



University of **HUDDERSFIELD**

University of Huddersfield Repository

Helks, Marie

What, Why and How: The Policy, Purpose and Practice of Grammatical Terminology - An exploratory study of grammatical terminology through the perspectives and practices of Year 5 & Year 6 pupils and their teachers

Original Citation

Helks, Marie (2019) What, Why and How: The Policy, Purpose and Practice of Grammatical Terminology - An exploratory study of grammatical terminology through the perspectives and practices of Year 5 & Year 6 pupils and their teachers. Doctoral thesis, University of Huddersfield.

This version is available at <http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/id/eprint/34930/>

The University Repository is a digital collection of the research output of the University, available on Open Access. Copyright and Moral Rights for the items on this site are retained by the individual author and/or other copyright owners. Users may access full items free of charge; copies of full text items generally can be reproduced, displayed or performed and given to third parties in any format or medium for personal research or study, educational or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge, provided:

- The authors, title and full bibliographic details is credited in any copy;
- A hyperlink and/or URL is included for the original metadata page; and
- The content is not changed in any way.

For more information, including our policy and submission procedure, please contact the Repository Team at: E.mailbox@hud.ac.uk.

<http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/>

**What, Why and How: The Policy, Purpose and Practice of
Grammatical Terminology**

An exploratory study of grammatical terminology through the
perspectives and practices of Year 5 & Year 6 pupils and their teachers

MARIE HELKS

A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education

The University of Huddersfield
Doctor of Education

January 2019

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Throughout this thesis runs the collaboration, creativity and care of so many others and I thank them wholeheartedly for their invaluable contributions.

In particular, I would like to thank the teachers and pupils who very kindly agreed to participate in this research, welcoming me into their classrooms and generously sharing their insights, their ideas and their time.

I would like to thank Professor Ann Harris, my supervisor at the University of Huddersfield, for supporting and guiding my studies with great wisdom, insight and encouragement. Despite all the obstacles, she has remained steadfast in her utter belief in me.

I would like to thank Sheffield Hallam University for such incredible support. I am indebted forever to my friends and colleagues at work and thank them for their unerring encouragement, engagement and affection.

And, finally, I would like to thank my family and friends for making everything else possible: for their unwavering understanding, compassion and concern. Most of all, I would like to thank my two boys. I started this thesis as they started school and we have helped each other grow as learners throughout these years. I am so grateful for their patience, their interest and their humour. They are my inspiration. This thesis has been our journey and we have accomplished it together.

ABSTRACT

In 2013, the introduction of a new Primary National Curriculum for English (DfE 2013a) and the Key Stage 2 'Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling' Test (DfE 2013b) re-ignited debates around the teaching of grammar and its associated terminology. This study explores grammatical terminology in the primary curriculum through the perspectives and practices of Year 5 and Year 6 pupils and their teachers in two primary schools in the North of England. Its aim is to contribute to a meaning-oriented theorisation of grammatical terminology that might inform others (e.g. policy makers, teachers, student teachers and pupils) about what form effective pedagogical practice might take.

The study situates these explorations within the debates: debates in policy, the 'What'; debates in purpose, the 'Why' and debates in practice, the 'How'. It draws methodologically upon the multiple case study work of Stake (2006), utilising a range of data gathering methods to explore the complex phenomenon of grammatical terminology in a bounded, real-life context. In total, three Year 5 classes (9-10-year-olds) and one Year 6 class (10-11-year-olds) took part. In addition, a pilot study was undertaken with a mixed Year 5/6 class. Data gathering extended over a 12-month period by which time the schools had had 12-24 months' experience of working within the new curriculum and assessment expectations. Therefore, the findings reflect a point in curriculum and assessment change. Research methods included: (i) lesson observations, (ii) questionnaires, (iii) interviews and (iv) writing conferences. Pupil interviews were at the centre of the data gathered, intended to elicit "insider knowledge" of the complex phenomenon of grammatical terminology. 'Probe-based interviewing' (Stake 2006:31) was used to stimulate and support the pupils' metacognitive reflections, their confidence and interest and, ultimately, the verbalisation of their thinking and ideas. The different mediational tools used in these interviews included video-supported reflection and practical grammar activities and games. Guided by the research questions, findings were analysed inductively and a process of template analysis was applied.

Theoretically, the multicase findings were examined through a social constructivist lens and, principally, through the theoretical ideas of Vygotsky (1896-1934), around the nature and significance of word meanings. This study also makes use of the work of Halliday (2002) who perceives grammar as a meaning-making resource and as a tool with which to think. The study argues that grammatical terms are the epitome of 'scientific concepts' (Vygotsky 1987:167), essential both for the development of abstract thinking and for language learning. The 'assertions' (Stake 2006:50) are developed into two models for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology. These are: (i) a conceptual model which develops Bloom's Taxonomy of Cognitive Processes (revised Anderson and Krathwohl 2001) and (ii) a pedagogical model which develops Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (1978:84). These models are proposed as contributions to new knowledge. They are linked by the overarching theme of semiotic mediation in the support and development of pupils' conceptual understanding.

This study has implications for the ways in which teachers might approach the planning, teaching and assessment of grammatical terminology, alongside implications for their own professional development. Furthermore, in the absence of extensive research into pupils' perspectives on the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology, this study sees pupils at the heart of the debates and their learning at the centre of the two models which are proposed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	2
ABSTRACT	3
TABLE OF CONTENTS	4
List of figures	9
List of tables	9
List of acronyms	9
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	10
1.1 The nature of the problem: a personal reflection.....	10
1.2 Significance of the study	11
1.3 Theoretical lens	11
1.4 Aims	12
1.5 Research questions	12
1.6 Definition of terms.....	13
1.7 Organisation of the thesis	15
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	17
2.1 Introduction	17
2.2 Debates in Policy.....	18
2.2.1 Historical context.....	18
2.2.2 Current context	21
2.2.3 Implications of policy.....	22
2.2.3.1 Teacher subject knowledge.....	22
2.2.3.2 Pupil development	24
2.2.4 Section summary	28
2.3 Debates in Purpose.....	28
2.3.1 Conceptualisations of grammar.....	28
2.3.2 Pupils as language learners.....	30
2.3.2.1 Language as a meaning-making resource	30
2.3.2.2 Grammar and grammatical terminology for writing, reading and reflecting	31
2.3.3 Pupils as thinkers.....	32
2.3.4 Implications of policy.....	35
2.3.5 Section summary	37
2.4 Debates in Practice	38
2.4.1 Classroom practice	38
2.4.2 Word learning strategies	39
2.4.3 The unusual nature of grammatical terminology.....	41
2.4.4 Vygotsky and word meaning	42
2.4.5 Implications of policy.....	43
2.4.6 Section summary	45

2.5 The Perspectives of Teachers and Pupils	45
2.5.1 Teacher perspectives.....	45
2.5.2 Pupil perspectives.....	46
2.5.3 Section summary	47
2.6 Chapter summary	47
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	49
3.1 Introduction	49
3.2 The Research Framework.....	50
3.2.1 Methodological positionality	50
3.2.2 Theoretical positionality.....	51
3.3 Qualitative case study design	52
3.4 Study sample	54
3.5 Pilot Study	55
3.6 Ethical considerations	55
3.7 Summary of data gathering methods	56
3.8 Data gathering methods	57
3.8.1 Lesson observation.....	57
3.8.2 Teacher interview.....	58
3.8.3 Pupil questionnaire	58
3.8.4 Pupil writing conference and post-lesson reflections	59
3.8.5 Pupil interview 1: Video-supported reflection.....	59
3.8.6 Pupil interview 2: Grammar activities and games	61
3.8.7 Researcher journal.....	61
3.9 My role as researcher.....	62
3.9.1 Researcher positionality and reflexivity	62
3.10 Reliability and validity.....	63
3.10.1 Reliability	63
3.10.2 Validity	64
3.11 Data analysis	66
3.11.1 Data analysis: single case focus	66
3.11.2 Data analysis: multicase focus	70
3.12 Chapter summary	70
CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF SINGLE CASE FINDINGS.....	71
4.1 Introduction	71
4.2 Case 1	72
4.2.1 Case description	72
4.2.1.1 School.....	72
4.2.1.2 Teachers.....	72
4.2.1.3 Pupils	73
4.2.2 Case presentation.....	73
4.2.2.1 Declarative knowledge: Teacher perspectives.....	73
4.2.2.1.1 Definitions	73
4.2.2.1.2 Nature of grammatical terminology.....	73
4.2.2.1.3 Pupil differences	74
4.2.2.2 Declarative knowledge: Pupil perspectives	74
4.2.2.2.1 Definitions	74
4.2.2.2.2 Nature of grammatical terminology.....	75
4.2.2.2.3 Pupil differences	75

4.2.2.3 Procedural knowledge: Teacher perspectives	76
4.2.2.3.1 Application	76
4.2.2.3.2 Modelling	77
4.2.2.3.3 Punctuation.....	77
4.2.2.4 Procedural knowledge: Pupil perspectives.....	78
4.2.2.4.1 Application	78
4.2.2.4.2 Modelling	79
4.2.2.4.3 Punctuation.....	80
4.2.2.5 Purpose: Teacher perspectives.....	80
4.2.2.5.1 Writing proficiency and future prospects	80
4.2.2.6 Purpose: Pupil perspectives	81
4.2.2.6.1 Writing proficiency and future prospects	81
4.2.2.7 Value: Teacher perspectives	82
4.2.2.7.1 Conflicts	82
4.2.2.8 Value: Pupil perspectives	82
4.2.2.8.1 Conflicts	82
4.2.2.9 Teaching: Teacher perspectives	83
4.2.2.9.1 Teach-Practise-Apply	83
4.2.2.9.2 Explanations	84
4.2.2.9.3 Contextualised in writing.....	84
4.2.2.9.4 Resources.....	85
4.2.2.10 Teaching: Pupil perspectives	85
4.2.2.10.1 Teach-Practise-Apply	85
4.2.2.10.2 Explanations	85
4.2.2.10.3 Contextualised in writing.....	86
4.2.2.10.4 Resources.....	86
4.2.2.11 Learning: Teacher perspectives	86
4.2.2.11.1 Learning over time.....	86
4.2.2.11.2 Recall.....	87
4.2.2.11.3 Creative, challenging approaches	87
4.2.2.12 Learning: Pupil perspectives	87
4.2.2.12.1 Learning over time.....	87
4.2.2.12.2 Recall.....	88
4.2.2.12.3 Creative, challenging approaches	89
4.3 Case 2	90
4.3.1 Case description	90
4.3.1.1 School.....	90
4.3.1.2 Teachers.....	90
4.3.1.3 Pupils	90
4.3.2 Case presentation.....	91
4.3.2.1 Declarative knowledge: Teacher perspectives.....	91
4.3.2.1.1 Definitions	91
4.3.2.1.2 Nature of grammatical terminology.....	91
4.3.2.1.3 Pupil differences	92
4.3.2.2 Declarative knowledge: Pupil perspectives	92
4.3.2.2.1 Definitions	92
4.3.2.2.2 Nature of grammatical terminology.....	92
4.3.2.2.3 Pupil differences	93
4.3.2.3 Procedural knowledge: Teacher perspectives	94
4.3.2.3.1 Application	94
4.3.2.3.2 Modelling	95
4.3.2.3.3 Punctuation.....	95

4.3.2.4 Procedural knowledge: Pupil perspectives.....	96
4.3.2.4.1 Application	96
4.3.2.4.2 Modelling	96
4.3.2.4.3 Punctuation.....	97
4.3.2.5 Purpose: Teacher perspectives.....	97
4.3.2.5.1 Writing proficiency and future prospects	97
4.3.2.6 Purpose: Pupil perspectives.....	97
4.3.2.6.1 Writing proficiency and future prospects	97
4.3.2.7 Value: Teacher perspectives	97
4.3.2.7.1 Conflicts	98
4.3.2.8 Value: Pupil perspectives	99
4.3.2.8.1 Conflicts	99
4.3.2.9 Teaching: Teacher perspectives	99
4.3.2.9.1 Teach-Practise-Apply	99
4.3.2.9.2 Explanations	100
4.3.2.9.3 Contextualised in writing.....	100
4.3.2.9.4 Resources.....	101
4.3.2.10 Teaching: Pupils' perspectives.....	101
4.3.2.10.1 Teach-Practise-Apply	101
4.3.2.10.2 Explanations	102
4.3.2.10.3 Contextualised in writing.....	102
4.3.2.10.4 Resources.....	103
4.3.2.11 Learning: Teacher perspectives	103
4.3.2.11.1 Learning over time.....	103
4.3.2.11.2 Recall	103
4.3.2.11.3 Creative, challenging approaches	104
4.3.2.12 Learning: Pupils' perspectives.....	105
4.3.2.12.1 Learning over time.....	105
4.3.2.12.2 Recall	105
4.3.2.12.3 Creative, challenging approaches	106
4.4 Chapter summary	107
CHAPTER FIVE: THEORETICAL DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	108
5.1 Introduction	108
5.2 Declarative and procedural.....	109
5.2.1 Word meaning versus word sense	109
5.2.2 Word classes versus sentence structures	111
5.2.3 Verbal versus non-verbal	115
5.2.4 Teaching versus pupil development.....	116
5.2.5 Isolated words versus relations between words	120
5.2.6 Knowing versus applying	123
5.3 Purpose and value	126
5.3.1 Writing instruction versus writing authentically	126
5.4 Teaching and learning	128
5.4.1 Listening versus collaborating	128
5.4.2 Activeness versus challenge	130
5.4.3 Creating meaning with peers: re-construction versus co-construction	132
5.4.4 Repetition as rote learning versus development over time	134
5.4.5 Automaticity versus mediated recall	135
5.5 Chapter Summary	138

CHAPTER SIX: CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION	142
6.1 Introduction	142
6.2 Recommendations	142
6.3 Models.....	144
6.3.1 Model 1: A conceptual model for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology	145
6.3.2 Model 2: A pedagogical model for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology	149
6.3.2.1 Phase 1: Implicit (semantic focus).....	151
6.3.2.2 Phase 2: Explicit (syntactic focus).....	152
6.3.2.3 Phase 3: Explicit (syntactic-semantic focus)	154
6.4 Summary of recommendations and models.....	155
6.5 Limitations of the study	156
6.6 Implications for policy	156
6.7 Areas for future research.....	159
6.8 My positionality and reflexivity in relation to the study.....	160
6.9 Final thoughts.....	162
REFERENCES	165
APPENDICES	188
Appendix 1: Data gathering schedule: Case 1	188
Appendix 2: Data gathering schedule: Case 2	189
Appendix 3: Data source codes	190
Appendix 4: Lesson Observation Schedule	191
Appendix 5: Teacher Interview Schedule	192
Appendix 6: Pupil Questionnaire	194
Appendix 7: Pupil Interview Schedule 1: Focusing on video-supported reflection	196
Appendix 8: Pupil Interview Schedule 2: Focusing on grammar activities and games	197
Appendix 9: Pupil Writing Conference and Post-Lesson Reflection Schedule	198
Appendix 10: Data analysis example: Using preliminary coding (i.e. initial themes in textual data) to support the emerging structure of the initial template	199
Appendix 11: Data analysis example: Applying and developing the template	200
Appendix 12: Data analysis example: Key thematic multicase findings	203
Appendix 13: Data analysis example: Pupil questionnaires (open questions).....	204
Appendix 14: Data analysis example: Pupil questionnaires (closed questions)	205
Appendix 15: Data analysis example: Open coding and annotation within transcription ..	207
Appendix 16: Data analysis example: Summary of multicase findings	208

List of figures

Figure 6.1: A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Anderson and Krathwohl (2001).....	146
Figure 6.2: Model 1: A conceptual model for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology: a reconceptualisation of Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson and Krathwohl 2001) based on the study's findings	147
Figure 6.3: Model 2: A pedagogical model for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology: a reconceptualisation of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (1978) based on the study's findings	150

List of tables

Table 3.1: Correspondence between research aim, research questions and top-level themes	68
Table 3.2: Scope of each top-level theme	69
Table 5.1: Final assertions mapped against the research questions	140

List of acronyms

NLS	National Literacy Strategy
KS	Key Stage
SPaG	Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling test
KAL	Knowledge about Language
LINC	Language in the National Curriculum
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development
STA	Standards and Testing Agency
Y5 / Y6	Year 5 / Year 6
KTL	Knowledge of technical language

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 The nature of the problem: a personal reflection

I have worked as a lecturer on primary English undergraduate and postgraduate modules within Initial Teacher Education for over a decade and, before that, as a primary school teacher working predominantly in Year 5 (9-10-year-olds) and Year 6 (10-11-year-olds) classrooms. Year on year, many of my student teachers admitted to feeling confused, overwhelmed and anxious about the prospect of teaching grammar. This seemed to be rooted in their lack of subject knowledge, which, in turn, seemed to reflect the “right and wrong” rules of traditional, prescriptive grammar. Despite a wide range of pre-course tasks, subject knowledge audits, taught input and self-study materials - along with my own positive attitude and approach to the teaching of grammar - these feelings seemed rarely to abate, even when their subject knowledge improved. Within this, grammatical terminology was perceived as the epitome of all that was difficult about grammar and, often, as the epitome of all that grammar was. The perennial student teacher question guaranteed in any grammar seminar was always: ‘Do we really need to teach these terms?’ It was often a “call out” during some practical activity and usually expressed with dismay, disbelief and angst. Unfortunately, given the paucity of research at that time, my responses felt too inconclusive, too full of conjecture based on my own professional opinion and connections to research from other domains (such as language acquisition and second language learning).

This personal experience was the motivation for this study. However, over the years, it seems to me that this key question has changed. In the current context of the Primary National Curriculum for English (DfE 2013a) and the Key Stage 2 ‘Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling’ Test (DfE 2013b), *Do we really need to teach these terms?* seems to have become, *How do we need to teach these terms?* Although the same kind of subject knowledge anxieties continue to run underneath this, perhaps there is now a muted acceptance of ‘why’ (given the statutory curriculum and assessment requirements) and a more pressing concern with ‘how’. However, this study does not focus on the student teacher journey recounted here. Instead, it aims to contribute new knowledge to the pedagogy of grammar, taking as its focus grammatical terminology: grammar at its most visible - and its most obscure.

Although this recount of personal experience is anecdotal, these cognitive and affective dispositions have been reflected in the substantial body of research over time. For example, Bloor (1986), Alderson, Clapham and Steel (1997), Andrews (1994; 1999); Alderson and Horak (2001); Myhill et al. (2005) conclude that within the limitations of subject knowledge, it was the students’ knowledge and use of grammatical terminology that was particularly weak. Cajkler and Hislam (2002) found that their student teachers experienced high levels of anxiety when working with grammatical knowledge, to the point of perceiving their relatively secure subject knowledge as weak. Interestingly, this anxiety remained high, even when improvements to linguistic subject knowledge had been made. Wilson and Myhill (2012:11) describe it as a ‘fearfulness of linguistic terminology’ and maintain that it is not uncommon, even amongst teachers with undergraduate literature degrees. While this may not be surprising, as literature degrees rarely address grammar, this “fearfulness” feels palpable

even now, some five years since the revised National Curriculum was introduced. Crystal (1997:24) sums up this enigmatic situation well when he asks, 'What is so special about linguistic terms that prompts people to react in this way? It cannot be just a matter of 'long words'...'

