching grammar for writing. The study therefore contributes to ideas which are centred on 'visible learning' (Hattie, 2012) which state expert teachers are those which adapt or alter learning in order to ensure that there is effective learning in their classroom. The study understands 'effective learning' to be in line with developing 'understanding' (Marton et al., 1993) which is shown through the way the pupils engage with the writing task. It can be seen, then, that CL and SFL pedagogies provide alternative methods for expert teachers to ensure effective learning takes place.

The rhetorical model lends itself to teaching grammar for writing in an implicit way. The investigation provides evidence to suggest that the implicit teaching of grammar does not have a negative influence on pupils' writing. CG enables pupils to 'develop grammatical intuitions, without meta-language or rules' (Van Gelderen, 2006). The study shows trends that implicit grammar teaching has the potential to enable pupils rather than hinder them. Even

those participants who were of comparative lower ability in the classes were responding to grammatical exploration with confidence. This can be seen throughout all the lesson intervention transcripts. The resources provided in the lesson were also used to explore 'actual usage of structures in relevant kinds of texts' (Van Gelderen, 2006:51). The writing completed within the lesson interventions and post-intervention pieces all show that this can be inked to experimentation with structures in pupils' own writing. This allows pupils to have a general metalinguistic awareness without the need or use of terminology. It also enables pupils to have some facility in the use of a variety of linguistic structures. The study does support the opinion of grammar teachers in that the more able pupils are more capable of assimilating grammatical structured from their reading into their writing (Watson, 2012). As the investigation was conducted with pupils who are at the higher national ability levels, the context of the evidence suggests that this is indeed the case. It is important to note in these instances, however, what the definition of the more and less able pupil is as the study includes the full scope of a year group's pupils. This year group includes pupils who have SEND (Special Educational Need and Difficulties). The trends of the study show that all pupils' writing was affected by the teaching of grammar in an implicit way.

8.4 The place of Functional Linguistics strategies in the classroom

When the beliefs of grammar teachers are taken into consideration there is room for Functional Linguistics strategies in the classroom. Teachers demonstrated 'far less confidence in their ability to put these values [concerning their belief in a rhetorical grammar modal] into practice' (Watson, 2010:237). The CL approaches outlined in the investigation aid teachers in improving confidence as it provides a practical outline. There is certainly a place for a new and engaging way to teach pupils grammar; CG and SFL strategies are considerably different enough to be approached as 'new' by many pupils. The investigation showed that there may be an application of CL strategies to younger year groups than have previously been researched such as Giovanelli (2013) and his study which was conducted with A level English Language pupils. The study showed a clear trend of pupils responding to the intervention lessons and the Functional Linguistics strategies within them. It should be noted that these strategies need to be used and introduced in a controlled manner. As discussed in the previous section, using Functional Linguistics strategies with this age group requires an implicit teaching of grammar. CG and SFL strategies, and linguistics as a wider topic, has more often been used as a framework for pupils themselves. Linguistics has tended to be used in the L2 classroom as a more explicit way of learning about a target language (Boers, 1999; Lazar, 1996; Youmei & Yun, 2014). The investigation provides an example of how linguistics can be used in the L1

classroom to learn about pupils' native language. The evidence suggesting that that pupils alter the way that they think about language and writing shows that CG has a place in the classroom because it alters pupils' perceptions. CG and SFL can enable pupils to make conscious the subconscious elements of their native language in order to manipulate it.

However, a critique of the investigation requires a discussion of whether there is any causal effect of CG, SFL and writing. As the intervention lessons used strategies embedded within a rhetorical model and grammar was taught in an implicit way, it could be questioned as to whether Functional models do have any role at all to play in pupils' learning about language. As simply an exploration of language, the study shows that CG and SFL allow pupils to explore the text which they are reading. The trends demonstrated in the ways that pupils were linking to the intervention lessons showed that a large percentage of the think aloud pupils were referring to concepts which were only discussed in the CG and SFL components of the lesson. It can therefore be stated that CL and SFL certainly had an influence on the way that pupils were discussing language. It is also important to note the setting of the investigation. Pupils had a great deal of confidence and experience when moving and acting in class; a consideration which Holme (2012) stated was of paramount importance if the Embodied Learning Principle is to have an impact on the class. The classes were also small with the greatest number of pupils being sixteen in a class which allows more one-to-one contact time with the teacher. There are also multiple references in the intervention lessons to the fact that the participants learn Classics and that the grammatical concepts are 'like Latin' – in TGII, this was provided as a sole means of explanation. In this case, participants referred to how they are studying a similar grammatical concept in Latin lessons:

> T2: you were saying you are doing this in latin in classics your use of classical
>
> P: [yeah
>
> T2: so you presumably do quite a lot of work in latin and greek and other modern foreign languages subjects verbs objects (.) obviously it gets more complicated in latin and greek (.) declensions and all that (.) stuff conjugations ok brilliant very well done lets turn over the page please (.) so
>
> [lines 206-210 Appendix 39]

The trends in the data show that Functional Linguistics strategies have a part to play in the teaching of grammar for writing. There is, however, scope for experimentation with bigger classes or with pupils who have not received the benefit of a more technical language training.

8.5 The role of terminology

The data led to an opportunity to investigate the role of terminology. The study did not seek to compare the use of terminology and not using terminology but when comparing evidence from the modal and the passive intervention lessons interesting disparities arose. These disparities naturally occurred from the intervention lesson plans provided and showed that there can be a difference between the impact on writing when grammar is taught using terminology and when it is not. There is some suggestion that by providing a new alternative, teachers' negative perceptions of grammar and metalinguistic terminology are avoided (Watson, 2012).

Harris and Helks (2018) suggest that teaching terminology as a means of linguistic understanding is of potential benefit. The majority of claims focused on the benefits of terminology argue that it provides a valuable description system which allows for efficiency when analysing text with others. As stated by the HMI (Her Majesty's Inspectorate) report English from 5-16 (1984) the teaching of terminology was retained because pupils should have the vocabulary to discuss it. This argument focuses on describing and discussing language itself; undoubtedly, terminology is useful if pupils must identify a concept and discuss it with their peers. If there is no use of terminology whatsoever there is 'too many opportunities for misunderstanding to arise' (Bold, 2012:65). There is also some pleasure in understanding the way in which a language works as well as providing pupils and teachers the chance to engage in meaningful grammar work (Cushing, 2018; Giovanelli, 2016). However, the investigation looks at how to discuss the meaning of language and how this can be applicable to writing. Therefore, the study provides evidence as to how to craft and use language rather than simply discussing its superficial rules. A complete lack of metalinguistic terminology can be seen to be an advantage as it allows pupils to avoid the obstacle of not being able to remember the terminology to describe the language. The modal intervention lesson shows that there was no need for terminology when the aim was to develop a discussion of both understanding and constructing meaning. Pupils were successful in understanding the subtle shifts in meaning within different modal verbs. They were able to demonstrate this through discussing and exploring the contexts of the use of modals. As such, the study supports the opinion of Richmond (1990) who stated that use of terminology should be limited to specific purposes, including helping pupils to reflect more on language use.

It is not the intention of this thesis to argue that grammar teaching should commence with no use of terminology. It provides a case study which demonstrates that pupils, who already have

a sound knowledge of linguistic terminology by Year 9 could then be given the opportunity to play with language. Indeed, the study's context expects that pupils would have been given some formal teaching of grammar. This is because pupils are more likely to have been assessed in Year 6 on the spelling, grammar and punctuation tests as part of SATs which can be externally assessed as an indicator of ability (Bew Report, 2011). This is supported by the argument that the new KS1 assessments in grammar, punctuation and spelling use questions which test at a 'lower cognitive level' (Harris & Helks, 2018). The teaching and testing of grammar may well, therefore, be more suited to pupils who require training in testing (Richards, 2007). These pupils are naturally younger or less able which further supports the study in stating that the more complex cognitive level grammar teaching should take place in the older years. Richmond (2015) argues that 'competence proceeds analysis' an opinion which was further supported by Bialystock (1994:159) who found that the process of analysis leads to a process of control in second language learners. The investigation exemplifies how pupils can respond to a rhetorical model of grammar at this ability level. It shows that when the learning of metalinguistic grammatical terminology is not fore fronted meaningful discussions of grammar can take place. The study supports ideas that the role of grammatical terminology, and when it is introduced to pupils, needs to be carefully considered.