1.2 Significance of the study

The publication of a revised 'National Curriculum for England: Programmes of Study for English' (DfE 2013a, updated 2014) with its statutory 'Table of grammatical terms' and non-statutory 'Glossary', and the introduction of the 'Key Stage 2 Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling' test (DfE 2013b) have brought with it a new impetus for an effective pedagogy for the teaching of grammatical terminology. These changes to national policy sit within the context of an intense grammar debate that has raged unresolved for many years. There is still a dearth of conclusive research evidence (Keen 1997; Hudson 2001; Andrews 2005; Myhill, Jones, Lines & Watson 2012; Myhill & Watson 2014). As a result, Myhill and Watson (2014:54) call for and propose a 'more coherent theorization of a role for grammar in the curriculum'. Myhill et al. (2012:162) draw specific attention to the teaching of explicit metalinguistic understanding: an aspect which has been 'systematically overlooked at both policy level and in research' and for which there is 'neither understanding nor agreement about how best to explain grammatical terminology'. This thesis argues that grammatical terminology may be at the heart of the grammar debate and that a meaning-oriented theorisation of grammatical terminology may well now be needed. Therefore, as an exploration of pupil and teacher perspectives into the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology, this study would seem to be both significant and timely.

1.3 Theoretical lens

In terms of theoretical position, this study is examined through a sociocultural lens. This positions the teaching of grammatical terminology within the meaning-making discourse of a descriptive view of language which emphasises the importance of human cognition, conceptualised learning and social interaction as part of an effective pedagogy for grammatical terminology. The findings are analysed through the theoretical ideas of Vygotsky. Vygotsky sees language as being essential in developing children's intellectual skills. His work into thought and language concludes that the study of grammar is 'of paramount importance for the mental development of the child' (1986:183) and has 'tremendous significance for the general development of the child's thought' (1987:205). He points specifically to the significance of word meaning as 'a tool of thought and expressive means for [the child's] ideas' (1986:160), describing a single word as being 'saturated with sense' (1987:278).

Wolcott (2005:180) maintains there is a 'need for every researcher to be able to place his or her work within some broader context'. Therefore, this study is also contextualised within the critical engagement of debates around grammar (particularly where research on grammatical terminology is limited) and a range of educational research literature. This includes the work of linguists such as Hudson (2010), cognitive

psychologists such as Ausubel (2000), educational psychologists such as Bloom (1956) and grammar theorists such as Halliday (2002). Their ideas are drawn together by the general theme of meaning and of 'using grammar to think with' (Halliday 2002:416). In addition, the study is informed by a wide range of research undertaken by educationalists and academics currently working in this field. Of particular significance is the work of Professor Debra Myhill. It should be noted that the large number of references to Myhill and her research collaborators reflect the recency, relevance, range and richness of this work in a field where there is a lack of conclusive evidence generally.

1.4 Aims

This study investigates the phenomenon of grammatical terminology from the perspectives of pupils and their teachers within the context of the grammar in the Primary National Curriculum for English (DfE 2013a) and the 'Key Stage 2 Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling' test (DfE 2013b). Through the ontological assumption that there is no single reality but a sharing of common features, it explores the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology through the triangulation of pupil and teacher perspectives. The overarching aim of this study is to explore the nature of grammatical terminology, in order to contribute to a meaning-oriented theorisation of grammatical terminology which might inform others (e.g. policy makers, teachers, student teachers and pupils) about what form effective pedagogical practice might take. It proposes two models for classroom practice: (i) a conceptual model and (ii) a pedagogical model for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology. The strength of these models lies in the alternative perspectives from which they have been drawn.

1.5 Research questions

In order to achieve these aims, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. In what ways do the perspectives and practices of pupils and their teachers relate to national policy for the teaching of grammatical terminology?
2. What are the pupils' and teachers' perceptions of the nature, purpose and value of grammatical terminology?
3. What approaches and activities do the pupils and teachers perceive to be most effective in the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology?
4. In what ways are the multiple perspectives and practices of the pupils and teachers valuable in generating models of good practice for the teaching of grammatical terminology?

1.6 Definition of terms

Throughout this study, the term 'grammatical terminology' is used to refer to the technical grammatical terms within the National Curriculum for English: Key Stages 1 and 2 framework document (DfE 2013a) and as listed in 'Appendix 2: Vocabulary, grammar and punctuation' as the Terminology for pupils (ibid:74) and the 'Glossary for the programmes of study for English (non-statutory)' (ibid:80). Choosing an overarching term for the description or analysis of a set of abstract linguistic words (and thereby for the description or analysis of a language) is complex. According to Bloom (2000:22), grammatical terms get their meaning not by reference but by the roles they play, making them very unusual in nature. Firth (1957:121) writes that:

...in linguistics language is turned back upon itself. We have to use language about language, words about words, letters about letters.

A previous curriculum document, the National Literacy Strategy (NLS) (DfEE 1998) introduced the word 'metalanguage' into the teaching repertoires of a new generation of teachers, defining it as 'a language to talk about language'. However, as Berry (1997:24) points out, 'metalanguage' is not exclusive to grammatical terminology. It applies to 'all of the language that is used to talk about language'. The same is true of 'metalinguistic knowledge' and 'linguistic subject knowledge'. These are broader in scope than 'grammatical knowledge'. They involve, for example, 'the ability to explain grammatical concepts clearly and know when to draw attention to them' (Myhill et al. 2012:142). The alternative phrase, 'metalinguistic terminology', is closer to the focus of this study, being described by Fortune (2005:26) as the 'technical terms fundamental to linguistic description'. However, here the prefix 'meta' is potentially problematic as it suggests that 'the individual is in conscious control of linguistic decision making (Gombert 1992) and this might not always be the case, particularly in the pupils' use of this terminology. That said, Gombert argues that all 'awareness' by definition must be 'meta' (1992:10), leading Myhill and Jones (2015:849) to question what might then be the distinction between 'linguistic' and 'metalinguistic' knowledge. Therefore, 'grammatical terminology' would seem to be a less problematic, less ambiguous phrase, avoiding issues around levels of conscious reflection and across so-called implicit and explicit knowledge boundaries.

Therefore, this study uses the phrase 'grammatical terminology', defined simply by Alderson, Clapham and Steel (1997:2) as the words for the 'grammatical categories and functions' and by Berry (2010:26) as 'the lexis of metalanguage'. In this way, 'grammatical terminology' is positioned as a subset of metalinguistic knowledge which is, in turn, positioned as a subset of metacognitive knowledge (Myhill, Jones & Watson 2013). This is not to say that grammatical terminology will be considered in isolation of metalinguistic awareness, knowledge or understanding, or indeed of metacognitive thinking. Even if this were possible, the value of such separation would be questionable. As Keith (1997:12) states, 'terminology and rules are pointless if your mind hasn't grasped the concepts behind the terminology' and the same could be said of empirical research considering grammatical terminology in isolation of broader metalinguistic awareness, knowledge or understanding. That said, this study does intend to focus upon the phenomenon of grammatical terminology above all else. As Myhill et al. (2012:162) explain:

This is an aspect of grammar teaching which has been systematically overlooked at both policy level and in research; there is neither understanding nor agreement about how best to explain grammatical terminology.

With this in mind, 'Grammatical terminology' is probably also a more familiar term and so there is something here about naming a concept so utterly complex with a label that supports a level of accessibility and everyday understanding. This is reminiscent of the notion of using language in "ordinary" ways (Chapman 2000:114) and is illustrated by Wittgenstein when he remarks: 'When I talk about language (words, sentences, etc.) I must speak the language of every day' (Wittgenstein 1958:120).

By way of giving further meaning to the notion of grammatical terminology as used in this study, the content will be taken to be the body of terms listed within the National Curriculum (DfE 2013a) and specifically within Appendix 2 (ibid:74) and the Glossary (DfE 2013a:80) and as assessed by the annual Key Stage 2 'Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling' test (DfE 2013b). This grammatical terminology has its etymological roots in the Classics of thousands of years ago i.e. in Latin and Greek words. For example, *verb* can be found in the Latin *verbum*, meaning word; *noun* can be related to the Latin *nōmen*, which means name and *adverb* comes from the Greek, *adverbium*. In order to avoid ambiguity at points of issue or complexity, Hudson explains – and defends – the Glossary's 'rather conservative position' and preference for 'traditional distinction' (Hudson 2016). That said, twentieth century additions such as 'determiner' are also included. Nevertheless, in the absence of any explicit positionality in the National Curriculum (i.e. its alignment with any theoretical linguistic perspective or specific school of grammar), this body of terminology is perceived to be that which is most typically associated with 'traditional prescriptive grammar' (as defined by Bourke 2005:86).

In order to bring greater clarity to the discussions about word meaning, it is also necessary to consider what it means to describe something as a 'word'. Trask (2004:1-2) defines a word in three different ways: as an 'orthographic word' ('a written sequence which has a white space at each end'); a 'phonological word' ('a piece of speech which behaves as a unit of pronunciation') and a 'lexical item' (or 'lexeme') ('an abstract unit of a language, with a more or less readily identifiable meaning or function'). This examination is useful as this study needs sometimes to distinguish between the written realisation of a word and the word as a lexical item. In addition, Crystal (2008:522) suggests 'word form' as a 'neutral term often used to subsume both' (i.e. the orthographic and the phonological word). However, this is further complicated by the fact that Trask (1999:38) explains that grammatical terms are 'lexical categories' and, as such, are 'not really categories based on meaning at all'. Thus, this study draws upon the fields of applied linguistics, cognitive linguistics and lexical semantics.

Given the title of this thesis, it is also necessary to explain how the key terms of 'policy', 'purpose' and 'practice' are framed within this study. 'Policy' (used interchangeably with 'national policy' here) relates primarily to the current curriculum and assessment documentation and requirements of: (i) the Primary National Curriculum for English (DfE 2013a) and (ii) the Key Stage 2 'Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling' Test (DfE 2013b). As part of the National Curriculum, separate reference is made to a number of key items: (i) the Year 5 and 6 Programme of Study (DfE 2013a:43) (referred to hereafter as 'Programme of Study'); (ii) the

'English Appendix 2: Vocabulary, grammar and punctuation' including year-by-year lists of 'Terminology for pupils' (DfE 2013a:74) (referred to hereafter as 'Appendix 2') and the (iii) Glossary for the programmes of study for English (DfE 2013:80) (referred to hereafter as the 'Glossary').

For the purposes of accuracy and clarity, it is important to note that the National Curriculum was updated in 2014 (which meant that the content of the tests also changed slightly), and then again in 2015. That said, differences relating to the English subject orders were minimal, reflecting mainly typographical changes. Therefore, within this thesis, emphasis will be given to the 2013 version, better reflecting case study contexts at the point of data gathering. The date of the Key Stage 2 'Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling' test will be taken as 2013 unless a particular paper is specified.

Within this study, the notion of 'purpose' is defined as the reason for which something is done, or the reason it is done in a particular way. It is bound up with the idea of value i.e. the degree of importance given to something (Watson 2015:20). The parameters of both terms as used in this study are outlined in more detail in Chapter Three as 'purpose' and 'value' and are both identified as 'top-level themes' within the final template for analysis (see Section 3.10.1, Table 3.2). Finally, the notion of 'practice' relates to the classroom activities of teachers and pupils.

1.7 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters. Following this introduction, Chapter Two presents a review of the literature, locating this study in the context of existing understanding and ensuring the relevance and robustness of its methodological and theoretical frameworks. The literature review is organised into three main parts which reflect the 'What', the 'Why' and the 'How', as per the title of the study. As this is an exploratory case study, the review of literature is wide and, given the inherent complexity and interrelatedness of the field, some overlap between these sections is inevitable. Where this is deemed particularly significant, other sections within the thesis are signposted, often in brackets, to avoid repetition. (This convention is used throughout the thesis.)

Chapter Three presents the methodology of the study. It provides the rationale for the use of case study design (Stake 2006) and describes, justifies and critically reflects on the research process, including what is a rich and diverse range of research methods. Template analysis (King and Brooks 2017; King 2004) is used to frame the analysis of the data and facilitate the identification of the final themes.

Chapter Four presents the findings for each of the two cases. While some analysis of each case is included, the presentation of findings is largely descriptive in order to give the reader a sense of the situations.

Chapter Five draws the findings from Chapter Four together as a theoretical discussion of the multicase findings. The key themes are re-positioned as dialectical contrasts and considered predominantly (though not

exclusively) through a Vygotskian lens. The multicase findings are summarised as final 'assertions' (Stake 2006:50) at the end of the chapter.

Chapter Six develops the final assertions into recommendations for effective practice which are then incorporated into two models, proposed as contributions to knowledge. These are: (i) a conceptual model (Model 1) which develops key ideas using Bloom's Taxonomy (1956), as revised by Anderson and Krathwohl et al. (2001) and (ii) a pedagogical model (Model 2) which develops key ideas using Vygotsky's 'Zone of Proximal Development' (ZPD) (1978). The thesis concludes with a brief discussion of the limitations of the study, a reflexive consideration of what I have learned through this process as a researcher and an indication of areas for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter critically examines the literature around grammar and grammatical terminology, presenting these as ‘debates’ related to the ‘What’, the ‘Why’ and the ‘How’ of teaching and learning. The historical and current arguments are well-rehearsed with disagreements and differences articulated around: (i) the conceptualisation of the word ‘grammar’ and the associated subject knowledge content; (ii) the perceived purpose and value of grammar and the potential benefits for the child as a language learner (particularly in relation to writing); and (iii) the uncertainties around what might constitute effective classroom practice. Locke (2010) uses the military metaphor of “the grammar wars” to encapsulate something of the strength of feeling behind the opposing voices, be these of teachers, linguists, educationalists, politicians or the general public. Carter (1990:106) presents the arguments as being vociferous: ‘it is only one small step from splitting infinitives to splitting heads open on football terraces’. This reminds us that a lack of attention to grammar has often been equated with a decline in standards, behaviour and social discipline by politicians (Locke 2010). Meanwhile, Kolln (1996:29) advocates grammar as ‘a tool that enables the writer to make effective choices’; Crystal (2004a:16) emphasises the precision provided by the use of terminology, and Hudson (2001) argues that grammatical terminology should be regarded as a worthy and relevant body of knowledge, of interest in its own intellectual and aesthetic right. Grammar and its associated terminology divides opinion. Norman (2010:9) describes it as lurking ‘ever-ready to provide debate, complaint and even outright warfare’. Myhill and Watson (2014:53) conclude that these debates have not substantially developed since they began in the early 1960s. The same arguments have been ‘voiced and re-voiced over time, but with little re-theorization or advancement’ (ibid).

This chapter is organised into four main parts. Part one, ‘Debates in Policy’, considers the ‘What’. It presents something of the historical and current debates in England and Wales from the perspective of national policy. The current context focuses upon the National Curriculum (DfE 2013a) and the ‘Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling’ test (DfE 2013b). Part two, ‘Debates in Purpose’, examines the ‘Why’. It explores, through a more theoretical lens, the possible purposes for teaching grammatical terminology in the primary classroom. Part three addresses ‘Debates in Practice’ and looks at some of what is already understood about teaching and learning grammatical terminology, alongside a consideration of what is already known about how words are learned. Part four, a smaller section, considers the significance of teacher and pupil perspectives.

While each part is considered discretely, the complex and interrelated nature of the phenomenon of grammatical terminology is acknowledged through signposting. While the past tense is used predominantly to refer to the literature in Section 2.2 to aid consistency and coherence, at other times the present tense is used.

2.2 Debates in Policy

2.2.1 Historical context

In its efforts to rebuild the nation state in the post-war era, the Newbolt Report (1921) can be said to mark the beginning of a century-long debate around the role of language and a divergence between the aims of the government and the English teaching profession. However, given the limitations of the scope of this study, this literature review takes, as its starting point, education in England and Wales in the 1960s and the change in educational thinking around that time. Language teaching had been characterised by the explicit naming of parts, drilling of 'correct' forms, parsing and clause analysis. Carter (1990:104) cites a typical example from an 'O' level GCE paper (1961) to demonstrate the kind of explicit knowledge about language that was required:

...select one example from the above passage of each of the following:

- (i) an infinitive used as the direct object of a verb
- (ii) an infinitive used in apposition to a pronoun
- (iii) a gerund...

However, the Dartmouth Conference in the USA signalled a move away from the conception of grammar teaching characterised by excessive exercises in naming syntactical elements. This approach was effectively labelled 'a waste of time' (Muller 1967:68). The dominant British and North American view emerging from Dartmouth seemed to be that 'most children cannot learn grammar and...even to those who can it is of little value' (Thompson 1969). Grammar teaching was pulled in an increasingly decentralised direction, and dissatisfaction grew. For Myhill and Watson (2014:42), it was the 'widespread abandoning of grammar teaching'.

By the mid-1980s, learning the rules, definitions and distinctions by rote was largely rejected. This move was encapsulated in a number of key documents such as the HMI report, 'English from 5-16' (1984:3), which retained a commitment to teaching terminology on the grounds that pupils should learn about language so that they 'have a vocabulary for discussing it, so that they can use it with greater awareness and because it is interesting'. The report also maintained that pupils 'should learn such grammatical terminology as is useful to them for the discussion of language' and this 'must depend on how much they can assimilate with understanding and apply to purposes they see to be meaningful and interesting' (ibid:14).

A call for enquiry came in the form of the Kingman Committee (DES 1988), to be followed soon after by the Cox Committee (DES 1989). They recommended that explicit teaching about language should occupy more space in the English curriculum but they warned that this was not intended to signal a return to the old-style conception of grammar. The Kingman Report (DES 1988) suggested that Carter's (1990) conception of 'knowledge about language' (KAL) was the key to raising standards in reading and writing. The Cox Report (DES 1989) underlined the cognitive and social benefits of making implicit language use explicit through a process of sustained reflection. This model of language was incorporated into the 'Language in the National Curriculum' programme (LINC) (Carter 1990), a three-year in-service project (1989-1992) funded by the

Department of Education and Science and the local education authorities of England and Wales. Its main aim was to produce materials for teachers to use in the classroom in the light of the views and approaches of the Kingman (DES 1988) and Cox (DES 1989) Reports. Informed by KAL (Carter 1990), the materials were influential, having an enormous impact involving hundreds of teachers through extended discussion (Hudson 2013). Thus, grammar teaching in schools became influenced by descriptive and functional approaches to language, aimed at empowering pupils to deploy language more effectively by learning to reflect on spoken and written texts. This seemed to signal a new approach and one that was functional, contextualised and empowering.

However, political disquiet was evident (Hansard 1991) and the final publication of the LINC materials was halted by the government for being insufficiently formal and decontextualised in character. Thus, the debate about what children should be taught about grammar rumbled on.