8.6 Conclusions

The findings presented in this thesis suggest that the teaching of grammar continues to be a highly complex area. While there is evidence to suggest that pupils' understanding of how to construct text is impacted by using CG and SFL strategies, writing continues to be assessed for both its accuracy and its ability to construct meaning. These two, seemingly opposed, stances lead to a tension in the theoretical ways in which writing is taught. It may well be that lessons require a 'mixture of elements of rhetorical grammar, rule-based grammar and other practices, not directly related to grammar teaching' (Lefstein, 2009:395). The trends within the study support the idea that not all pupils respond in the same manner to one method of grammar teaching.

CG and SFL strategies have been shown to have some place in the L1 classroom. The study demonstrates how CG strategies can instigate a discussion which explores the meaning of grammatical concepts. This is particularly important considering the need for alternative and engaging ways to teach grammar – ways which avoid the negative perceptions that both teachers and pupils hold of grammar. CG allows pupils to engage with texts on a variety of levels although certain grammatical concepts seem to lend themselves to aspects of texts. This

indicates that CG strategies can be used for a very specific purpose when teaching writing. Pupils' understanding of how to construct their writing did show some alteration in the post-intervention tasks. Pupils discussed their text from a different perspective engaging particularly with the relationship between text producer and text receiver.

The investigation shows that the teaching of grammar has the potential to be linked to writing. The study showed that every think aloud participant referred to how they were constructing some aspect of their text which was also discussed in the intervention lesson. This trend shows that writers can use grammatical knowledge in order to manipulate their writing and have an impact on their reader. The study showed that a rhetorical model which does not place emphasis on the learning of grammatical metalinguistic terminology can produce meaningful discussion about grammar. This is important as it shows that the rhetorical model is a valid teaching method for practitioners – one which will be able to avoid obstacles such as teachers' lack of confidence (Watson, 2012).

However, it should also be recognised that the study provides only one alternative method of teaching grammar. CG and SFL strategies should not be used to teach grammar for writing in isolation. There were some pupils who did not show very much alteration in their understanding of how to construct text. These pupils may have responded to a different approach to teaching grammar as there may have been some other aspect of their writing which required attention. Overall, the study provides evidence which shows the Functional model can be an effective method for teaching grammar for writing. The fact that the study draws together a range of different ideas may aid the grammar debate as it avoids taking part in the binary debates around terminology or prescriptive and descriptive schools of thought (Hartwell, 1985). By demonstrating that grammar can be taught in this way, in this context, the investigation supports a less traditional way of teaching grammar: a multi-faceted pedagogy that responds to its pupils in order to provide expert teachers with a teaching tool which will ensure effective learning takes place.

The implications of these issues for research and policy are explored further in Chapter 9.

9 CONCLUSIONS: IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH, POLICY AND TEACHING WRITING

The findings of the study have important implications for research, curricular policy and the teaching of writing. This chapter outlines these implications. The investigation shows the way that the teaching of grammar can be linked to writing and provides an alternative method which is accessible to practitioners and rooted in Functional Linguistics. Evidence clearly suggests that there can be some positive influence on the writing of pupils if grammar is taught with a clear purpose. Conclusions regarding the relationship between grammar teaching and writing also indicate areas requiring further research, particularly regarding the application of CG and SFL methods with larger classes. These findings also emphasise the importance of providing a wide range of methods to teach grammar so that the expert teacher can apply the method which is going to ensure the effective learning of their pupils (Hattie, 2012).