Successive governments began to pull grammar teaching back under central control. In 1984, the Conservative government began to reverse a trend of decentralisation in schools and, with it, began the 'restoration of a grammar school curriculum' (Clark 2005:37). This culminated most significantly in the introduction of a National Curriculum for English (DfEE 1989), established by the Education Reform Act (1988). It was followed approximately a decade later by the implementation of the National Literacy Strategy (NLS) (DfES 1998). With it, 'an underlying sense of barely disguised outrage at its abandonment' began to re-surface (Myhill & Watson 2014:42).

The NLS 'Framework for Teaching' document included the first-ever official government endorsed glossary of grammatical terminology, comprising 200 technical terms of which about 90 were related to grammar. It stated that, by the time pupils leave Year 6, they should have developed 'a suitable technical vocabulary through which to understand and discuss their reading and writing' (DfEE 1998:3). A 'Technical Vocabulary List' at word, sentence and text levels recommended that five-year-old children should understand terms such as 'grapheme', 'rime' and 'recount' and that eleven-year-olds should know terms such as 'assonance', 'passive voice' and 'word derivation' (DfEE 1998:69-72). Policy makers were adamant that a key document, 'Grammar for Writing' (DfEE 2000:7), was not designed to bring about a return to traditional approaches such as 'naming the parts of speech' or providing 'arbitrary rules for 'correct' English' but, instead, was an attempt to convey a position of contextualised grammar teaching. Thus, the title, 'Grammar *for* Writing', was intended to highlight the need for pupils' language learning to be contextualised in their own reading and writing. In this way, national policy was said to be in line with the work of Halliday (1985), Perera (1987) and the Kingman Report (DES 1988), encompassing a broader sense of 'grammatical awareness' intended to enable pupils to reflect upon language as it occurs as part of everyday use (Beard 1999:49). Lefstein (2009:378) described it in favourable terms as a 'rhetorical approach to grammar teaching' in which the purpose of teaching grammar was stated in the 'Grammar for Writing' document as increasing 'the range of choices open to them when they write' (DfEE 2000:7).

This represented more of an instrumental approach, which had a functional aim of improving children's writing. This differed from the notion that knowledge about language (KAL) was interesting and of value in its own right, as advocated by the Kingman Report (DES 1988). However, the metalanguage (as it was termed) of the NLS was contentious and criticised. This was partly due to perceived inaccuracies in terminology and accompanying advisory documents were deemed to be riddled with errors (Cajkler 2004). But it was also to do with the theoretical assumptions behind the grammar. Examples include Urquhart (2002:32) who maintained that the NLS was a return to traditional approaches and that, within it, literacy continued to be defined 'very much as it might have been represented at any time in the last century'. For Frater (2004), 'Grammar for Writing' actually contradicted its introduction, violating rather than embracing Halliday's (1973:20) principle that language is 'meaningful, contextualised and in the broadest sense social'. For Wilson (2001:10), the NLS and its yearly and termly objectives ran 'the grave risk...of returning teachers and children to a more sophisticated version of the decontextualised language work', common over forty years ago. She outlined the challenge for tomorrow's teachers as being to develop and share explicit language knowledge in a way that strengthened pupils' literacy practice.

This reignited disagreements about how useful it might be to share any linguistic terms and concepts with pupils (Keen 1997). In previous years, these arguments had included a call for terminology to be carefully limited to specific developmental purposes, including helping pupils to reflect more effectively on language use. For example, Richmond (1990) argued that such terminology should be within reasonable reach of pupils' conceptual frameworks and stages of development. Perera (1987) and Andrews (2005) distinguished between what teachers need to know about language and what they need to teach. In contrast, other commentators pointed to the perceived benefits. Carter (1990:119) outlined the importance of the use of metalinguistic knowledge to provide pupils with a pathway to acquiring 'conscious control and conscious choice over language', arguing that the decline in grammar teaching had 'disempowered' children from being able to '**see through** language in a systematic way and to use language more discriminatingly' (ibid). The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority document, 'Not Whether But How' (QCA 1999), ascertained that, like any specialist vocabulary, the use of terminology for grammar was important, frequently affording the pupil clarity and economy where meaning might otherwise be obscured. While Beard (2000) acknowledged that other research reviews (e.g. Wilkinson 1971) had consistently failed to provide evidence that grammar teaching (and, within this, the teaching of its terminology) made any difference to the quality of pupils' writing, he expressed optimism in its 'unfulfilled potential' (Beard 1999:49).

A significant number of government training materials supported the introduction of the NLS. However, despite this large-scale national intervention, writing attainment remained stubbornly low in the National Curriculum end of Key Stage 2 test scores. While the testing of reading and maths saw steady rises, worrying gaps remained in writing, and particularly between: reading and writing; the writing of girls and boys; writing and children entitled to free school meals. Within gender differences, boys' motivation for writing received significant attention (e.g. UKLA/PNS 2004).

2.2.2 Current context

A change in government in May 2010 brought with it a further change in policy relating to the explicit teaching of skills. References to spelling, punctuation, grammar and handwriting - and schools' proficiency to deliver this - started to occupy a more prominent position in policy documents and inspection reports generally. For example, 'Moving English Forward' (Ofsted 2012:7) called for published research on the teaching of writing to include 'the effective teaching of spelling and handwriting'.

In June 2011, Lord Bew was charged with the responsibility of reviewing the national end of Key Stage 2 tests. The Bew Report, an 'Independent Review of Key Stage 2 testing, assessment and accountability' (2011), stated that writing composition should be teacher assessed only, with the more technical aspects of English - such as grammar, punctuation and spelling - assessed via an externally marked test. It proposed 'spelling, grammar, punctuation, vocabulary' as elements of writing 'where there are clear 'right' and 'wrong' answers, which lend themselves to externally-marked testing' (Bew 2011:60).

Thus, the Bew Report heralded the introduction of a Key Stage 2 test called 'The Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling test' – or "GPS" test, though the unofficial acronym of "SPaG" test had already become lodged in teacher discourse. (For the purpose of reader familiarity, this test will be referred to as the SPaG test from this point forward.) Undertaken for the first time by Year 6 pupils in May 2013, the test included questions such as:

Question 14. Which sentence contains two verbs? Tick one.

The lambs played happily.

The cows sleep in the field.

The puppies growl and bark.

The horses eat grass and hay.

Question 16. Complete the sentence below with an adverb that makes sense.

The sun shone _____ in the sky.

Question 37. Circle the two nouns in the sentence below.

The boy reached carefully into his bag.

Statements from national professional bodies levelled criticisms of artificial language and lack of context. For example, the United Kingdom Literacy Association (UKLA 2013) expressed concerns about high stakes testing, and the impact of tests on narrowing the curriculum. Linguist, David Crystal (2013), expressed his alarm in his blog, stating that: 'This is how grammar was taught before the 1960s' and 'My basic view is that it, and the view of language lying behind it, turns the clock back half a century'. It can be argued that the test ran contrary to existing research evidence, such as Richard's (2011:2) conclusions that a "secretarial" test of spelling, grammar, punctuation and vocabulary is eminently suited to excessive test preparation' and Graham and Perin's (2007:21) earlier findings of an adverse effect for the 'explicit and systematic teaching of the parts of speech and structure of sentences'. Ultimately, Keen's (1997:444) words seem significant that, 'Crash

courses in parts of speech and clause analysis and a focus on the identification and correction of grammatical errors may offer a censorious framework for showing up pupils' mistadiscussion and kes'.

In July 2013, a new National Curriculum was published. The new materials made much mention of grammatical terminology throughout the Programme of Study, alongside a re-appearance of an NLS-style 'Terminology for pupils' list as an appendix item. It asserted, for example, that Year 5 pupils, 'should learn to recognise and use: 'relative clause, modal verb, relative pronoun, parenthesis, bracket, dash, determiner, cohesion, ambiguity' (DfE 2013a).

While earlier versions of the National Curriculum could be said to have adopted something of a KAL approach - albeit with a focus on Standard English - the 2013 version represented something of an ideology shift within national policy. This was represented by a greater emphasis on traditional approaches to the technical aspects of grammar teaching and grammatical terminology. This was, in turn, supported by a grammar annex (DfE 2013a:80) that stated:

The grammatical terms that pupils should learn are labelled as 'terminology for pupils'. They should learn to recognise and use the terminology through discussion and practice. All terms in bold should be understood with the meanings set out in the Glossary.

Phrases such as 'should learn' and 'should be understood' and 'the meanings set out' suggested a much more traditional rule-based approach. Interestingly, a sentence which had appeared in the draft version of the glossary underlining 'brevity and clarity rather than exhaustive accuracy' had been removed, perhaps stepping away from any suggestion that this glossary might not be wholly and reliably "accurate". Instead, any potential disparities were shifted onto teachers, acknowledging the well-documented difficulties associated with teachers' subject knowledge confidence and competence:

For some concepts, the technical definition may be slightly different from the meaning that some teachers may have learnt at school or may have been using with their own pupils; in these cases, the more familiar meaning is also discussed. (DfE 2013:74)

This leads us to the issue of teacher subject knowledge.

2.2.3 Implications of policy

2.2.3.1 Teacher subject knowledge

According to Hudson and Walmsley (2005), the absence of grammar from the English education system has had significant implications for teachers' subject knowledge. For example, in 1988, a QCA survey of teachers in the period following the introduction of the NLS concluded that there was a 'significant gap in teachers' knowledge and confidence in sentence grammar' (1998:35). Medwell, Wray, Poulson and Fox (1998) suggested that differences in the use of grammatical terminology existed between effective and less effective teachers of literacy. However, when faced with a literacy quiz, all teachers appeared to avoid linguistic terminology, including those teachers considered to be 'effective'. Fisher, Lewis and Davies (2000:11) found

that while some teachers used grammatical terminology to good effect, others presented information in a 'confused or unhelpful way'.

While concerns about weak teacher subject knowledge are not new (Myhill et al. 2012), Richmond (2015:11) describes the National Curriculum as being representative of 'an extraordinary overload of metalinguistic concepts and grammatical categories to be taught explicitly in Key Stages 1 and 2' which, 'taken as a whole, could usefully serve as part of the syllabus of an A-level course in language and linguistics'. Beard's (2000) argument that the criticisms of weak subject knowledge should be considered in the context of this high-level expectation is also applicable here, being potentially problematic for the many teachers who had not been taught it at school themselves (ibid). Myhill et al. (2005) extend this notion of a grammar gap to undergraduate study. Their research found that more teachers had a literature-based degree than a language-based one and that, as a result, English-specialist teachers seemed to feel more confident with literary rather than linguistic-based discussions. They concluded that professional identities may have been shaped in favour of literature-based teaching, and the influence of a more linguistic-based approach rejected (ibid:90). Thus, English graduate teachers may have additional or different values-based challenges to overcome.

The Glossary is intended to support teachers in their subject knowledge development. Frequent hyperlinks make connections with other related terms, in addition to definitions and examples of use. For example:

Active voice: An active verb has its usual pattern of subject and object (in contrast with the passive).

Adjective: The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used: before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or after the verb *be*, as its complement.

Adverb The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb or even a whole clause. Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes that can be used as adverbials, such as preposition phrases, noun phrases and subordinate clauses. (Glossary 2013a:80-81)

The level of detail within the Glossary could be interpreted as a response to previous criticisms of a lack of specificity in curriculum materials (Bell 2015). In providing an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the Glossary, Bell concludes that, although the 'definitions of the Glossary are not entirely unproblematic' (2015:149), the Glossary is 'specific, consistent, and largely accurate' (2015:150). He explains that:

What is not clear is whether any document of the length of the Glossary *could* provide comprehensive definitions of such complex and densely interlinked terms. (2015:149)

This notion of a 'dictionary view' of language (Evans and Green 2006:160) is fraught with difficulty. For example, while the hyperlinks to related technical terms are used to 'define each other' (DfE 2013a:70) (see 2.4.3), it results in a density and complexity which make it potentially difficult for a non-specialist teacher to understand. However, providing even greater detail to explain grammatical terms is also problematic. Trask (1999:32) suggests it would take 'a whole page or more' to come up with a complete definition of subordinate clause (requiring further explanations of *clause*, *finite verb*, *verb* and so on). He concludes that the 'grammar of a language is a complex and highly structured affair, and it operates in terms of concepts and categories

which themselves have to be defined in the same way (1999:33). Therefore, the study of grammar 'is no different from the serious study of anything else': language 'is not simple, and grammar is not simple', and it is not just a matter of 'common sense' (ibid).

Therefore, the important issue would seem to be in the need to contextualise this content and to support teachers in knowing how to teach it in class (Bell 2015). However, in the absence of any nationally supported professional development opportunities, teachers need to work their own way through this highly technical language towards meaning. Their professional decisions may be influenced by the weighty nature of this resource and by the SPaG test, which ultimately tests pupils' knowledge of related aspects of it. Thus, without effective training, Bell (2015:150) argues that schools 'may use the SPaG test as the closest thing there is to a guide to teaching the content'.

Furthermore, Hudson (1996) suggests that this issue may extend beyond depth of declarative subject knowledge to a more fundamental principle about language and how concepts and terminology are perceived. As people we typically 'try our hardest to make our language identical, in every detail, to the rest of our community' (Hudson 1996:10). However,

...everyone is different, because everyone applies a slightly different mental apparatus to a range of different experiences; so some of us may arrive at a word-class taxonomy which is less efficient than it might be. Whether, or how often, this happens we have no idea; but we cannot assume without question that the most efficient taxonomy is the one that every adult speaker of English has in their heads. (Hudson 2010:130)

The impossibility of any two people having identical perceptions of the same word has implications for the way in which the Glossary is positioned. The Glossary's meanings are presented as accurate and fixed. For example: 'All terms in bold should be understood with the meanings set out in the Glossary' (DfE 2013a:80). While teachers are encouraged to use other sources alongside it, recommendations and citations are not given (see 2.3.4).

2.2.3.2 Pupil development

Myhill's studies (2000 and 2003) argue that when this limited or uncertain teacher knowledge sits alongside a failure to build on pupils' prior conceptual understanding, it often results in pupil misconceptions. Norman (1992) found that developing children's ability to use specialist terminology alongside the acquisition of new concepts is a lengthy and complex process. This raises questions about the nature of pupil progression in terms of grammatical conceptual development. While some theoretical studies exist to offer insight into aspects of metalinguistic development (e.g. Gombert 1992), Myhill (2005) concludes that very little is known about how pupils develop metalinguistic understanding and the implications of this for effective classroom practice. This area is vastly under-researched and there is very little known about how children progress, either conceptually or linguistically.

According to Myhill and Jones (2015), the most comprehensive and indeed seminal work on metalinguistic knowledge (albeit focusing on oral development) is that of Gombert (1992; 2003). Gombert identifies five sub-areas within this: metaphonological, metalexic/metasemantic, metasyntactic, metapragmatic and metatextual. Around these sub-divisions of stages of development, Gombert (ibid) presents two levels of cognitive control over language: the epilinguistic stage and the metalinguistic stage, maintaining that implicit epilinguistic grammatical knowledge precedes the explicit. In this way, 'linguistic competence precedes conscious linguistic control' (Myhill and Jones 2015:842).

This reflects the broad premise that, developmentally, the explicit is derived from making the implicit visible. It is a premise implicit in the National Curriculum:

The grammar of our first language is learnt **naturally and implicitly** through interactions with other speakers and from reading. Explicit knowledge of grammar is, however, very important, as it gives us more conscious control and choice in our language. (DfE 2013a:74) [emphasis added]

However, Hartwell (1985:109) provides a reconceptualisation of this implicit-explicit relationship through his presentation of different views of grammar. Hartwell's model, 'Five meanings of Grammar', builds upon the work of Francis (1954) and the important distinction he made between 'Grammar 1' - 'the set of formal patterns in which the words of a language are arranged in order to convey larger meanings' (i.e. "autonomous and implicit grammar") and 'Grammar 2' - 'the branch of linguistic science which is concerned with the description, analysis and formulization of formal language patterns' (i.e. "scientific grammar"). Grammar 1 can be seen as being cognitively impenetrable and not available for direct examination whereas Grammar 2 is available knowledge but only to trained linguists (Hartwell 1985:113). Consequently, Hartwell concludes, 'the rules of Grammar 2 are simply unconnected to productive control over Grammar 1' and that 'Grammar 2 knowledge has no effect on Grammar 1 performance' (1985:115): a hypothetical premise being that 'if Grammar 2 knowledge affected Grammar 1 performance, then linguists would be our best writers' (ibid). This turns on its head the premise that the *explicit* knowledge and understanding is achieved by making the *implicit* visible.

To Francis' model (1954), Hartwell adds Grammar 4: 'the grammars used in school' which are school grammars 'developed unscientifically, largely based on two inadequate principles': appeals to logic and analogy to Latin grammar (Fries 1927). Therefore, it could be argued that the grammatical terminology of the National Curriculum represents the schooled grammar of Grammar 4 which is a pseudo-replication of linguistic-specialist grammar of Grammar 2 which, in itself, is not appropriate for pupils and does not ensure productive control over Grammar 1. This turns the teacher's task of making grammatical terminology 'intelligible and useful' to pupils (Beard 2000:207) into a very challenging one indeed. According to Berry (1999:33), such 'direct application of linguistic insight' is one of the major problems of grammar teaching. Richmond (2015) identifies a fundamental problem of 'imagining that prior analytical instruction in the primary years will produce eleven-year-olds who can use correct grammar in their speech and writing'. Essentially, he argues, the way children learn to do things as complex as this is 'not the way that adults, already competent in these things, find it most enlightening to analyse them abstractly' (Richmond 2015:3).

The National Curriculum does not present grammar as a stage model of development for pupils, but it does present something of a teaching sequence as defined through its year-by-year terminology lists. It also acknowledges the need to 'revisit in subsequent years', in order to 'consolidate knowledge and build on pupils' understanding' and even to 'go beyond the content set out here if they feel it is appropriate' (DfE 2013a:74). Therefore, the table of terms could be a useful starting point for whole school planning for progression through a spiral grammar curriculum. However, care would need to be taken to ensure that this did not result in a curriculum of terminology.

Richmond (2015:15) calls for a 'much more modest collection of grammatical concepts and terminology' which could then be extended beyond the primary years into Key Stage 3. Presently, the grammatical content at Key Stages 3 and 4 is very thin in comparison with the requirements at Key Stages 1 and 2. Richmond describes the Key Stage 3 and 4 expectations as having 'relatively simple "trust-the-teacher" brevity' (2015:15). However, as grammar involves high-level thinking skills, this content may be more appropriately taught and/or revisited in older years.

This raises concerns about the Key Stage 1 version of the SPaG test, intended for 6-7-year-olds. This was introduced in June 2016 to assess the new Key Stage 1 curriculum. Although controversial at the time, its status soon became 'optional' (following the mistaken publication of the 2016 test answers on the government website prior to the testing period). It can be argued that this test is even more reflective of a traditional old-style approach to grammar than the Key Stage 2 test. It has an emphasis on labelling word classes and sentence structures. The brevity and simplicity of the questions themselves (presumably reflective of the test designers' attempts to make these questions clear and accessible to younger pupils) results in there being even fewer contextual cues or language patterns which would enable the pupils to use their own grammatical skills 'naturally and implicitly' (DfE 2013a:74). Even the pictures (albeit with distinct 1950s/60s overtones) have disappeared from successive papers. The example questions below from the 2017 test would seem to be even more reminiscent of the 'O' level GCE paper (1961) cited by Carter (1990:104) than the Key Stage 2 SPaG test.