9.2 Functional Linguistics Strategies

9.2.1 The ways that Functional Linguistics strategies enable pupil engagement with the text

Table 9-1: Cognitive Linguistics and pupil engagement with text

Conclusion	Functional Linguistics strategies enable pupils to explore the social function of texts including interpersonal metafunction and ideational metafunction
Implications for Research	Further research into the ways that Functional Linguistics can be used as an introduction to understand the meaning of grammatical concepts which are then discussed within the context of real-life texts.
Implications for Policy	Acknowledge the usefulness of linguistics methods in policy to lend authority to these types of methods of teaching grammar.
Implications for Teaching Writing	Teachers should be given the option of using Functional Linguistics strategies when teaching writing. The relationship between Functional Linguistics and writing should continue to be explicitly discussed during teacher training.

Within the context of the study, the use of linguistics in the L1 classroom has been limited. Most previous research has been completed not only in the L2 classroom but has shown the use of linguistics to simply explore language. There has been little previous research which has linked linguistics pedagogies with written texts. Policy documents, including the National Curriculum, are beginning to show a preference for the use of Linguistic terminology (DfE,

2013b). However, there is nothing formally in policy which makes use of linguistics as a theoretical approach to the teaching of grammar. There is evidence in the study to suggest that pedagogies based on SFL do enable pupils to engage with the interpersonal and ideational metafunction of texts and discuss grammar in a meaningful way. It is this, explicit, discussion of grammatical concepts which will lead to the effective learning of grammar (Watkins, Carnell & Lodge, 2007) and the application of this understanding onto the process of writing.

This indicates that there is a place for CG, SFL, and linguistics on a wider scale, in policy and research documents. A more nuanced and multi-faceted way of teaching grammar for writing should be made available to teachers if they are to achieve effective learning. As effective learning in this case is defined by a pupil's ability to 'notice, monitor and review how their learning is going.' (Watkins, Carnell & Lodge, 2007:19), the explicit discussion which is the product of Functional Linguistics strategies lends itself to the self-monitoring required to achieve effective learning. Myhill's call for 'a reconceptualization of grammar at both policy and professional level' (2010a:178) is met here. The inclusion of strategies using a Functional model would also fulfil Watson's aim for 'recognition at policy and professional level of 'multiple grammars' or 'grammar pedagogies' which relate to the teaching of English'' (2012:253). The study outlines very specific effects of the use of CG and SFL on writing and therefore allows a more detailed and useful approach for teachers of grammar. It is important that teacher trainees are given the opportunity to discuss both how and when to apply linguistics in the classroom in order to assist with teacher training and development. This discussion should also include grammatical, and linguistic, knowledge as a tool for teachers' professional practice and not as something to explicitly teach young people (Andrews, 2010).

9.2.2 The teaching of grammar using Functional Linguistics strategies

Table 9-2: Teaching grammar using Cognitive Linguistics strategies

Conclusion	Functional Linguistics strategies enable pupils to explore the meaning of grammatical concepts.
Implications for Research	Experimentation with other types of grammatical concepts beyond modal verbs and the passive voice which can be framed using Functional Linguistics. Further research into teaching grammar using CL in the L1 classroom.
Implications for Policy	An inclusion of suggested methods of teaching grammar using Linguistic methods to give teachers access to a range of methods which enable pupils to engage with meaning.
Implications for teaching writing	Explicit linking of the teaching of grammar and linguistics strategies. Continue to encourage teachers to link the teaching of grammar and writing in the same scheme of work. Consider how CL and SFL can be linked to writing within these schemes of work.

There has been little research completed which applies CG, SFL, or even linguistics strategies overall, to the L1 classroom. Much more research has been done when considering how linguistics strategies can be used within the L2 classroom (Holme, 2012). However, the study provides evidence to suggest that Functional Linguistics strategies enable the L1 learner to approach their native language form a different perspective. Therefore, learners explore the English Language use a more advanced cognitive level to engage with their language. CG strategies are shown to link well with the teaching of Language supporting Holme (2012) and his argument that Cognitive Linguistics lends itself well to the teaching of language.