Question 7. Circle the adjective in the sentence below.
Take a blue crayon from the box to colour in the sky.

Question 10. Write one adverb to complete the sentence below.
We cut out the shapes

Question 12. Tick the noun phrase below. Tick one.

- the tiny insect
- so quickly
- had been eating
- very colourful.

The test framework maintains that a large proportion of questions are at a low cognitive level (DfE 2016) but the very decontextualised nature of these questions suggests that the inverse might be true when the high-level challenge of recalling abstract grammatical terminology is considered. However, the Key Stage 1 SPaG

test may have already found a home in the whole school curriculum under the auspices of a spiral curriculum, resulting in overly prescriptive classroom approaches based on decontextualised tick-box practice worksheets. This approach threatens to monopolise the grammar-related reading and writing curriculum of six to seven-year-olds. It also reduces opportunities for getting to grips with what Keen (1997) calls children's 'natural' metalanguage before attempting to give them more formal linguistic terms.

Conversely, the absence of a terminology list for secondary pupils leads Richmond (2015:16) to conclude that the Key Stage 3 expectations are, in comparison, surprisingly modest and that:

All our educational experience tells us that, if there is a time when knowledge about language should become more explicit, when the use of terminology should advance, when analysis of texts, including grammatical analysis, should occupy more of the teacher's and the students' time and attention, it is at the secondary-school stage...

As Richmond points out, there is also little evidence of progression within 'grammatical analysis'. This is evident between Key Stage 1 and 2 and between the primary and secondary years. This can be seen in the repetition of the verb 'use' for each Year group (including at Key Stage 3 and 4). For example, at Key Stage 4, pupils should 'consolidate and build' through:

using linguistic and literary terminology accurately and confidently in discussing reading, writing and spoken language (DfE 2014)

And at Key Stage 1 (Year 2), some ten years earlier, pupils should 'be taught to':

use and understand the grammatical terminology in [English appendix 2](#) in discussing their writing (DfE 2013:25)

Anderson and Krathwohl's (2001) revision of Bloom's taxonomy (1956) demonstrates how a wide range of verbs and verb phrases arranged hierarchically according to complexity of cognitive processes can provide teachers with useful distinctions on which to base their teaching (i.e. 'remember', 'understand', 'apply', 'analyse', 'create') (Anderson & Krathwohl et al. 2001), potentially better supporting teachers with pedagogical guidance. This is reflected in some international curricula such as the Australian English curriculum and its more precise range of verbs such as 'understand', 'recognise', and 'explain' (ACARA 2012). Instead, the nature of the word 'use' in the context of a Year 2 class in England is used as a catch-all, despite being fundamentally different to the nature of the word 'use' in the context of a Key Stage 4 class; different even to the nature of the word 'use' in a Year 5 or Year 6 class.

2.2.4 Section summary

This section has addressed the historical and current 'Debates in policy', drawing attention to some of the disagreements and differences of the opposing voices over the past fifty years, particularly between those of educationalists and politicians. In its consideration of current policy, it has raised issues relating to teacher subject knowledge and pupil development. Some areas of question and/or concern would seem to lie within: (i) the notion of dense verbal meanings being presented as accurate and fixed within the Glossary; (ii) the perception that implicit knowledge is rendered explicit through direct teaching in Appendix 2; (iii) the emphasis on decontextualised pupil recall of abstract grammatical terminology in the SPaG test and (iv) the lack of differentiation to support progression in the Programme of Study.

Therefore, this section has raised the following research question as significant:

Research question 1: In what ways do the perspectives and practices of pupils and their teachers relate to national policy for the teaching of grammatical terminology?

The next section picks up on the discussions related to teacher subject knowledge. It suggests that this may extend to uncertainties regarding the conceptualisation of grammar and, beyond this, to a lack of understanding of theoretical positioning. This would seem to impact on the notion of purpose: without understanding the reason for which something is done, or the reason it is done in a particular way, it would seem impossible to determine what effective practice might look like.

2.3 Debates in Purpose

2.3.1 Conceptualisations of grammar

In addition to the research evidence which suggests there are weaknesses in teacher subject knowledge, UK and US-based research findings have reported that teachers struggle to define grammar, noting confusion between grammatical rules and usage or linguistic etiquette (Petruszella 1996; Vavra 1996; Watson 2015). Watson (2015) found that some teachers could only manage to articulate grammar in vague ways as an 'airy concept', while other teachers approached it by reflecting on what grammar was not. However, it is debatable whether this demonstrates a lack of grammatical understanding, or merely an inability 'to offer a definitive description' (Chapman 2000:36). As Macken-Horarik (2012:180) points out, grammar as a term is problematic as it 'refers both to the study of language (metalanguage) and to language in use (language)'. Norman (2010:4) describes grammar as a paradox – that a subject discipline should be so long-lived and yet so 'nervous about its own place'. He offers his own description of 'grammar', identifying four broad areas as one possible way of defining it:

(i) word form and their morphology, (ii) word function and their terminology, (iii) sentence structure and its syntax, and (iv) discourse structures – though not *all* these topics represent school grammar in *all* documentation. (2010:40)

Crystal (2008:217) maintains that many people are not aware that there is more than one 'grammar'. By way of illustration, he lists: 'descriptive grammar', 'reference grammars', 'theoretical grammar', 'comparative grammar', 'generative grammar', 'traditional grammar' and 'functional grammar' (2008:217). When Micciche (2004:717) asks what kind of grammatical knowledge we are talking about, she reminds us of some of the different schools of thought:

Often grammar is used in a way that assumes we all understand and agree upon its meaning—and, in fact, grammar referred to loosely seems to signify traditional “school grammar” and its focus on repetitive, decontextualized, drill-and-kill exercises. However, grammar has a range of referents (i.e. prescriptive, descriptive, rhetorical) that describe very different kinds of intellectual activities, differences that matter tremendously.

Therefore, it is posited that a more theoretical understanding of grammar would enable teachers to think differently about grammatical terminology; to better inform, explore and enhance the way in which they perceive grammar teaching and learning in their classrooms. It is over twenty years ago since Keen (1997) called for an increased understanding of how grammatical terminology relates to learning:

...only limited research has been undertaken into the relation between language and metalanguage from a learning point of view, so we have little understanding of the purposes of metalanguage, or of how different aspects of metalanguage relate to each other. (1997:444)

That said, developments have been evident. For example, Hudson and Walmsley (2005:2) propose the following purposes of grammatical terminology:

1. To expand their grammatical competence
2. To underpin this competence in performance (in writing, reading, speaking, listening)
3. To support foreign language learning
4. To develop their thinking skills
5. To develop their investigative skills
6. To appreciate their own minds
7. To develop a critical response to language use

While the scope of this thesis does not permit the exploration of a wide range of “purposes”, it will address the two that seem to be the most prominent in the literature and the most pertinent to this study. These are: (i) pupils as language learners and (ii) pupils as thinkers (aligning with numbers 1, 2 and 4 of Hudson and Walmsley's list). Within the overarching theoretical position of socio-constructivism, these “purposes” can be aligned with cognitive linguistics. Giovanelli (2015:36) states that cognitive linguistics:

...offers a way of focusing on language in use but with some recourse to a cognitive architecture; consequently, language is not just only viewed as a response to social need but also as fundamentally driven by the ways in which we operate as humans.

His reference to 'language in use' and 'cognitive architecture' neatly encapsulates these two “purposes” of 'pupils as language learners' and 'pupils as thinkers'.

Theoretically, these areas reflect the work of Halliday and Vygotsky and their theories around language and cognition. These will now be explored. This will be within the contexts of 'descriptive' and 'rhetorical' grammar, as previously signposted by Micciche (2004:717) as intellectual pedagogical alternatives to perhaps the more typically known traditional, prescriptive view.

2.3.2 Pupils as language learners

2.3.2.1 *Language as a meaning-making resource*

Descriptive grammar attempts to describe the relationships between forms and their functions. This is in direct contrast to the traditional prescriptive view of grammar as a body of knowledge which sees forms and function as the embodiment of accuracy and the 'fix-it approach to weak writing' (Micciche 2004:716). The seminal work of Halliday (1985) presents language as a resource for learning; as 'a meaning-making system through which we interactively shape our world and ourselves' (Derewianka and Jones 2010:9). Halliday's theoretical frame, Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), is chiefly concerned with how language works or functions semiotically in relation to the study of texts. The underlying notion is that of choice and meaning, thereby empowering pupils in their understanding of language and in their ability to manipulate it (Halliday 1976). Halliday writes that, 'To mean is always to choose' (Halliday 2013:33). As a social semiotic, this is meaning created by the whole community (ibid) rather than by the individual. The research evidence suggests that SFL can help children develop more conscious control of their writing and critical understanding of their reading' (French 2010; Gebnard, Chena and Britton 2014).

In terms of grammatical terminology, SFL uses a functionally oriented terminology, which Halliday coins 'grammatics', to distinguish between the grammar of language in use and the metalanguage we use to study it (Halliday 2002). Derewianka and Jones (2010:14) maintain that SFL 'assists teachers in supporting learners' development of academic language' and builds on traditional grammar 'but with a more functional orientation'. Bold (2012) suggests that, ultimately, teachers need to ask whether a piece of terminology will serve meaning. It is a question that seems particularly significant within the semiotic context of SFL, where language is seen not as the expression of meaning but as meaning-creating (Halliday 2013:32).

According to Giovanelli (2015), this functional approach to language is reflected in the genre-based pedagogy of the NLS (1998) in England and in the rhetorical grammar approach in the US (Kolln 2006; Kolln and Gray 2012). Kolln (2006) maintains that grammatical knowledge is a rhetorical tool that all writers should understand and control. Advocates of rhetorical grammar maintain this is the approach that stands to develop thinking in the social context of writing. It is an approach aimed at supporting the pupil's ability to make conscious choices (Dawkins 1995). In this way, rhetorical grammar stands to empower the child as a writer and a reader with the skill of intention and understanding, and thereby challenge the view of grammar competency as the source of the social power. Within this, grammatical terminology provides students with:

a vocabulary for thinking through the specificity of words and grammatical choices, the work they do in the production of an idea of culture and an idea of a people. (Micciche 2004:731)

Thus, within rhetorical grammar, grammatical terminology is seen as having real purpose and value in the critique of the pupils' own texts. That said, grammatical terminology may not always be at the forefront of rhetorical grammar teaching – instead often taught at the point of need. This returns the discussion to whether the explicit use of grammatical terminology helps children as readers and writers or whether it is better to address linguistic constructions without the explicit use of formal grammatical terminology (Fearn & Farnan

2007). Nevertheless, the purpose of grammatical terminology within rhetorical grammar is prominent ideologically if not always pedagogically.

2.3.2.2 Grammar and grammatical terminology for writing, reading and reflecting

Traditionally, the role of grammar has been seen as serving writing. However, research conclusions are mixed. A wealth of research and meta-analyses maintains that the teaching of grammar has little or no effect on writing (Hillocks and Smith 1991; Keen 1997; Hudson 2001; Andrews 2005). For example, Sheard, Chambers, Stavin and Elliott (2012) used electronic handsets to provide instant feedback to pupils about their grammatical knowledge. They concluded that although there was a significant positive impact on pupils' grammatical knowledge, there was no impact on writing. Elbow (1981:169) takes this further to maintain that, 'For most people, nothing helps their writing so much as learning to ignore grammar as they write.'

Conversely, some studies have found there to be a positive impact on writing. Myhill's (2008:271) research into linguistic development has revealed that '[t]here is strong and robust evidence that meaningful teaching of grammar can have a beneficial impact on writing'. Research by Andrews (2005) suggested that, within the teaching of syntax, the teaching of sentence-combining appears to have more positive effect on writing quality and accuracy.

Of all aspects of the writing process, there seems to be stronger positive evidence of the impact of grammatical terminology when it is considered within the context of reflecting on writing i.e. in terms of metacognitive awareness. Myhill, Jones and Wilson (2016:41) concludes that the main purpose of teaching grammatical terminology may be to create a metalinguistically aware community of writers in our classrooms. Hudson (2012:34) concurs and asks whether the purpose of grammatical terminology is to help children to notice rather than to know. He suggests that close reading leads children more readily to notice the syntax, on the assumption that if they notice it, they can learn from it. Graham and Perin (2007) explored the use of collaborative writing approaches with pupils working together to plan, draft, revise and edit their compositions. They conclude that encouraging pupils to express their writing decisions and explain and justify their writing choices supports their progression as writers. As part of the TRAWL project (Teaching Reading and Writing Links), Corden (2002) describes pupils, working as reflective writers, gradually developing a metalanguage which they used effectively when discussing their own texts. Johnson (2010) reported that dialogic exchanges with peers promoted confidence in using the words again in the teacher-pupil dialogue. Paraskevas (2006) noted the importance of teaching young writers about linguistic structures which rarely or never appear in spoken language. This was achieved through offering 'artful sentences' to initiate and allow them opportunities to practise writing their own well-crafted sentences. Within the context of literature, Corden (2000) writes that using a novel raised 'awareness of the literary devices used by the author' and that developing a metalanguage enabled the children to 'describe, categorise, analyse, synthesise and conceptualise'. Reading reminds us that language is a symbolic system, and written language more than spoken language. When children read, they are charged with the task of making meaning from a reduced

context in which a greater level of interpretation is required. Through this sharing of meaning, pupils perhaps stand to achieve the mantra of Bickerton (1999) that children don't learn words; they create them.

Therefore, reflecting on reading and writing would seem to tap into pupils' awareness of design choice while drawing meaningfully upon grammatical terminology. However, if this is not paralleled by understanding and meaning, the value may be insignificant. Maun and Myhill (2005:43) found that while pupils repeatedly emphasised complex sentences, few understood what these were and why they might improve their writing. Consequently, they conclude the importance of context, that grammatical terms only 'have power when writers understand how features can have an effect on the implied reader, and the relationship between form and meaning, but they are meaningless without this'.

Drawing all of this together, linguistic research highlights the importance of teachers and pupils developing a shared understanding of meaning (Edwards & Mercer 1987). However, as has been previously discussed, attempts at establishing shared meaning is fraught with difficulties, including philosophical ones. In attempting to provide a context in which a shared understanding of meaning could be developed through dialogue, Bold (2012:65) concludes that:

My findings also indicate that whole class discussions rarely provide opportunity for children to construct a shared understanding of meaning through dialogue. There are too many participants and too many opportunities for misunderstandings to arise.

The area is extraordinarily complex (Halliday 2013). According to Borg (2003:106), greater attention should be awarded to 'the merging of hitherto several lines of enquiry into teacher cognition and learner development in language teaching'.

This notion of cognition leads the discussion to the second potential "purpose" of teaching grammatical terminology: pupils as thinkers. Here, Hudson's questions encapsulate something of the long-standing philosophical debate about the relationship between thought and language:

And finally we come to the Big Question: what does linguistic meaning have to do with thought? Does the language we learn as children have a profound effect on the way we think about the world? (2010:239)

2.3.3 Pupils as thinkers

According to Hudson (2010:239), semantic differences in languages do make a difference to a person's way of thinking about the world. This seems reminiscent of linguistic determinism (Saussure 1960) which maintains that the way in which individuals think and perceive the world is dependent on their language. However, Hudson (2010) adds an important caveat: 'that these ways of thinking only apply when we're thinking or speaking' (ibid) i.e. when we are 'thinking for speaking' (Slobin 1996:239). In these instances, we adjust our thinking to fit the words available and, in doing so, we cut 'our semantic coat to fit our lexical cloth' (Hudson 2010:239). Therefore, partly through language, our conceptual ideas develop and they do so according to the concepts of our culture and the categories of our society. In this way, Hudson argues,

language as a cognitive network contributes to social meaning and social identity (2010:241), in turn creating relations of power and solidarity (2010:243).

That said, unlike the effects provided by social situations to develop cultural concepts, grammatical terminology would seem to be different. It does not normally occur incidentally in everyday contexts, denoting simple things or ideas (Berry 2010:21). Instead, grammatical terminology is a scientifically structured system of symbolic representations, of labels to denote categories of language concepts. As such, it represents a distinct body of taught knowledge: a language which would not normally be developed as part of everyday non-educational discourse. Thus, the phenomenon of grammatical terminology forms part of schooled grammar and is concerned with 'conscious retrospective meta-reflection' (Giovannelli 2015:37). When Halliday coined the term 'Grammatics' to denote the study of the phenomenon of grammar, he proposed 'a way of using grammar to think with' (Halliday 2002:416). Berry (2010:21) maintains that access to these complex concepts is 'difficult, if not impossible, without the term', even if the concepts exist in someone's mind without having a term. It is this 'closeness and mutual dependency of concepts and terms' which can cause the confusion, although Berry maintains that the controversies are more often conceptual than terminological (ibid). Bloor and Bloor (2004) concur, noting the high level of abstraction within conceptual understanding.

Vygotsky draws the relationship between language and thought even closer together. He identifies 'word meaning' as *the concept*, arguing that word meaning is a unit of verbal thinking that 'cannot be further decomposed'. It is a generalisation, reflecting the unity of thinking and speech (1987:244), a unity of 'generalization and social interaction' (1987:49). In doing so, Vygotsky places language at the centre of human development and consciousness. Vygotsky argues that this is a new type of word meaning which he refers to as the "scientific" concept. Scientific (or academic or technical) words which relate to subject matter concepts are particularly prevalent in school. Thus, Vygotsky presents language as being essential in developing children's intellectual skills: learning scientific concepts requires conscious focus and attention, different from every day, spontaneous concepts learned through personal experience without conscious thought. His work on thought and language concludes that the study of grammar is 'of paramount importance for the mental development of the child' (1986:183).

Paradoxically, this grammatical terminology is also perceived as a means of representing a system "already known", even to the young child. Vygotsky cites 'arithmetic' as a contrasting example: a taught concept which would seem to provide the child with more obvious 'new abilities', while 'instruction in grammar does not seem to provide the child with new capacities in this sense' (Vygotsky 1987:205). As a result, the purpose and value of grammar teaching has been a constant source of doubt and debate. In the case of grammatical word meanings, the lines are blurred around what can be characterised as declarative and procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge is framed as 'knowing that' and procedural knowledge as 'knowing how' (Anderson 1983). Essentially, when young children have the ability to use grammatical concepts unconsciously, without control and without any meaningful naming or labelling, they seem to be able to demonstrate 'procedural knowledge' before 'declarative knowledge'. This does not typically reflect traditional teaching approaches

which begin at taught knowledge in controlled production and proceed to application in free or communicative practice by way of their development (Ur 1988).