It is of paramount importance that further research is carried out to understand the potential benefits of teaching grammar using CG and SFL when developing the metalinguistic understanding of learners. The investigation only considers the grammatical concepts of modal verbs and the passive voice; the scope of the grammatical concepts taught using these methods, particularly CG, now needs to be widened. The research widens the potential grammatical theories which teachers can use to frame grammar teaching in the classroom ensuring that they have access to methods which may have the greatest impact on pupils in terms of their understanding of writing tasks. Teachers should be encouraged in training periods to link lesser known areas of Linguistic theory and writing and to discuss how to do this in the most purposeful way in order to engage with how the pedagogy can be used and within what circumstances.

9.3 The relationship between teaching grammar and writing

9.3.1 The alteration of understanding of writing tasks using Functional Linguistics strategies

Table 9-3: The alteration of the understanding of writing tasks

Conclusion	There was an altered understanding of pupils when they considered how to construct their writing.
Implications for Research	Investigate how teaching grammar for writing may affect a wider range of pupils including those in a different educational setting.
Implications for Policy	Make more explicit and detailed links between grammar teaching and writing in policy documents. Suggestions need to be useful and practical for use in the classroom.
Implications for teaching writing	Acknowledge the current limitations in the methods provided to teachers to teach grammar for writing. Allow teachers more control and autonomy over the decisions they make when selecting an appropriate framework for teaching grammar for writing to their pupils. Encourage teachers to undertake more practitioner research in the area of grammar.

The continuing debate as to whether the teaching of grammar is linked to writing and the role of grammar teaching is complex. Further exploration is needed as to the nature of the effect of CG and SFL strategies on the comparatively lower ability pupils' writing within the class. There are also questions as to whether the impact of teaching grammar for writing is beneficial in terms of the accuracy of writing (Andrews et al., 2004a; Braddock et al., 1963; Graham & Perin, 2007). There is also a need to ensure that the teaching of grammar is linked to a clear framework in order to have an impact on the ability of pupils to understand the rhetorical problem with which they are faced indicated through 'design choices' (Sharples, 1999). The study used very detailed and specific resources; suggestions in policy documents need to be carefully outlined in order to aid teacher confidence in the delivery of grammar teaching (Watson, 2012). This is essential when considering how to apply a lesser known pedagogy such as Functional Linguistics.

There is a need, therefore, for more precision in policy documents when outlining the relationship between the teaching of grammar and writing. A more detailed outline of the purposes of using different grammatical pedagogies would aid teachers in being able to select the most appropriate teaching method for their pupils. This also requires a less prescriptive

view of how teachers teach grammar for writing in order to allow teachers to improve their confidence in teaching grammar. Professional training programmes can assist teachers in improving their knowledge of the different approaches to teaching grammar for writing. This will also aid them in having a clearer understanding of which to apply in different circumstances.

9.3.2 An improved understanding of writing tasks when grammar is taught

Table 9-4: An improved understanding of writing tasks when grammar is taught

Conclusion	Pupils had a better understanding of how to apply their grammatical knowledge to fulfil the requirements of the text they were constructing.
Implications for Research	A more detailed consideration of the framework of writing assessment in which a range of pupils' work. Further exploration of how pupils in different contexts may define 'improved understanding'.
Implications for Policy	Policy documents should take account of examination board requirements and outline ways to teach grammar for writing which are in keeping with the examination board's aims.
Implications for teaching writing	The teaching of grammar for writing should be tailored towards the needs of the pupils within a given context. Teaching methods should be adapted according to what would bring about effect learning.

A clear purpose for teaching grammar for writing must be put in place for effective practice to be discussed and decided (Hartwell, 1985). This speaks of a need to outline why and how grammar is taught in policy documents and during teacher training. Detailed outlines need to be put in place to ensure that the teaching of grammar is purposeful. There is very little research concerning how CG and SFL strategies might link to writing and the improvement of understanding. There is, therefore, now a need to broaden the research in this area. This broadening may incorporate a different range of abilities of pupils or application of these strategies in different educational settings. This would give a more informed understanding of when and how to apply CG and SFL strategies to ensure the most beneficial impact on writing and the metalinguistic understanding of learners.