The work of Bialystock (1994) would seem to be reminiscent of Vygotsky's notion of scientific and spontaneous concepts. Bialystock examined the cognitive processes involved in the acquisition and use of a second language, establishing a framework built around two cognitive processing components: the process of analysis and the process of control. In the process of analysis, the child moves towards more analysed representations of knowledge which, in turn, leads to greater symbolisation and a greater level of organisation in mental representations. The implicit becomes explicit and the structure and organisation of mental representations becomes more formal and more symbolic and, with that, knowledge becomes more connected and ultimately more accessible (1994:159). In this way, the teaching of grammatical terminology would seem to offer the pupil significant opportunities to develop abstracted thinking and to strengthen the cognition processes of analysis and generalisation. Ultimately, grammatical terminology becomes an efficient and precise way of accessing and discussing functions and purposes (Carter 1990:109). However, it is also seen as being an area of study of value in its own right (e.g. Shaughnessy 1977; Bruss 1982; James and Garrett 1991; Hudson 2010). Elder (2009) suggests benefits relating to cognitive and analytical skills.

However, others claim the reverse. For example, Krashen (1983) points to the sheer challenge and complexity of this level of formal learning that, for many, never becomes acquisition. He states that:

Some adults (and very few children) are able to use conscious rules to increase accuracy of their output, and even for these people, very strict conditions need to be met before the conscious grammar can be applied. (Krashen 1983)

Berry (1997:136) highlights the significance of this particular debate when he writes:

Metalinguistic terminology, however, is more than just content vocabulary; for some it may be enabling (or disabling), an aid (or barrier) to learning itself.

This returns these discussions to the fundamental importance of *purpose*. As has been shown, 'prescriptive' grammar is typically aligned with more traditional and functional perspectives (Goodwyn & Findlay 1999:20), 'descriptive grammar' is connected to grammar as it is used in daily life to create meaning; as a 'science of meaning' (Halliday 1993:16) and 'rhetorical' grammar is linked 'to larger goals of emancipatory teaching' committed to 'teaching critical thinking and cultural critique' (Micciche 2004:717-8). Although this summary may be simplistic, it hopefully demonstrates the fundamental issue: the significance of establishing the kind of 'grammar' we are teaching in order to inform why we are teaching its associated grammatical terminology i.e. its purpose and its value. Thus, what is the nature of the learning we are intending to bring about and why? Perhaps only then the barriers or bridges to learning grammatical terminology can be fully realised. That said, while there may be different conceptualisations of grammar, the one uniting theme is often grammar as a means of manipulating language in meaningful contexts (Hartwell 1985:125).

2.3.4 Implications of policy

The Primary National Curriculum seems to be aligned with ‘an adult needs’ view of the curriculum (DES/WO 1989). This view emphasises ‘the responsibility of English teachers to prepare children for the language demands of adult life, including the workplace, in a fast-changing world’ (ibid). For example, in the stated aims of the National Curriculum, reference is made to the ‘essential knowledge that they need to be educated citizens’ (DfE 2013a:6) and ‘Teachers should develop pupils’ reading and writing in all subjects to support their acquisition of knowledge’ (DfE 2014:10). It is a skills-based view of language and literacy learning which makes repeated commitment to the teaching and learning of Standard English.

Within this context, there is a stated purpose relating specifically to ‘Spelling, vocabulary, grammar, punctuation and glossary’ (DfE 2013a:15). For the benefit of this discussion, it is presented in full below:

Pupils **should be taught** to control their speaking and writing consciously and **to use** Standard English. They **should be taught to use** the elements of spelling, grammar, punctuation and ‘language about language’ listed. This is not intended to constrain or restrict teachers’ creativity, but simply to provide the structure on which they can construct exciting lessons. A non-statutory Glossary is provided for teachers. Throughout the programmes of study, teachers **should teach** pupils the vocabulary they need to discuss their reading, writing and spoken language. **It is important that pupils learn the correct grammatical terms** in English and that these terms are integrated within teaching. [Emphasis added.]

However, although this section is entitled ‘Purpose of study’, the detail relating to *purpose* is limited e.g. ‘teachers should teach pupils the vocabulary they need to discuss their reading, writing and spoken language’. While this implies a descriptive grammar, it is crowded out by the dominant prescriptive message of ‘explicit knowledge’ and ‘correct grammatical terms’. Even the notion of language control is skewed by a sense of traditional correctness in the context of ‘taught to **control** their speaking and writing consciously and **to use** Standard English [emphasis added]. Other verbs include ‘constrain’ and ‘restrict’, ‘structure’ and ‘construct’ sit in juxtaposition to references to ‘teacher’s creativity’ and ‘exciting lessons’. Thereby, they also inadvertently communicate a feeling of control, reminiscent of Sealey’s ‘linguistics ‘building-blocks’ analogy (Sealey 1999:89). At other times, there is mention of the explicit knowledge of grammar affording pupils ‘more conscious control and choice in our language’ (DfE 2013a:74), echoing Carter’s call for ‘conscious control and conscious choice over language’ (1990:119). However, again, these lack depth and detail and so it could be argued that these fragments of descriptive grammar are tokenistic, recycled references to the perspectives of established academic debate (e.g. Carter 1990) within previous policy documents (e.g. QCA 1998). Bell (2016:158) highlights the potential for confusion over the purpose of knowledge about grammar, asking: ‘is the aim to develop confidence and offer children ‘control and choice’ (DfE:64) in language use, or to improve their written accuracy?’

Conversely, the ‘Purpose of study’ for grammar could be perceived as being a list of *what* should be studied rather than *why* and, although it states that learning the correct grammatical terms is ‘important’, there is no explanation nor elaboration of this. Neither is the phrase ‘integrated within teaching’ elaborated upon. Therefore, a theoretical positionality is not included in any significant way in the current National Curriculum,

potentially missing an opportunity to elaborate upon the intended meaning of 'grammar'. Neither does it situate this intended 'grammar' in the broader theoretical context in order to, 'shed light on pedagogical grammar and provide a rationale for the way one goes about teaching grammar' (Bourke 2005:85). While different schools of thought are acknowledged, this seems as something of an aside to assuring the clarity of the Programme of Study:

It is recognised that there are different schools of thought on grammar, but the terms defined here clarify those being used in the programmes of study. (DfE 2013a:80)

This lack of theoretical positionality may be intentional, reflecting the national policy of previous years. For example, in 1998, the Grammar Papers stipulated that 'no one single model of grammar is proposed in the English order' (QCA 1998:17). However, at that time, only 'a minimal number of terms' was prescribed (ibid). In comparison, the 2013a Programme of Study for grammar, the Glossary and Appendix 2 (including the list of terminology) are significantly more substantial which, in addition to the SPaG test, means that the need for related professional development is much greater too. But, instead, teachers are asked to 'consult the many books that are available', maintaining that the terminology selected is that of 'most modern textbooks on English grammar' (Glossary DfE 2013a:80). Not only does this fail to cite appropriate supporting resources, this comment assumes that all linguists agree on terminology and definitions which is certainly not the case, with some terminology having 'a different status in different theories' (Evans and Green 2006:486). Evans and Green (2006:484) maintain that terms have different meanings in different areas or domains e.g. within second language learning, linguistics and the naming of grammatical theory e.g. Cognitive Grammar (Langacker 1987) and Generative Grammar (Chomsky 1969). Therefore, this is unhelpful to teachers, further complicating an already complex field.

According to Norman (2010:41), this could be seen as 'avoiding responsibility' and propagating a gap between policy rhetoric and practical grammar teaching 'without taking responsibility for the direction of this persistently unpopular and problematic area'. Norman (2010:40) describes this as a 'coercive policy'. When viewed alongside the high stakes testing arrangements of the SPaG, this can be perceived as an attempt at control of English's proper content, orientation, ideology and identity - a manifestation of what Bernstein saw as the power of governments to produce official discourses that attempt to redefine school subjects' legitimate cultural knowledges and identities (Bernstein 2000) and 'decontextualize the identities of all who work and learn within subject English (Goodson and Medway 1990). Hartwell (1985:114) maintains: 'At no point in the English curriculum is the question of power more blatantly posed than in the teaching of formal grammar'. Berry writes, 'terminology is political' (2010:13).

However, it can be argued that the elements of descriptive grammar are sufficient, and the absence of a policy-prescribed grammar model is beneficial, leaving more to the interpretation and imagination of teachers. Schools retain the professional freedom to debate and decide their own *purpose* for the teaching of grammar terminology in their schools. Even within the constraints of the SPaG test (DfE 2013b), an understanding of the different 'grammars' and an exploration of the benefits and limitations of these with their pupils could lead to an invaluable authentic whole school grammar debate, out of which may grow an heuristic purpose which challenges teachers' and pupils' epistemological views about the nature of knowledge and knowing

grammatical terminology. However, this would still require a significant commitment to professional development opportunities in order to support teachers in being able to do so.

2.3.5 Section summary

In attempting to address 'Debates in purpose', this section has discussed something of the conceptualised purpose, nature and value of grammar and grammatical terminology, presenting descriptive grammar and rhetorical grammar as examples of alternatives to (potentially) more familiar traditional, prescriptive approaches. Drawing upon the literature, it has identified 'Pupils as language learners' and 'Pupils as thinkers' as the most salient "purposes" for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology. However, this section has argued that an opportunity to present a clearly articulated and well-developed purpose within the National Curriculum's 'Purpose of study' has been missed (DfE 2013a:15). This gap in official policy could be seen as avoiding responsibility for what is a notoriously problematic area. While this could be perceived positively (e.g. enabling professional freedoms) the implications remain the same i.e. that in the light of the substantial statutory curriculum and assessment requirements related to grammatical terminology, there would seem to be significant and serious implications for the professional development and support of teachers.

This section has explored separately 'Pupils as language learners' and 'Pupils as thinkers'. However, this divide has been an artificial one for the benefit of these discussions and so, at this point, it is essential to merge these "purposes" back together. They reflect something of a far wider discussion of the highly complex interrelationship between language and cognition and the surrounding debates as to whether this is an 'inter-organism' approach (between one organism and another) or an intra-organism approach (what goes on inside the organism) (Halliday, Lamb and Regan 1988:2). For Halliday, the emphasis would seem to be on the inter-organism orientation. For Vygotsky, much of his work reflects an intra-organism approach, through his investigations into the conceptual development of the individual through thinking and speech. However, this is not intended to present Vygotsky's thinking in opposition to Halliday's. Indeed, Halliday (as a linguist) and Vygotsky (as a psychologist) are in many ways complementary (Wells 1994), with Vygotsky's later work presenting the individual mind as the internalisation of social behaviour, of which language is regarded as a mediating influence. Together, they reflect Giovanelli's (2015:38) conclusion of 'the importance of human cognition and social interaction'.

Therefore, this section has raised the following research question as significant:

Research question 2: What are the pupils' and teachers' perceptions of the nature, purpose and value of grammatical terminology?

The next section develops the principle inherent in Micciche's (2004:730) call for action:

We need a discourse about grammar that does not retreat from the realities we face in the classroom—a discourse that takes seriously the connection between writing and thinking, the interwoven relationship between what we say and how we say it. (Micciche 2004:730)

It considers some of what is known about the teaching and learning of grammar and grammatical terminology in the primary classroom, thereby presenting a sense of the 'debates in practice'. That said, discussions of classroom practice are intentionally shorter as some issues have already been addressed (see 2.1 and 2.2). Consequently, this section draws attention to the central importance of the interrelationship between teacher subject knowledge, conceptualisations of purpose and classroom pedagogy.

Following this, this section addresses the nature of grammatical terminology. While this more psychologically-oriented discussion is also pertinent to the previous section, the discussions and debates are interconnected, and the points being made (e.g. in relation to the nature of grammatical terminology) have particular resonance for practical classroom application.

2.4 Debates in Practice

2.4.1 Classroom practice

This chapter has already discussed issues relating to teacher subject knowledge (see 2.2.3.1). Further to this, the research suggests that some teachers have difficulty transforming this subject knowledge into meaningful and responsive activities and experiences. Keen (1997:442) suggests that, without confident subject knowledge, the teacher is faced with significant pedagogical challenges when formatively assessing a pupil's use of grammar in writing (i.e. in deciding 'at what level to intervene in order to correct errors or raise awareness of particular structures'). Similarly, Myhill (2013:80) found that teachers who lacked linguistic confidence were more likely to teach didactically, struggle to answer students' questions, or close discussion of language too early. Perera (1987) suggests that teachers need more than just knowledge of linguistic terminology; they need linguistic subject knowledge and, indeed, Richmond's research (1990) suggests that having advanced abstract knowledge of the definition and function (parts of speech such as a pronoun) does not necessarily lead to effective practice. Myhill et al. (2013:80) concludes that it may be 'grammatical pedagogical content knowledge which is the most salient.' They draw upon Shulman's taxonomy (1987) within the field of theorising subject knowledge, concluding that the 'inter-relationships between pedagogical content knowledge, classroom practice and student learning about language' are subtle and, furthermore, that the research specifically 'in relation to metalinguistics and grammatical knowledge' is limited (Myhill et al. 2013:78).

Grainger, Goouch and Lambrith's (2003:49) research found that teachers' perspectives tend to fall into two camps: those which position grammar predominantly as a matter of rule learning and error correction and those which position grammar as a tool for promoting metalinguistic awareness and rhetorical choice.

The QCA (1998:26) survey following the introduction of the NLS noted that teachers lacked confidence, particularly in 'the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge of language'. There was also a strong association of explicit grammar terminology with prescriptivism and old-fashioned teaching methods (ibid).

Research by Myhill et al. (2013:6-7) concurs (e.g. tasks included 'putting labels on things'). Similarly, Phipps and Borg (2009:9) found gap filling exercises being used as a behaviour management technique.

Research suggests that this subtle interrelationship is further complicated by teacher interpretation (further discussed in 2.5.1), leading to variability in classroom practice as a result of teachers deviating, without realising, from the intended pedagogical principles and approaches. For example, Myhill and Watson (2014:43) report that, even when grammar teaching was intended to be contextualised, it was not. Similarly, Andrews et al. (2006:52) concludes that 'sentence-combining suggests a pedagogy of applied knowledge – at its best, applied in situations of contextualised learning; at its worst, drilling'. Furthermore, Pomphrey and Moger (1999:232) found that while some teachers expressed a 'preference for descriptive grammar', the language used in open comments 'was the language of prescriptive rather than descriptive grammar' which 'suggests they have not always internalised a complete understanding of descriptive grammar even though it may superficially seem a more palatable alternative to a prescriptive view'.

Research by Lefstein (2009:395) found that lessons reflected 'a mixture of elements of rhetorical grammar, rule-based grammar and other practices, not directly related to grammar teaching. He concluded that elements of a traditional approach were evident in a focus on 'proper English' and used decontextualised exercises to help in the application of rules (2009:380). At other times, pedagogy reflected by what he characterises as 'rhetorical grammar', positioned in conventions such as 'resources to be exploited', focuses on 'choice' and effect, and 'inductive explorations of texts' (ibid). Lefstein (2009:398) related this rhetorical approach to the National Literacy Strategy (NLS) (DfEE 1998), which seemed to be 'deeply embedded in schooling practice and culture beyond' (ibid). However, this was 'thwarted in its enactment' by features characteristic of the formal rule-based grammar instruction. That said, this mix of pedagogic approaches is not necessarily a negative phenomenon with, for example, Watson (2015:12) recommending multiple 'grammars' or 'grammar pedagogies' (e.g. 'rhetorical grammar' and 'contextualised grammar teaching'). Nevertheless, this suggests a conflict between the practice of the past and the policy of the present. Watson (2015) reported that the beliefs of the teachers participating in her study were influenced by up to ten years of working and training within the NLS. Thus, the legacy of the previous ideology seems to have left a significant mark on classroom practice.

2.4.2 Word learning strategies

However, in spite of the legacy of the NLS 'Framework for Teaching' document (DfEE 1988) and the first-ever official government endorsed glossary of grammatical terminology some twenty years ago (see 2.2.1), the research evidence suggests the teaching of grammatical terminology has been systematically overlooked (Myhill & Watson 2012:162). Furthermore, of the research evidence available, there are often significant associations between grammatical terminology and traditional prescriptive approaches and negative attitudes and beliefs (see 2.5.1). Alongside a range of possible contributory factors already discussed in this chapter (e.g. issues related to teacher subject knowledge, pupil development, pedagogic purpose and difficulty in transforming subject knowledge into meaningful practice), this situation may reflect difficulties in generic

academic word learning pedagogies or, more specifically, may indicate that there is something inherently different and difficult about the nature of grammatical terminology.

According to Bloom (2001:1095), children typically 'learn tens of thousands of words, and do so quickly and efficiently, often in highly impoverished environments'. He estimates that, since word learning starts at about 12 months of age, this averages to 3,750 new words a year or 10 words a day' (Bloom 2000:25). Nevertheless, the process is extremely complex:

But children's learning of words, even the simplest names for things, requires rich mental capacities – conceptual, social, and linguistic – that interact in complicated ways. (Bloom 2000:1)

Bloom (2001) maintains that words are not accessible in the same way and that intentional teaching applies only to a small minority of words at best. Children learn word meanings through semantic and syntactic contexts, with the use of syntactic cues being the most prevalent through the support of language. However, Bloom argues that there is little work on the topic, despite its obvious importance and concludes:

Such learning seems to be the result of some general intelligence that has little to do with language per se. (Bloom 2001:1100)

Although others disagree (most notably Chomsky through his theory of Generative Grammar), Hudson (2007) concurs with the notion of a general intelligence as opposed to something more language-specific. He proposes a cognitive theory called Word Grammar, which relates to the study of categorisation (Hudson 2007:44). This sees words as concepts with properties extending beyond meaning to include aspects such as 'their pronunciation, their word-class and their language' (Hudson 2010:113). He maintains that we think in concepts (e.g. 'bird'), which each have a bundle of properties ('flies', 'lays eggs') and that we don't learn concepts via definitions but via exemplars (ibid). The same is true for the concepts we construct when building our own mental grammar. According to the theory of categorisation, the nearest we get to a 'definition' of a category is a list of its properties, so it would be as misguided to look for a 'true' definition' of 'noun' as it would be to choose between the two definitions of 'cat' (ibid:128). These categories are then used as tools for generalising. Hudson argues that 'the same applies to word-classes: generalizations are the only reason for setting up word-classes in the first place' (ibid:128).

To support pupils in learning vocabulary, Cameron and Dempsey (2016:51) presents 'A comprehensive vocabulary programme' made up of four components:

1. Build and foster word consciousness
2. Teach word-learning strategies
3. Teach individual words
4. Plan for and encourage independent reading

This is in line with the work of Stahl and Nagy (2006) and Beck, McKeown and Kucan (2013) who maintain that a pupil needs 12 instructional encounters to fully know a word. Such research and related professional development materials address the challenges of learning academic language by giving attention to the nature of the word as an entity of interest and importance in its own right.

The idea of different instructional encounters would seem to align with Hudson's argument (2010) that the focus should always be on examples and on encouraging the children to establish the properties themselves. This harnesses children's capacity for creating concepts. The teacher then offers the word 'noun' and the discovery of more and more properties continues. He maintains that first learning a definition followed by a few examples that are practised in a selection of sentences would seem a 'less effective, old-fashioned' approach which 'rests on theoretical sand and goes nowhere' (Hudson 2010:130).