The data presented in this thesis shows that grammatical pedagogies that focus on the social aspect of the texts (on the 'I-to-you-about-it' which is outlined by Tchudi and Lafer, 1997) are likely to have a positive influence on the way that pupils understand how to construct their

texts and their ability to have an awareness of the reader. Trends showed that pupils had a clearer understanding of the interpersonal metafunction of texts. What should now follow is a focus on how to integrate these types of grammatical pedagogies into the context to benefit pupils' writing.

9.4 Teaching grammar for writing

9.4.1 How to teach grammar for writing

Table 9-5: How to teach grammar for writing

Conclusion	It must be engaging and meaningful. It must distance itself from previous teaching which is invariably formal.
Implications for Research	Experimentation with grammar teaching pedagogies which seemingly have little connection with writing. New methods of data analysis which explore the relationship between teaching and learning.
Implications for Policy	Acknowledgement that current policy documents are limiting the teaching of grammar to the more formal methods. The presentation of a range of grammatical pedagogies should be made in policy documents.
Implications for teaching writing	Creativity in teacher training courses continue to be valued and new links between grammatical pedagogies and writing to be discussed. Facilitate critical understanding of research and grammatical pedagogies.

There is little to currently suggest that policy documents including the Framework for teaching English (DfES, 2001) provide any engaging way to teach grammar for writing. Indeed, in comparison to Programmes of Study for reading which emphasise the importance of developing a 'love of literature' (DfE, 2014:13) writing is poorly represented. Writing content in these documents is more concerned with stamina and accuracy: 'to write at length, with accurate spelling and punctuation' (DfE, 2014) rather than to develop a love of writing or grammar. New and exciting methods of teaching grammar for writing are not as widely explored or valued in the current educational climate as they need to be. There is also very little previous research done on the link between the grammatical pedagogies which are more

obscure in their relationship with writing. This decreases the range of options available to teachers when selecting the most appropriate ways to teach grammar to their pupils. Grammatical pedagogies may also have to vary at strategic points in a pupil's academic career in order to remain new and engaging. It must be realised that the effectiveness of new pedagogies could diminish if repeated unnecessarily or applied too frequently.

There is an urgent need for the grammar debate to move away from the 'binary' discussion (Myhill & Watson, 2014) of whether grammar should be taught for writing. To avoid any potential ambiguity that moving away from the clarity of polar opinions would create, policy documents and curriculum material must outline new methods clearly. Although the KS3/4 curriculum does provide the chance for teachers and students to engage in meaningful work (Cushing, 2018; Giovanelli, 2016) policy documents now need to go further and outline effective pedagogies. Professional training could incorporate the opportunity to make new links between areas of theory and teaching. Policy documents should 'aim for recognition at policy and professional level of multiple grammars or grammar pedagogies' (Watson, 2012:253). These should be based on current research which involves practitioners who know their pupils and how to engage a new generation in writing and grammar. Teachers can then make suggestions as to how to teach grammar for writing in new and interesting ways.

9.4.2 When to teach grammar for writing using CG and SFL methods

Table 9-6: When to teach grammar for writing using CL methods

Conclusion	Pupils who have a sound knowledge of linguistic terminology showed the ability to apply grammar knowledge to their writing.
Implications for Research	Exploration into what stages of cognitive development would benefit most greatly from teaching grammar for writing. Experimentation as to in what order different pedagogies could and should be applied in order to achieve the best impact on writing.
Implications for Policy	Policy documents should outline not just how but when pupils should be taught using different grammatical pedagogies. This should go beyond when concepts should first be introduced to outline when pedagogies are likely to have the most beneficial impact.
Implications for teaching writing	Schemes of work for teaching grammar should take a longer, more holistic, view of the learner as the progress through their academic career and be designed for adaptation.