2.4.3 The unusual nature of grammatical terminology

As has already been discussed (see 2.3.3), grammatical terminology is an unusual phenomenon which can be used by the pupils 'in very tentative, if not confused, ways' (Hancock & Mansfield 2002:192). Trask (1999:38) explains that grammatical terms are 'lexical categories' and, as such, 'are not really categories based on meaning at all: rather, they are grammatical categories and as such must be defined in terms of their grammatical properties' e.g. their distribution properties, inflectional properties or derivational properties. (ibid:38-9). Therefore, grammatical terminology represents a piece of grammatical structure that is often being used for the purposes of analysis and discussion of language and this would seem to be different from both the usual denotation and connotation of a word. Chapman (2006:78) calls this distinction 'mention' and 'use'. This represents an ideational account of meaning, where words are not used to refer to objects or ideas but to words themselves and their linguistic properties. Thus, grammatical terms are described as theoretical constructs and, as such, are less typically found in natural, spontaneous language.

However, Langacker (2008) asserts that 'all constructs validly posited for grammatical description (e.g. notions like "noun", "subject", or "past participle") must in some way be meaningful'. Through his theory of Cognitive Grammar (within the broader movement of cognitive linguistics), Langacker (2008:6) argues that notions like "noun", "subject", or "past participle" cannot be denied a 'conceptual *raison d'être*'. They have meaning on a par with lexical items. This meaning is equated with conceptualisation which, in turn, resides in cognitive processing. Therefore, grammatical classes and constructions are seen as symbolic and, as such, reflective of patterns of thought.

This runs counter to the view that meanings, especially word meanings, exist in an objective form, 'packaged and lined up in some semiotic warehouse called the mind' (Halliday 2013:32). Evans and Green (2006:160) refer to this as the 'dictionary view', problematic because it suggests that words represent 'neatly packaged bundles of meaning', unrelated to the meanings of other words. This is contrasted with the 'encyclopaedic view' with word meanings serving as 'points of access' to vast repositories of knowledge relating to a particular concept or conceptual domain' (ibid). This is the view adopted by cognitive semanticists. Similarly, Halliday (2013:32) presents language as the source of meaning (and not the expression of it): as 'the meaning-creating semogenic capacity which is driven by, and drives, the human brain'. This reflects the cognitive linguistic commitment to meaning, which, according to Lantolf (2006:103), 'resonates very well' with Vygotskian theory.

2.4.4 Vygotsky and word meaning

Vygotsky's work underlines the fluidity in the development of word meanings. Being critical of the proposition that a simple associative bond exists between a word and its meaning, he rejects associationism, arguing instead that a word is 'dynamic more than it is static' and, as such, is subject to change as word meanings develop. Bahktin presents a similar view, arguing that the word is not a neutral medium nor a tangible object, 'free from the intentions and untenanted by the voices of its previous users' (in Titunik 1986:199). As a result, Vygotsky (1994:355–356) states that it is impossible for a word meaning to be given directly in a finished form to the pupil, 'adopted from the adult realm of thinking' and that the teacher should not attempt a direct communication of concepts from his or her head to the head of the student. This practice is 'educationally fruitless' (Vygotsky 1994:356). The result is a 'meaningless acquisition of words' and 'mere verbalization' that actually hides a vacuum and fills the pupil's 'memory more than his thinking' (ibid). As Ausubel (2000:68) maintains:

Teachers frequently overlook the fact that pupils become very skilful at using abstract terms with apparent appropriateness, when obliged to do so, although their understanding of the underlying concepts or propositions is virtually zero.

With echoes of language acquisition, Vygotsky contrasts 'scientific concepts' with 'spontaneous' or 'everyday concepts' which he maintains develop naturally or spontaneously as a result of the child's everyday life experience. Importantly, he also maintains that the 'boundary that separates these two types of concepts is fluid' and that the development of these processes 'are closely connected processes that continually influence each other' (1987:177). Importantly, Vygotsky states that:

...when comparing the child's definition of everyday concepts with the definitions of scientific concepts that he produces in school, we find that the latter are immeasurably more complex. (1987:178)

From this, Vygotsky (1987:180) deduces instruction as the emerging 'new factor in development': instruction in the systems of scientific concepts common to school function quite uniquely as a form of communication to anything else. Minick (1987:27) explains this:

Specifically, he [Vygotsky] argued: (1) That the child learns word meanings in certain forms of school instruction not as a means of communication but as part of a system of knowledge and (2) that this learning occurs not through direct experience with things or phenomena but through other words. As it is used in these communicative contexts then, the word begins to function not only as a means of communication but as the object of the communicative activity, with the child's attention being directed explicitly towards word meanings and their interrelationships.

Vygotsky maintains that such scientific concepts - which undergo a process of development as part of a well-defined system - were higher types of concepts or "true concepts" (Vygotsky 1987:177; 167) and, as such, the epitome of word meaning (Minick 1987).

In this way, grammatical terms such as 'verb' and 'noun' can be considered to be 'scientific concepts'. This is in line both with Vygotsky's thinking and with assertions from the field of cognitive linguistics and recent research. For example, in their study into metalinguistic understanding, Chen and Myhill (2016:102) posited that 'grammatical concepts can be considered as scientific concepts in a Vygotskian sense'. Taking Vygotsky's supposition one step further so that it pertains more directly to this study, it can therefore be

argued that, if all word meanings are generalisable concepts, a grammatical term is indeed a 'scientific concept'. Therefore, through a psychological lens, no distinction can be made between 'word meaning' and 'concept formation'. It can also be argued that, given the highly abstract, complex and generalised nature of grammatical terminology, the word meaning of 'noun' and 'verb' and so on can be considered the epitome of a scientific concept.

It is an idea that is encapsulated in the image created by Peter Elbow as he considers how the process of meaning developed in his own name:

Yes, they might have named me Bill instead of Peter, but once I'm Peter for a while, hooks seem to sprout between that name and the real me. (1981:362)

In the same way, grammatical terms are not arbitrary, soulless names or, if they are, they are not so for very long. As the hooks start to form, they reflect the self and the world, and the name and concept becomes one: an inseparable duality of personalised meaning within words and through words. This position (i.e. the lack of distinction between 'word meaning' and 'concept formation') is taken by this thesis.

Finally, it can be argued that both Vygotskian theory and Langacker's theory of cognitive grammar align well with Hallidayan (1975) theory which maintains that language learning should be about serving meaning. The notion of meaning-making in relation to grammatical terminology is therefore an interesting one, serving a dual purpose i.e. (i) as a lexical concept with meaning relating to the linguistic knowledge for which the word form stands and (ii) as a tool to support meaning-making with the spoken or written discourse. Thus, grammatical terminology would seem to have internal and external properties of meaning-making.

2.4.5 Implications of policy

It can be argued that there is very little detail within the National Curriculum to support teachers in their understanding and development of a pedagogy for the teaching of grammatical terminology. While aspects of this have already been discussed (see 2.2.3), the notion of declarative versus procedural knowledge (see 2.3.3) is addressed again here in the context of the "teach-practise-apply" approach of the National Curriculum. For example:

Once pupils are familiar with a grammatical concept [for example 'modal verb'], they should be encouraged to apply and explore this concept in the grammar of their own speech and writing and to note where it is used by others. (DfE 2013a:74)

Richmond (2015:11) considers this to be a dubious 'back-to-front view', stating that 'it is not the case that, once learners have been taught about modal verbs as a category, they will make more sophisticated and correct use of modals in their writing'. The work of Hartwell (1985:109) also calls into question the appropriateness of this sequence, alongside the teacher's role in it:

...first grammar, then usage, then some absolute model of organisation, all controlled by the teacher at the centre of the learning process, with other matters, those of rhetorical weight – "syntactic sophistication and a winning style" – pushed off to the future.

Giovanelli (2015:38) refers to it as the 'here's the term, now explore it' pedagogy that typifies traditional grammar approaches, perhaps reflecting 'more a matter of fashion than a development driven by academic research' (Cajikler 2004:5). This seems to echo what Emig (1980) refers to as "magical thinking": the assumption that students will learn only what we teach and only because we teach it. Altogether, this would seem to be 'patently removed from the behaviours of mature writers' (Hartwell 1985:120).

Furthermore, the notion of 'discussion and practice' in the following quotation seems reminiscent of decontextualised 'drill and skill' exercises:

The grammatical terms that pupils should learn are labelled as 'terminology for pupils'. They should learn to recognise and use the terminology through discussion and practice. (DfE 2013a:74)

That said, the fact that 'Grammar should be taught explicitly' (DfE 2013a:40) is countered by the Year 5 and 6 Writing Programme of Study. Here, messages seem to be more descriptive, rhetorical and contextualised. For example:

- draft and write by:
 - selecting appropriate grammar and vocabulary, understanding how such **choices can change and enhance meaning**
- evaluate and edit by:
 - assessing the effectiveness of their own and others' writing
 - proposing changes to vocabulary, grammar and punctuation to **enhance effects and clarify meaning** (DfE 2013a:47) [emphasis added]

However, no further detail is given as to how to achieve this. Furthermore, it could be argued that negative associations about grammar and grammatical terminology are exacerbated by what seems to be a narrow and prescriptive conception of writing. Unlike the Programmes of Study for reading, which emphasise the importance of developing a 'love of literature' (DfE 2013a:13) and 'a love of reading' (ibid:14), feeding 'pupils' imagination' and opening up 'a treasure-house of wonder and joy for curious young minds' (DfE 2013a:14), the phrases detailing the writing content are more concerned with developing stamina and skills, for example 'to write at length, with accurate spelling and punctuation.' There are no equivalent references to developing a love, enjoyment or interest in writing or to grammar being an important tool for meaning-making, as supported by the research literature (e.g. Carter 1990; Halliday 1993; Myhill 2005; Chen and Myhill 2016; Kolln and Gray 2017). Bell (2016:161) argues that, in spite of making it clear that the aim of knowledge about grammar is to 'improve writing', the National Curriculum 'provides little sense of exploration, of pleasure in knowing for its own sake'.

2.4.6 Section summary

This section has considered aspects relating to 'Debates in practice', discussing some of the variability in practice and inconsistencies and uncertainties in classroom practice, particularly in terms of theoretical or pedagogical perspectives. It has explored the nature of grammatical terminology through the notion of word meaning. It has suggested that there may be something inherently different or difficult in grammatical terminology as a phenomenon in its own right. This may be reflected in the perceived classroom difficulties or the associated negative perceptions of teachers.

Therefore, this section has raised the following research question as significant:

Research question 3: What approaches and activities do the pupils and teachers perceive to be most effective in the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology?

The next and final section of this literature review picks up on this idea of a potential mix of messages, both within policy documentation and pedagogic practice, regarding the teaching of grammatical terminology. Drawing upon Nespor's work (1987) on teacher beliefs, the phenomenon of grammatical terminology within national policy could be described as an 'ill-defined and deeply entangled' problem for which teacher beliefs will then go on to play a major role in conceptualising.

2.5 The Perspectives of Teachers and Pupils

2.5.1 Teacher perspectives

According to Watson (2015), it is well documented that teachers' beliefs can affect their pedagogical practice (Nespor 1987; Pajares 1992; Poulson, Avramidid, Fox, Medwell & Wray 2001; Findlay 2010). The influence of these beliefs seems particularly strong when teachers are faced with 'ill-defined situations' (Nespor 1987:324). Given the discussions within this chapter so far, it is argued that current national policy is responsible for presenting such an 'ill-defined situation' and one which might therefore lead teachers to base their 'instructional decisions on their own practical theories' (Borg and Burns 2008:458). Phipps and Borg (2009:3) maintain that beliefs about teaching and learning can be 'deep-rooted and resistant to change', be this of their own experience as learners (Lortie 1975; Holt Reynolds 1992), or as a result of teacher education (Kagan 1992; Richardson 1996). Therefore, beliefs can be said to have a powerful effect on teachers' pedagogical decisions (Johnson 1994).

The research suggests that teachers' beliefs related to grammatical terminology tend to be negative. Findlay (2010:4) found that although grammar was seen as 'a legitimate aspect of the subject', the teachers who were interviewed did 'not enjoy teaching it' and regarded it 'as a chore'. Crystal (2006) reports on what seems to be a profound suspicion of linguistic terminology, amounting at times to a real fear of the terms which other academic domains do not seem to share, and Micciche (2004:716) maintains, 'Grammar makes people anxious, even - perhaps especially - writing teachers'. Furthermore, as discussed previously, research found

that teachers do not possess a strong repertoire of pedagogical understandings or approaches on which they can draw in these situations (Watson 2015).

Phipps and Borg (2009:2) found that where differences between teachers' stated beliefs and their classroom practices existed, these differences were often presented as a negative phenomenon and articulated through terms such as, 'incongruence, mismatch, inconsistency, and discrepancy'. However, they also found that these differences could be viewed positively as they seemed to provide a valuable focus for both research and teacher development, and potentially a powerful and positive source of teacher learning (2009:14). Similarly, Golombek and Johnson (2004:323-324) identified 'a recognition of contradictions in the teaching context' as a 'driving force' in teachers' professional development. Bold (2012) concludes that teachers need not be intimidated by the terminology; they just need to be satisfied that it will help children reflect more effectively on language in use.

However, the concept of inconsistencies and contradictions being a positive and powerful driver of change may be constrained by the testing and accountability culture and the high stakes demands of the SPaG test (DfE 2013b). Fearn and Farnan (2007) speculate as to whether there might be a way to teach grammatical structures that would still satisfy high stakes tests and teachers and at the same time positively affect writing performance. This reminds us of the performative pressure and that it is often the need to reach targets that drives teaching. Clandinin (1985:364) concludes that policies which do not take teachers' beliefs into account are doomed to fail.

2.5.2 Pupil perspectives

Bell (2016:159) presents a more positive view of teachers' beliefs, recounting teachers' 'genuine enthusiasm' which can 'clearly be passed to children'. However, whilst teachers' perspectives seem to be evident in some of the research literature, pupils' voices have been more noticeably absent. Rudduck (1999) calls for the literacy curriculum, as experienced and perceived by pupils, to be given the attention it deserves, as they are 'expert witnesses' in the process of school improvement. Berry (2008) writes, 'it is rare to find a focus on learner knowledge of terminology'. That said, this is a complex and abstract area and so Calderhead's (1987:185) conclusion that 'some thinking may not be verbalizable' seems especially pertinent. Nevertheless, given the resurgence of grammar in the form of high-level curricular expectations and high-stakes testing, Carter's question would still seem to be of overriding importance. He asks:

Do we take for granted assumptions about young children's problems with and perceptions of language? Perhaps more explicit interchange with the children would enlighten both parties. (1990:51)

Bell (2016:161) calls for further work to usefully address the 'ways in which children themselves perceive this element of their education'. Safford (2016:19) agrees, suggesting a longitudinal study which draws together grammar teaching, testing, academic achievement, employability and life skills. The notion of pupils as 'expert

witnesses' (Rudduck 1999) in the current phase of England's grammar debate is a key aspect of this research study.

2.5.3 Section summary

Research suggests that teachers' beliefs are highly influential, with teachers ultimately as the 'arbiters of how curriculum policy' is enacted in the classroom (Clark 2010). Lefstein (2009:378) agrees, stating that:

Policy is further mediated by textbooks, instructional aids, professional development materials and activities and – most crucially – by the teachers and pupils who translate these texts into classroom activities.

Therefore, this section has raised the following research question as significant:

Research question 4: In what ways are the multiple perspectives and practices of the pupils and teachers valuable in generating models of good practice for the teaching of grammatical terminology?

Derewianka and Jones (2010:7) ask, in refuting the common binary 'either/or' nature of these arguments, 'is it more a matter of what we want the model to do for our students?', as we consider what teaching it might afford our 21st century students.

2.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has provided a critical examination of the historical and current debates around the teaching and learning of grammar and grammatical terminology. It has critically explored what is already understood about the phenomenon of grammatical terminology and the implications for teaching and learning.

The debates have been organised according to the three main parts of the study's title: (i) Debates in Policy, the 'What', (ii) Debates in Purpose, the 'Why' and (iii) Debates in Practice, the 'How'. Finally, a shorter but no less important fourth section has highlighted the significance of teacher and pupil perspectives, particularly absent in the research relating to pupils.

In conclusion, Chapter Two (along with Chapter 1) has raised the following four research questions as significant:

1. In what ways do the perspectives and practices of pupils and their teachers relate to national policy for the teaching of grammatical terminology?
2. What are the pupils' and teachers' perceptions of the nature, purpose and value of grammatical terminology?
3. What approaches and activities do the pupils and teachers perceive to be most effective in the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology?

4. In what ways are the multiple perspectives and practices of the pupils and teachers valuable in generating models of good practice for the teaching of grammatical terminology?

These will now be developed methodologically in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This study examines the phenomenon of grammatical terminology from the perspectives of pupils and their teachers working with the Primary National Curriculum for English (DfE 2013a) and the 'Key Stage 2 Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling' test (DfE 2013b). Situated within the context of current and historical debates about grammar teaching (discussed previously in Chapters One and Two), this study is timely and of importance. It reflects a new impetus for an effective pedagogy for the teaching of grammatical terminology. This study aims to provide a contribution to a meaning-oriented theorisation of grammatical terminology culminating in the design of models of good practice to support both the conceptual and pedagogical understandings of others (e.g. policy makers, teachers, student teachers and pupils).

This study explores pupil and teacher perspectives in four classes across two 'case' schools. The value of this study lies in its cross-sectional case analysis. In this respect, the study can be called a multicase study (Stake 2006). Therefore, while each school is instrumental to learning about the phenomenon of grammatical terminology, it is the coordination between them that acts as the 'official interest', enabling a better understanding of 'the whole' (Stake 2006:vi). Given this, and the premise that a class is often influenced by institutional factors, the 'case' is the school as represented by the two classes combined (and not the individual class).

It is important for the study to be located in an appropriate methodological framework and to use tools of data gathering appropriate to that framework. On that basis, this chapter begins by providing a rationale for what is a qualitative research design, situating the study within the interpretative/constructivist paradigm. The methodological choice of case study and the strengths and limitations of this approach are discussed, before moving on to consider Stake's (2006) multicase design and its associated methodological process. Therefore, external validity is supported through the use of an established methodological approach.

Following this, this section then discusses the theoretical position, establishing the lens through which the study is viewed. The theoretical positioning also supports external validity by providing an underlying scaffold for the research framework, drawn from established theoretical propositions. This is drawn primarily from the theory of social constructivism and, specifically, from Vygotsky's work related to word meanings (1978; 1987).

The chapter then details the sample of the study, addressing the ethical issues, followed by a discussion of the research methods. Given the reflective and reflexive nature of this chapter, it will be written in the first person where appropriate.

This chapter ends by detailing the processes of data analysis: an inductive process which uses thematic analysis.