The study shows that when pupils who have a working knowledge of grammatical metalinguistic terminology are taught grammar for writing they can apply their knowledge to their own writing. Current testing of formal grammar knowledge, such as parsing, is conducted at 'lower cognitive levels' (Harris & Helks, 2018) which may be more suited to the cognitive abilities of younger pupils. Less socially experienced pupils do not have the social or contextual knowledge necessary to understand how a text works socially. The National Curriculum does produce a tentative teaching sequence of when grammatical terminology should be taught with the recognition that this is not when they should be completely understood (DfE, 2013a). This is limited, however, to just terminology and devalues the impact of how grammar is taught instead placing emphasis on what is taught and when it is repeated. This also limits the teaching of grammar to rote, and repeated, learning which is not considered to be beneficial to pupils' writing as it can increase the cognitive load; therefore, becoming a barrier to productive learning (Stark, Kopp & Fisher, 2011).

Therefore, there should be more explicit importance placed on when grammar is taught for writing. Learners' academic careers should be considered more holistically with more emphasis placed on when and how grammar should be taught. Further research should be conducted into the stages of the cognitive development of grammar and writing and where these two may overlap. This will allow for further understanding of when and what type of intervention is required in order to have most beneficial impact on pupils' writing abilities. The role of grammatical terminology should also be carefully considered, the purpose of teaching grammar in this way and when this is introduced.

9.4.3 Pupils of taught grammar

Table 9-7: Pupils of taught grammar

Conclusion	Less experienced pupils' writing was not so influenced by the teaching strategies used to teach grammar for writing.
Implications for Research	Further exploration into the effect of a range of grammatical pedagogies on a wider range of abilities. Further consideration of the length of intervention and the impact of sustained intervention on pupils.
Implications for Policy	Acknowledge that different pedagogies are going to have an impact on different pupils. Offer practical guidelines as to how to apply a range of pedagogies.
Implications for teaching writing	Teacher training should incorporate discussion of how to differentiate between grammatical

	pedagogies and how different pupils are most likely to benefit from these.

The data gathered suggests the act of writing is complex. The think aloud transcripts show the myriad of decisions that a writer must make. The structure of the think alouds demonstrate this complexity through the way that the participants' discussion of their writing is in continual flux regarding the areas of their text on which they focus. This supports the cognitive process theory of writing outlined by Flower and Hayes (1981) which suggests that there are cognitive stages which overlap and are interwoven by the writer. Think aloud transcripts show that those writers that do now have the transcriptional elements of writing fully automated focus more on the surface details of their texts (Gobert, 1992) rather than the checking the meaning and adequacy of their productions (Humes, 1983) expected of the more able. This may demonstrate that the less able writers are more vulnerable to cognitive overload as more constraints can be placed on working memory capacity when contrasting a text (Sweller, 1988). The trend for the less able writers is to focus on the more immediate and visual aspects of their text which indicates that they could find abstract concepts difficult to assimilate.

There is, therefore, a need for policy documents to recognise the difficulty levels of grammatical pedagogies by outlining processes and stages which relate to valid research. It must be recognised that pupils have a different experience of reality and perceive the world as individuals; therefore, they respond in different ways to teaching methods. Teachers should be given the ability to decide about which pedagogy to apply according to their knowledge of their pupils' abilities. Above all, it must be a commonly upheld belief that writing is a complex skill which requires immense cognitive ability.

9.5 The role of terminology

Table 9-8: The role of terminology

Conclusion	Knowledge of linguistic terminology is not needed to aid meaningful discussion of grammar.
Implications for Research	Further exploration into the purpose of pupils having knowledge of grammatical metalinguistic terminology.
Implications for Policy	Acknowledge that terminology is not necessary for pupils. Avoid prescribing a set list of terminology for pupils to use. Instead, provide suggestions as to the purposes of teaching grammar and how to teach grammar based on these purposes.
Implications for teaching writing	Training on how to instigate discussion of meaning and effect. Opportunities within teacher training to explore how linguistic structures create meaning rather than learning terminology.