3.2 The Research Framework

3.2.1 Methodological positionality

As an enquiry focusing on the phenomenon of grammatical terminology from the perspectives of pupils and their teachers, this study is best suited to a qualitative research design. The focus of qualitative research is to try to understand the meanings people have constructed of their world. This can be seen in the definition put forward by Van Maanen (1979:520) as:

an umbrella term covering an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world.

Essentially, qualitative research focuses on ‘meaning in context’ (Merriam 2009:2) and, consequently, ‘qualitative researchers do not “find” knowledge, they construct it’ (Merriam 2009:9).

Given this, qualitative research is most often situated within the interpretive paradigm which holds to the belief that ‘reality is socially constructed, that is, there is no single, observable reality’ (Merriam 2009:8). Interpretation is the primary method of understanding (Stake 2005).

Therefore, the ontological position of interpretivism is closely aligned with a relativist view of the world which sees reality as subjective and multiple. This is often contrasted with realism which advocates methodological objectivity and a concrete reality (Yin 2014). That said, Stake (2005:101) maintains that many researchers today tend to take a ‘rationalist constructivist view’ that there is an outside world reality corresponding suitably to our notion of it. Stake argues that the purpose of research is not to discover reality ‘for that is impossible’ (ibid) but to construct a clearer, more sophisticated version of it. This is supported by King and Brooks (2017:15) who talk about ‘critical realism’ which acknowledges the social construction of reality but which ‘retains a core element of ontological realism, arguing that there are realities which exist independently of human activity’.

The constructivist paradigm can be seen as an extension of interpretivism (though the two terms are sometimes used interchangeably). It emphasises the importance of exploring how different stakeholders in a social setting construct their beliefs (Guba and Lincoln 1989:44-45). This is developed by Cresswell (2007:20-21) who explains:

In this worldview, individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. They develop subjective meanings of their experiences. . . . These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views. . . . Often these subjective meanings are negotiated socially and historically. In other words, they are not simply imprinted on individuals but are formed through interaction with others (hence social constructivism) and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals’ lives.

King and Brooks (2017) emphasise the importance of the role of language in the creation of reality. They draw attention to the radical constructivist view and its emphasis on social and cultural constructions through language. They observe that:

Language is not seen as *representing* reality, instead language is assumed to *create* reality. (King and Brooks 2017:22)

The idea of socially constructed meaning through language is relevant to the phenomenon of grammatical terminology. Within this thesis, this is posited in two ways as: *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use*. However, this is not intended to suggest that meaning-making related to *grammatical terminology per se* is internal (i.e. an individual psychological endeavour) and that meaning-making related to *grammatical terminology in use* is external (i.e. a social endeavour shared by a community). Rather, both forms of meaning-making are ultimately social, even *grammatical terminology per se* which is lexis-based and therefore more psychologically oriented. As Geeraerts (2006) asks, for where else could this linguistic knowledge come from if not learned 'through acculturation in a linguistic community' (2006:26).

However, this makes the abstract, complex and only 'psychologically real' nature of grammatical terminology as a phenomenon difficult to position ontologically. However, through the lens of the classroom and curriculum, it is possible to present the study as one that is framed predominantly by a rationalist constructivist view (Stake 2005), congruent with the premise that there is an outside world reality about which we construct our own corresponding notions.

This study is also inductive in design, relating patterns and themes about the purpose and practice of grammatical terminology back to theory, building concepts rather than testing a hypothesis. Epistemologically, the researcher is also part of this process, namely through the interpretation of the case and the subsequent construction of meaning in trying to understand the phenomenon of grammatical terminology. In seeking to understand this aspect of human experience, there is an inevitable interaction between the researcher and the research participants that must be the subject of scrutiny (see 3.8.1).

3.2.2 Theoretical positionality

As well as establishing a methodological orientation, validity of positionality is facilitated through the use of a theoretical framework (Allen 2004). According to Mir and Watson (2000:77):

All constructivists believe that knowledge is theory-driven, a separation of researcher and research subject/object is not feasible, as is the separation between theory and practice.

Whilst this study draws methodologically upon the work of Stake (1995, 2006), it also draws upon theoretical propositions of Vygotsky and his theorisations around 'Language and Thought' (1986), later updated in translation to 'Speech and Thinking' (1987). This is particularly around the conceptual development of word meanings. The study also draws upon the work of Halliday and his theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), which prioritises choice in meaning-making as a way of empowering children in their understanding and manipulation of language. In this way, the study is multi-paradigmatic in focus (Denzin and Lincoln 2005). These methodological and theoretical frameworks sit well together as they share similar underpinning ontological and epistemological assertions around constructivist notions of reality and the qualitative, interpretative nature of knowledge and knowing. For example, the use of Stake's case study design aligns with Vygotsky's use of case studies (Daniels, Cole and Wertsch 2007) and his commitment to the 'contextual

nature of knowledge' i.e. the context in which the concepts are embedded (Howe 1996:46). In this way, the study hopes to contribute to the existing knowledge base.

Merriam (1998:49) notes that the inductive nature of qualitative research 'inherently moulds or changes existing theory' in that data are analysed and interpreted through the lens of a particular theoretical orientation and findings are considered in the light of existing theoretical understandings. Thornton (1993:68) maintains that this leads to 'perception itself being theory-laden', helping us to see 'what we would otherwise miss' and helping us to 'anticipate and make sense of events'. However, such a theoretical lens can also be limiting, shaping and framing our data collection, analysis and interpretations to such an extent that it 'also determines what we do not see, do not ask, and do not attend to' (ibid). In this way, Mertz and Anfara (2006:193) observe that the theoretical orientation 'both reveals and conceals meaning and understanding' and, therefore, the appropriate choice of theoretical framework is essential (Merriam 2009:69-70).

In terms of theoretical positioning changing or moulding existing theory, Vygotsky's work is relevant to this study for a number of reasons. Anh and Marginson (2013:149) state that, 'Vygotsky made no single theory of learning' but instead saw human learning and development as a collaborative and changing phenomenon. His work provides an 'array of interpretative frameworks for addressing problems and questions of language development' (Thorne 2005:394). Vygotsky argued against the idea of a single-factor, all-encompassing theoretical framework to account for the complexity of development at all phases (Vygotsky 1962:115). Vygotsky was committed to a central concept of 'praxis' – 'the dialectical unity of theory and practice' (Vygotsky 2004:304), with practice leading the way and serving as the 'truth criterion' and 'judge' of theory (ibid).

Vygotsky's theoretical ideas are wide ranging and, for this reason, Wells suggests that in approaching Vygotsky's ideas and putting them to use, we should also be willing to transform those ideas so that they can be of greatest use to us in meeting the demands of our own situations (Wells 1999:334). Therefore, this study considers the phenomenon of grammatical terminology predominantly through a Vygotskian lens.

According to Yin (2014), it is important that the philosophical orientation runs consistently and coherently through the study, being closely aligned with the methodology, research questions, research tools and so on. These aspects of research methodology will be considered next.

3.3 Qualitative case study design

This study is framed as a qualitative case study, a choice resting upon the need to better understand the complex phenomenon of grammatical terminology in a bounded, real-life context through rich and varied data gathering methods. The flexibility of case study methodology is also useful given the complexity and challenge of researching the phenomenon. Rosenberg and Yates (2007:447) describe case study as an 'agnostic approach' whereby 'it is not assigned to a fixed ontological, epistemological or methodological position'. Neither does it require any particular methods for data analysis or data collection (Merriam 1998:28).

Furthermore, Yin (1994) observes that case study design is particularly useful when it is impossible to separate the phenomenon's variables from their context'. This is also pertinent to this study as it is situated in a context of national policy where the teacher and pupil perspectives upon the variables of policy, purpose and practice would seem, as Merriam (1998) suggests, impossible to separate out.

As with definitions of qualitative research, there are many definitions of case study as a methodology, reflecting different research traditions and philosophical positions. It is in some ways a problematic term, as it can be used to denote both a methodology and a method, an ambiguity compounded by the variety of related terminology (Harrison, Birks, Franklin & Mills, 2017:5).

In defining a case study, Stake gives the priority to the 'case', describing it as a 'specific, a complex, functioning thing' (1995:2). He goes on to explain:

A case is a noun, a thing, an entity; it is seldom a verb, a participle, a functioning. Schools may be our cases - real things that are easy to visualize... With these cases we find opportunities to examine functioning, but the functioning is not the case. (2006:1)

Stake also offers a further important distinction (2005) between a single case study and a multicase study, the latter being about the effective illumination of a phenomenon. He maintains that:

Each case to be studied has its own problems and relationships. The cases have their stories to tell, and some of them are recorded in the multicase report, but the official interest is in the collection of these cases or in the phenomenon exhibited in those cases. (Stake 2006:vi)

In multicase research, the individual cases in the collection share a common condition. Stake calls the phenomenon a "quintain" (2006:6) and argues that:

Multicase research starts with the quintain. To understand it better, we study some of its single cases – its sites or manifestations. But it is the quintain we seek to understand. We study what is similar and different about the cases in order to understand the quintain better. (2006:6)

According to Herriott and Fireston (1983), a multicase approach as opposed to a single case approach results in a more robust study.

The exploration of grammatical terminology is undertaken through two individual cases. Each case is studied separately so that it does not 'merge too quickly into the main research question of the overall multicase study' (Stake 2006:46). Each case is presented separately in Chapter Four. This endeavours to ensure that sufficient focus is given to the perspectives of the participants in that context, preserving something of the identity of each single case so they may each be 'heard a while' (Stake 2006:46).

According to Stake (2006:7), the focus on the multicase (over the single case) becomes an epistemological issue i.e. what is more worth knowing – the collective or the specific? Within this study, it is the multicase analysis of findings that will be considered to be of greatest value. Within this, the emphasis is given to the similarities between the cases that emerge, in spite of the many differences between the cases. This emphasis on similar thematic findings is a slight departure from Stake who, at times, expresses a preference for the differences (2006:39), though it is in line with the work of others (e.g. Merriam 1998). That said, Stake also considers this epistemological decision to be the dilemma of the multicase researcher. He explains:

Of course, there is no one way. Researchers can design a study to give either proportionate or disproportionate attention to the quintain and individual cases. (Stake 2006:7)

This study gives most attention to the quintain of grammatical terminology.

Finally, in order to be consistent with Stake's principles and approaches, this study will use the term 'data gathering' (Stake 2006: 29) rather than 'data collection' or 'data generation'.

3.4 Study sample

In interpretative research, samples tend to be small scale, often evolving progressively through the research process (Merriam 1998:70). This study is presented as two cases. However, pupils and teachers from four classes (plus a pilot study class) were involved. The following criteria, based on Stake's criteria for selecting cases (2006:23), were adhered to:

1. This was a convenience sample (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2011:155-6) with elements of volunteer sampling (ibid:160) in that the headteachers had either been approached directly or had expressed an interest following a grammar workshop they had attended. Class teachers were available and seemed positive about taking part. Therefore, a 'good opportunity to learn about complexity and contexts' seemed evident (Stake 2006:23).
2. The cases were relevant to the quintain: for example, pupils were following the National Curriculum for English and were to be assessed by the SPaG test at the end of Year 6.
3. The cases provided diversity across contexts: for example, the schools represented a range of social economic circumstances.
4. The cases included pupils in Year 5 (9-10-year-olds) and/or Year 6 classes (10-11-year-olds) (though predominantly pupils were Year 5).
5. Within each class, final pupil interview groups were selected by the teachers (in the light of pupil and parental consent). This selection reflected a mix of writing attainment, a mix of boys and girls and those pupils whom the teacher believed would particularly benefit from this experience.
6. A pilot study was undertaken to ascertain the feasibility and appropriateness of the detail and design of the research methods (see 3.5).

3.5 Pilot Study

A pilot study was undertaken over a period of four days. As the intention was to employ the full range of research methods, the pilot study was undertaken with a single class only. The pilot study outcomes were reviewed in detail through:

- A teacher review: undertaken as a second teacher interview, supported by pre-questions;
- A pupil review: undertaken as a group pupil interview, supported by images of the data gathering activities to aid recall. These were discussed and annotated by the pupils working in pairs;
- Researcher analysis and review: undertaken through an analysis of the data and researcher journal reflections.

As a result of the pilot, data gathering plans were refined. While it was always the intention to include a broad range of data gathering tools (given the nature of the quintain and the involvement of pupils as participants), some activities were not taken forward and changes were made to others, including:

- Pupil questionnaire design: in particular, a subject knowledge table was added to the Pupil questionnaire; blank “smilies” were added for visual as well as verbal responses;
- Pupil interview format: an intended review of Pupil interview 1 at the beginning of Pupil interview 2 was abandoned as the timescale between interviews made this a meaningless exercise for the pupils;
- The use of still images (drawn from the lesson observation and intended to be used as a probe-based interviewing tool) was abandoned as it created an unhelpful distraction.

Finally, the interpretation of the data was checked with the pilot study teacher and was confirmed as being appropriate. Overall, it was decided that the pilot was a good prototype for the final case study design.

3.6 Ethical considerations

Adherence to ethical considerations was undertaken to ensure that, in compliance with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (Articles 3 and 12), ‘the best interests of the child will be the primary consideration’ throughout (BERA 2011:6). In summary, the following procedures were observed:

- The headteachers and teachers were provided with written information about the project. This followed a meeting in school to explain the purpose, process and protocols of the study. The right to withdraw was communicated and consent forms were given. Confidential and anonymous treatment of pupil and teacher data was assured.
- A consent letter was sent to the parents of the pupils in each class by the headteachers in order to establish permissions. It included information outlining the purpose and processes of the research. Pupils who had not been given parental permission did not take part. Teachers confirmed that these pupils did not feel excluded.

- Pupil consent was made on a volunteer basis, both verbally and in writing. Research information and pupil consent was addressed throughout the data gathering process. Primarily, this was done verbally so that the research purpose and processes could: (i) be explained in child-friendly ways, (ii) be reiterated at the start of each data gathering activity and (iii) be responsive to any pupil questions or concerns about their involvement. The declaration of consent for pupils addressed the following areas:
 - (i) Aims and procedures of the research
 - (ii) The right to withdraw at any stage (i.e. their voluntary involvement was emphasised). Pupils were also reminded of the right to leave if they suddenly seemed distracted or disengaged during any of the research activities.
 - (iii) The confidential storage of the data.
 - (iv) The anonymous reporting of the data.
 - (v) The use of audio/video recording including data deletion at the end of the project. The pupils' right to be involved in research activities but not to be included on the video recording was also explained.

In addition, individual written consent was gathered from each pupil. Again, this was explained verbally to the whole class in the context of the research (as above) and any pupil questions were answered. Furthermore, the pupils were asked to confirm that they still wished to take part in group activities to ensure that, upon reflection, they had not since changed their minds. Throughout this process, the emphasis was placed upon the child's right to decide.

- All necessary steps to prevent anxiety and minimise feelings of intrusion were taken. For example, the research with the pupils was undertaken in a quiet, separate space in the school (e.g. spare classroom). I demonstrated a high level of respect and encouragement at all times and listened attentively to the pupils' contributions, encouraging their collaboration. The research activities were designed to be engaging and fun. Upon finishing, the pupils confirmed that they had enjoyed the activities. The pupils were thanked for their involvement and contributions.

3.7 Summary of data gathering methods

According to Pring (2000), case study design starts from the premise that any unit of investigation in which persons are involved can only be understood if the perspectives of those involved (and the interaction of those perspectives) are taken into account. The perspectives of teachers and pupils were central to this study and the highly abstract and symbolic nature of grammatical terminology threatened to make gathering data a challenging endeavour. Therefore, this study employed a rich range of multisensory and multimodal research methods (reflecting verbal, visual, practical, movement and gesture modes), in order to support and enhance the qualitative data gathering. Although the area of grammatical terminology is under-researched (contributing to the challenge of this study's research design), the research methods used were well-established approaches. These were:

- Whole class lesson observation x 4 (1 observation per class)
- Teacher interview x 4 (1 per teacher)
- Pupil questionnaire (all pupils in classes)
- Pupil group interview x 4 (2 per pupil group per class)
- Pupil group writing conference x 4 (1 pupil group per class)
- Researcher journaling throughout

In addition, each method was used with the pilot study class.

Given that the participants in this study included children, these data gathering methods were supported by a wide range of mediational tools. This included different forms of “probe-based” interviewing (Stake 2006:31), such as video elicitation (including video stills) and a range of practical games and activities which incorporated attractive resources intended to appeal to the pupils’ interest as well as support their reflective thinking. Researching with children can be problematic in any research context as their attitudes are not yet established and their use of language is not always precise (Prepoutsidou, Kyriacos, Yorgos & Pantazis 2004). Nevertheless, the benefits of working with children and using their strength of position and “insider” knowledge is increasingly well documented (Levy 2011; Greig, Taylor & MacKay 2013).

The effectiveness of the research methods was examined as part of the pilot study, drawing upon the written and verbal feedback from the teacher and the pupils. This enabled the researcher to test fitness for purpose (e.g. the efficacy of the questions). This was considered particularly important for the use of video-supported reflection.

The nature and range of research activities also reflected the exploratory nature of the study. However, the same data gathering methods were undertaken with all teachers and pupils. While there were some variations (e.g. in terms of questions asked), this was considered an inevitability of semi-structured interviewing.

3.8 Data gathering methods

The chosen methods for data gathering presented various benefits and limitations. However, given the range of research activities (and the scope of this study), this discussion will focus on the main points only. That said, significant attention is given to the use of video-supported reflection as there is less evidence of video-supported reflection being used with primary school pupils.

3.8.1 Lesson observation

According to Robson (2002:310), observations provide an effective ‘reality check’ ‘as what people do may differ from what people say they do’. The observation of a whole class lesson had not been part of the original research design. However, during the pilot study, it became apparent that direct experience of a typical

English lesson would be valuable in helping to establish something of the “usual” everyday context. It also ensured that the pupils were familiar with me and that I had been introduced by the teacher before interviewing groups of pupils away from the classroom. A template introduction was created to ensure ethical considerations were consistently adhered to in explaining my presence and the purpose and process of the research. Extensive notes were made throughout the lesson to capture as far as possible what was said and done against an observation schedule (see Appendix 4: Lesson observation schedule). Notes were analysed and annotated soon afterwards. This was a valuable part of the reflective journaling process.

However, interpretations are always susceptible to researcher bias, including what is actually written down as part of lesson observation notes. Furthermore, the level of intrusion is difficult to reconcile and a feeling of “sitting in judgement” upon the teacher is difficult to avoid. In this study, in order to minimise the effect of the researcher’s presence on the ‘naturalistic’ classroom environment, non-participant observation was settled upon and wherever possible I interacted with the pupils in their lesson only by smiling. Nevertheless, this still remained an intrusion with the potential to affect the internal validity of the research (Greig et al. 2013:245).

3.8.2 Teacher interview

A semi-structured interview with each teacher mined deeply the teacher’s practice and perception of grammatical terminology (see Appendix 5: Teacher interview schedule). Lines of enquiry emanating from the lesson visit notes were included and, in this way, the teacher’s own lesson reflections provided an easy and familiar starting point. The interviews were conducted in a quiet and private space in school and ethical protocols were revisited. Interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed.