Current policy documents place emphasis on the rote learning of terminology. Nowhere in the National Curriculum is there any placement of terminology in the context of a theoretical framework; there is a lack of discussion of both the broad areas of 'grammar' as outlined by researchers such as Norman (2010) or other influential approaches such as Halliday (1985). Teachers often have the belief that grammar can be taught without using technical language by using approaches which 'focus on drawing attentions to patterns and structures' (Watson, 2012:257). This is supported by the study as the pupils' development of the discussions of the meaning of grammar were not negatively affected by the absence of terminology. Further research is required concerning the purposes of teaching terminology and how this is used by pupils. This should infiltrate the English Literature classroom where terminology is often used to describe and discuss texts. There is equally a need for teacher training to continue to incorporate a way of discussing grammar which is accessible to those who do not have training in Linguistics. Improving teachers' knowledge of how to instigate and facilitate discussion of the effect of language should now be of paramount importance.

9.6 Summary: widen the range of grammatical pedagogies available to teachers

There remains a static 'binary' debate around the teaching of grammar for writing (Myhill & Watson, 2014) which is detrimental to the dynamic and responsive profession of teaching. In order to ensure that teachers have access to the most effective pedagogies, and that they can

see effective learning in the classroom (Hattie, 2014), this debate needs to be resolved. What is now required is a common purpose for teaching grammar so that effective practice can be outlined.

The study showed that there needs to be a more open-minded and wide-ranging experimentation with grammatical pedagogies. Participants' writing was influenced by partaking in a combined Cognitive Grammar and Systemic Functional Linguistic approach, and many showed some improved metalinguistic understanding. A more rigorous academic approach would enable new relationships to be made between linguistics pedagogies and grammar. The limitations placed upon teachers by current policy documents, including the prescriptive learning of terminology (Watson, 2012), is detrimental to both teachers' confidence when teaching grammar and pupils' learning. The National Curriculum's prescriptive requirements for the teaching of grammar is not necessarily accessible for teachers who have not received formal training in grammar. This results in some teachers presenting information in a confused way (Fisher, Lewis & Davis, 1999). Policy documents now need to acknowledge current academic research and the limitations which are placed upon practitioners. The creation of a more coherent curriculum which outlines a range of applicable grammatical pedagogies would allow teachers autonomy and the ability to be responsive to the needs of their pupils. An environment of exploration, experimentation and collaboration should be valued; it is only through bringing together researchers, policy makers and practitioners that truly effective pedagogies can be recognised and applied.

Equally, there should be a movement away from judging teaching practice as 'right' or 'wrong'. If these judgements are retained, there will be circular return to the binary argument discussed above. The individual pupil and their personal improvement should be the crux of any discussion. In this way, teachers should be encouraged to experiment with new pedagogies in the classroom. CG and SFL, and Linguistics itself, are academic areas which are highly regarded and can provide new and engaging pedagogies for areas other than grammar or writing. There is a call to 'seek avenues to revitalise practice' (Micciche, 2004:733); the application of new methods of teaching grammar does exactly that. The study showed that pupils responded with enthusiasm and interest to the teaching methods used. The word 'grammar' was not uttered by any of the teachers or pupils and there was a purposeful lack of grammatical metalinguistic terminology used. The study showed that not focusing on terminology or the idea of learning grammar was not detrimental in any way to pupils' writing. Indeed, in some ways, the lack of reference to grammar itself meant that pupils and teacher' negative perceptions were avoided leading to a more open and positive discussion of the

meaning of the grammatical concepts presented. Cognitive Grammar and Systemic Functional Linguistics are just two small areas of Linguistic, and other academic schools of thought, which could be useful to teachers in a classroom setting. For these useful pedagogies to be found and tested there needs to exist more revolutionary thinking. This thinking needs to engage with multiple pedagogies (Watson, 2012) which are theorised at policy level, outlined in an accessible way and tested with more frequency by practitioners in real-life situations.

As one of the teachers from the study stated: *we should do this more often*.

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