I became more skilled at moving fluently and responsively through the open-ended questions as the research progressed. However, within this more naturalistic approach, there is always the risk of an increase in bias. Bias is something of an inevitability. As Walford (2001:90) remarks, ‘interviewers and interviewees co-construct the interview’. That said, the process of reflexive journaling during the pilot study had made me very mindful of this and I explained to the teacher at the start of the interview that my acknowledgements would be brief to avoid any leading conversational exchanges. This did not prevent me from asking follow-up questions to prompt and probe in line with the semi-structured interview approach.

3.8.3 Pupil questionnaire

The whole class pupil questionnaires provided a wealth of data on the pupil perspectives (see Appendix 6: Pupil questionnaire). The questionnaire also contained a tick list of grammatical terminology and the pupils were asked to highlight the words they felt they ‘understood’, were ‘not sure of’ and ‘didn’t know yet’. This was intended to establish a baseline of what Robinson (2005) refers to as the pupils’ ‘receptive metalanguage’. Following the pilot (when it became apparent that some indication of productive subject knowledge was also needed), four subject knowledge questions had been added. These related to explaining and exemplifying

'noun', adjective', 'verb' and, as a recent focus of teaching and learning in both cases, 'subordinate clause'. Following the pilot study, the use of Bubble Dialogue (McMahon and O'Neill 1992) and Pupil Views Templates (Wall and Higgins 2006) were increased to maximise the efficacy of the questions and the appeal of the form so that the pupils felt sufficiently motivated to complete the questionnaire with due diligence.

The questionnaire was administered by reading aloud each question. Unfortunately, this slowed the pace of delivery and prevented individualised responses. However, overall this relieved the pressure on reading skills (decoding and comprehending) and the inevitable space that this takes up in a child's working memory, particularly for the less fluent readers. It ensured that the questions were better understood and responded to with confidence, minimising potential problems relating to readability, ambiguity, question complexity and question length. The pupils were encouraged to put their names on the questionnaires in order to support the triangulation of data. While all ethical assurances were given, it is acknowledged that the pupil questionnaires were not completed anonymously which may have affected the nature of their responses.

3.8.4 Pupil writing conference and post-lesson reflections

As part of a pupil writing conference, the pupils were invited to review their English/literacy books and select an extract from their own writing to share with the group. The option of using a short evaluation slip was given to provide support and time for thinking. The intended focus of the writing conference was built around the pupils' lexical and syntactical use of language, and therefore Question 8 of the Writing conference was key (see Appendix 9: Pupil writing conference and post-lesson reflection schedule). The metalinguistic content of the pupils' verbal comments was later analysed, along with any metacognitive and metareflective responses (e.g. whether or how they believed it helped them in their writing, their reading or their thinking).

During the pilot study, the pupils had been keen to share their writing with me and, consequently, a disproportionate amount of time had been spent listening to the children reading their work aloud rather than discussing it with them. Sharing an extract (rather than the full piece of writing) helped here but it also required the pupils to be more discerning and focused in their selection. Furthermore, the use of an evaluation slip in advance ensured that the pupils were better prepared, having been able to gather their thoughts within this window of thinking time.

3.8.5 Pupil interview 1: Video-supported reflection

Image-based research was a key feature of the pupil interview process. It proved a useful prompt to stimulate points of discussion and support pupils' self-reflective awareness and metacognitive thinking (Flick 2009:252). According to McCullagh (2012:139), use of video technology also supports memory. His paper on using video-supported reflection to enhance teachers' professional development states that the 'vivid detail and real life experience presented through video results in a deep level of engagement.' However, the issue of 'the selective bias inherent in moving images' should also be acknowledged (Flick 2009:249). Given the abstract

and complex nature of grammatical terminology, it was anticipated that it could be difficult to bring the nature of their experience to the fore. Thomas (2011:167) states that use of the 'photo-elicitation method' can be 'particularly useful with children, with whom it is often difficult to engage if you limit yourself to words'. In this way, video elicitation as a form of probe-interviewing gave the pupils access to something that talking alone could not.

Video and still images were taken from the Primary National Strategy training materials: 'Grammar for Writing' (DfEE 2000). The pupil interview group watched the teacher (hereafter 'video teacher') introduce a literacy lesson on subordinate clauses to her Year 5/6 class. This clip was chosen as it reflected the age of the pupils in the study, their current teaching focus of main and subordinate clauses and the clarity and frequency with which the grammatical terminology was modelled by the video teacher. The use of a video was also intended to minimise potential pupil anxiety which may have been caused by asking pupils to reflect too soon on their own experiences of grammatical terminology. For example, this may have resulted in the pupils feeling uncomfortable (e.g. feeling disloyal to their teachers or unkind). Finally, the use of video at the start of the interview gave the pupils time to tune into the focus area of grammatical terminology (see Appendix 7: Pupil interview schedule 1).

The video was paused at intervals and the pupils were invited to respond by considering the perspectives of the pupils on screen (hereafter 'video pupils') and the practice of the video teacher, alongside their own perspectives as learners of grammatical terminology. In this way, it provided a valuable context, enabling them to "stand back" and review the practice of others in an unknown class before reflecting on their own experiences and ideas. This "compare and contrast" approach created a useful dialectic which provided a valuable stimulus for discussion. The pupils responded enthusiastically, thoughtfully and with interest. These semi-structured interviews were video/audio recorded and later transcribed.

While the professional development of teachers using 'video supported reflection' is well documented (McCullagh 2012), there is less evidence of it being used with primary school pupils. Therefore, methodologically, it was a relatively uncharted approach. As a result, the questions were asked one-at-a-time, focusing on concrete examples before moving to generalities. The intention was to minimise ambiguity and cognitive overload. Sometimes, the enthusiasm of the pupils' responses bubbled over and became quite exuberant, making it difficult always to ask follow-up questions of individual pupils. This seemed to depend on the pupil dynamics rather than an optimum pupil group number and, therefore, this was difficult to pre-empt.

Questions were sometimes framed differently with different groups – or different questions were included. This was considered unavoidable given the nature of semi-structured interviewing in which follow-up questions are asked and where there is a need to build rapport and encourage pupil engagement. King (1994) suggests that this is not problematic. He explains that the interview questions are not your tools; the interview as a whole is a tool to get someone to reflect on their experience. In this way, the semi-structured interview acted as a guided conversation to elicit their views. However, this flexibility and responsiveness increased the potential for leading questions to be posed.

3.8.6 Pupil interview 2: Grammar activities and games

As part of a second semi-structured group interview, the groups of pupils were invited to engage in grammar activities and games, and then asked about the perceived value of them relating to learning grammatical terminology (see Appendix 8: Pupil interview schedule 2). Again, this represented a useful form of 'probe-based interviewing' (Stake 2006:31). According to Nutbrown and Hannon (2003:117-18), researchers of young children have tended to rely on observational methods and 'far less attention has been given to experiences (Walker 1988). Through the use of grammar activities and games as mediational tools (Wertsch 2007), the pupils were doing two things simultaneously: they were undertaking and reviewing the object of the activity (e.g. playing and evaluating a game) while using the activity to facilitate and demonstrate their declarative or procedural knowledge about grammatical terminology. This was reminiscent of dual stimulation (Vygotsky 1987) and afforded a very valuable window on the conceptual understanding of the pupils.

While the transcriptions seemed to provide an accurate representation of events, it must be remembered that what was said and how it was said is inevitably a matter of interpretation. For this reason, the transcriptions were read and annotated many times against the audio and video data. Nevertheless, the issue of interpretation still stands and, in this way, the words of the pupils (and the teachers) have been 'co-authored' (Kvale 1996:183).

3.8.7 Researcher journal

A researcher journal provided a valuable record of reflections, emerging patterns and tentative ideas throughout the research process. This began with the identification and analysis of any biases, particularly in the form of a priori themes. At other times, my role as a researcher was the focus of the journal entries, particularly at the start of the research where I interrogated my researcher role in the light of my professional experience (i.e. as a former primary teacher and a current student teacher educator). The journal was a valuable source of ideas and re-reading entries often prompted connections that I may not otherwise have seen. As Gibbs (2007:25) remarks, 'writing is thinking'.

It should be remembered that the voices of others as presented in my journal are mediated through my own voice as the researcher and writer. Similarly, my own voice as an adult, as a teacher and as an English tutor potentially assumes greater legitimacy within the reflective and reflexive entries. Stake (1995:12) observes that:

ultimately, the interpretations of the researcher are likely to be emphasized more than the interpretations of those people studied, but the qualitative case researcher tries to preserve the multiple realities, the different and even contradictory views of what is happening.

Further implications relating to reflexivity are discussed in Section 3.9.1.

3.9 My role as researcher

According to Stake (1995), the 'case researcher plays different roles and has options as to how they will be played' (1995:91). Predominantly, however, my role was as 'interpreter' and 'gatherer of interpretations' (Stake 1995:99). During the administration of the questionnaires and during the interviews, I adhered to an established script to ensure consistency, efficiency and structure. I maintained a flexible and responsive approach in order to probe and prompt the participants' responses, to keep things on track or merely to keep the conversation flowing. At the same time, I was very aware of inadvertently crossing over into "teacher mode", given my previous experience as a Year 5/6 teacher. This had been apparent in the pilot study. Interrogating my responses as part of the journaling process led me to become more mindful of inadvertently straying into familiar classroom question-and-answer discourse. Thus, my responses to these kinds of pupil questions were re-presented to the pupils as questions e.g. 'So what do *you* think it means?'

Similarly, when working with the teachers, my role risked crossing over into "consultant mode", merging with my experience as a teacher educator. My underlying intention was the same: trying to establish a positive, trusting relationship. So I shared my background as an upper Key Stage 2 teacher in order to communicate something of my affinity to primary teaching. It was hoped that this would establish an understanding of mutual experience, respect and trust. However, this risked setting up expectations and creating assumptions which, from my point of view, risked other emerging issues going unnoticed.

Alongside 'interpreter', my role was also that of 'evaluator' (Stake 1995:95), in order to recognise and substantiate 'new meanings' (Stake 1995:97). Given the complexity of case study research, Stake describes this as 'the burden of clarifying descriptions and sophisticating interpretations' (1995:102). He maintains that a constructivist approach is not about avoiding generalisations but about 'providing readers with good raw materials for their own generalizing' (ibid). This will be the approach taken in Chapter Four in relation to the presentation of single case findings, intended as 'good raw materials' for the reader's own generalisations.

3.9.1 Researcher positionality and reflexivity

It was important to consider the prejudices that I brought to the research, both of a personal and professional nature, and the potential impact of these. Given the axiological nature of this study, my use of a reflective journal was important here, above all else reminding me that I was involved in the research and that my involvement was subjective. Thus, I acknowledged as part of journaling that my research was embedded in a social context in which my own 'biases, motivations, interests or perspectives' (Lincoln and Guba 1985:290) became part of what I researched and the lens through which the research was interpreted.

Cognisance of my own perceptions and interpretations was particularly important when producing the initial template from a subset of the data for each case. Every effort was made to avoid becoming 'over-sensitized' to material that easily fitted into the template (King and Brooks 2017:34). Nisbet and Watt (1984:91) warn of the limitations of selective reporting, whereby the researcher focuses on 'evidence which will support a

particular conclusion, thereby misrepresenting the whole case' or by 'unquestioningly accepting only...those aspects of the case study on which people agree...' (ibid). It is important that these biases are identified, monitored and minimised.

My commitment to the unknown potential of grammar and its related pedagogies raises significant epistemological challenges in how we might come to know what we know (Grix 2002:177). Epistemology refers to the assumptions we make about *what* it is possible for us to know and *how* we can obtain this knowledge (King and Brooks 2017:14). It is posited that this study reflects a constructivist epistemology, centered around the co-construction of meaning (in this case between researcher and participants) within a socially and culturally constructed reality. However, this is made even more complex by the psychologically "real" nature of this knowledge (i.e. grammatical terminology), alongside the limitations of the historical and culturally located knowledge to date. Together, this would seem to create additional epistemological challenges regarding what is "researchable" and "unresearchable" as knowledge and some thinking not being verbalisable (Calderhead 1987:185).

3.10 Reliability and validity

For McDonough and McDonough (1997) case studies are crucially concerned with an 'understanding of people's own meanings and perspectives' and, in this way, perhaps they hold the key to understanding. As Nisbet and Watt (1984:72) write:

They catch unique features that may otherwise be lost in larger scale data (e.g. surveys); these unique features might hold the key to understanding the situation.

However, in spite of these benefits, Yin (2014:19) observes that many researchers 'disdain the method'. Most commonly, limitations of case study design relate to validity and reliability.

Research design is traditionally required to demonstrate its reliability and validity. To an extent, case study design is no exception, though Merriam (1998:199) maintains that constructs of reliability and validity are constructs of quantitative, positivist research more than they are of qualitative research. However, it could be argued that the notions of validity and reliability are relevant if they can be considered in terms of the broader conceptions of "well grounded" and "sustainable" in helping to demonstrate the rigour of the data (Lewis and Ritchie 2003:270).

3.10.1 Reliability

It can be argued that reliability is not appropriate for qualitative research. For example, Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2014:495) define it as 'a characteristic of measurement concerned with accuracy, precision and consistency'. For Yin (2014:48), the objective of reliability is for a later researcher, following the same procedures as described by an earlier researcher, 'to arrive at the same findings and conclusions' if conducting the same (and not another) case study over again. Conversely, and more befitting this particular

study, King and Brooks (2017:20) point out that more constructivist-orientated philosophical positions, such as 'contextualism' and 'radical constructivism', welcome researcher subjectivity and acknowledge it as being integral, 'not as a potential source of bias but as playing an active role in data generation and data analysis'.

Here, meanings are multiple and, in the case of radical constructivism, co-produced between the researcher and research participant (King and Brooks 2017:22). The fact that one's own perspective is brought to the data is seen as being, not just of value, but inevitable.

This study assumes a constructivist perspective, adopting the ontological perspective of multiple and mutually constructed realities. Nevertheless, there was a pre-determined structure of guidelines in the form of 'a data-gathering plan' (Stake 1995:51), which was subsequently used as a research proposal for headteachers in schools. To further strengthen reliability, the study followed an established case study methodology (Stake 2006). Boblin, Ireland, Kirkpatrick and Robertson. (2013) describe Stake as a constructivist researcher and, being in line with a constructivist approach, Stake maintains that a flexible conceptual framework can be used to guide the research (though this is not actually required). The thematic form of Template Analysis (King and Brooks 2017) was chosen, as such a flexible and systematic analytic strategy. A conceptual structure was also provided by a coding frame, which emerged inductively later through the application of Template Analysis (see Appendix 11 and 12).

It is also argued that the replication inherent within a multicase design (as opposed to a single case design) further strengthens reliability. Miles and Huberman (1994:29) suggest that 'each study can be conducted separately and then the findings aggregated in a separate exercise', thereby giving greater strength to 'the precision, the validity and the stability of the findings'.

A pilot study was undertaken to test the data-gathering plan and make revisions to subsequent data gathering. In this way, the first case study was not simply replicated but rather, as Bogdan and Biklen (2007:70) recommend, an initial analysis of the pilot study and then the first case study were used to 'provide a focus to define the parameters of the others'.

Finally, as is often the case with doctoral research, the research was undertaken by the same person, thereby supporting consistency in understanding.

3.10.2 Validity

This study's use of triangulation involving a variety of different methodological approaches increased the internal validity of the study. Methodological triangulation involves using more than one method to gather data, such as interviews, observations, questionnaires and documents in an 'effort to assure that the right information and interpretations have been obtained' (Stake 2006:35). Collectively, these methods are typical of a case study design with an eclectic range of research methods, bringing a robustness to the study and thereby strengthening research validity.

Therefore, in this study, methodological triangulation (Denzin 1970) was achieved by: (i) the use of a range of research methods (a mix of well-established and innovative approaches); (ii) research tools which gathered some quantitative data alongside the (predominantly) qualitative data; (iii) the perspectives of different groups of participants i.e. the pupils and their teacher; (iv) a multicase case design (two cases comprising four classes). A pilot study and post-pilot discussions with teachers and pupils facilitated 'member checking' (Stake 2006:37) at the point of data gathering.

This approach to triangulation increased internal validity through the deep exploration of the quintain of grammatical terminology. Furthermore, this study attempted to provide description before analysis (Stake 2006). This is reflected in the organisation of subsequent chapters i.e. Chapter Four is largely descriptive in nature and Chapter Five is driven by a theoretical analysis of the findings.

A common claim is that the findings from case studies cannot be generalised to the population as a whole (Gilbert 2008; Yin 2009) and, indeed, the sampling strategy (convenience sample) and sample size used in this study did not support representativeness. However, Yin (2014:21) refutes the proposition that such findings have limited generalisability, maintaining that case studies are 'generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes'. He argues that the goal of case study research is to 'expand and generalize theories' (analytic generalisations) and 'not to extrapolate probability' (statistical generalisations) (ibid). This means that the case study is generalisable in that it may help the reader to understand similar cases, events or phenomena. In doing so, it stands to contribute to a broader theory.

In addition, the multicase design of this study can be seen as a way of strengthening generalisation further, by drawing together similar themes across a number of cases as well as within the single case (Taber 2013). However, Mukherji and Albon (2010) warn that seeing each school as a separate case and then looking across the cases for common themes can result in resources being spread too thinly and the depth being adversely affected. Johnson and Christensen (2008:409) refer to this as the 'depth versus breadth trade-off'.

Inevitably, Stake (2006) maintains, the multicase report will 'say different things to different audiences' (2006:88). He argues that 'because the reader knows the situations to which the assertions might apply, the responsibility of making generalizations should be more the reader's than the writer's' (2006:90). Stake (2006:88-89) argues that the act of generalising is 'deeply set in the human repertoire and that it will continue to operate without protocol' Nevertheless, protocol may help, as may multicase studies, which stand to offer tentative insights from a number of situated cases.

3.11 Data analysis

According to Cohen et al. (2011:537):

There is no one single or correct way to analyse and present qualitative data; how one does it should abide by the issue of *fitness for purpose*.

In relation to this study, the principle of *fitness for purpose* is guided by the need to interpret a large amount of rich and detailed data, generated by a wide range of qualitative research methods and focusing upon exploring grammatical terminology through the perspectives of pupils and their teachers.

3.11.1 Data analysis: single case focus

In order to organise and interpret the quality and quantity of this data, this study adopted a thematic approach. According to King and Brooks (2017:4), thematic analysis is the 'most widely used form of analysis across qualitative research as a whole'. This is also supported by Stake (2006:41) who advocates applying 'each case's findings to a theme-based description of the quintain', particularly if only a few cases have been applied. Within this sits Template Analysis as a 'generic style', which 'does not insist on any particular philosophical or theoretical commitments on the part of the researcher' (King and Brooks 2017:5). Themes are defined as 'recurrent features of participants' accounts, characterising particular perceptions and/or experiences which the researcher sees as relevant to the research question' (King and Horrocks 2010:150). Coding is the process of identifying these themes in accounts and attaching labels (codes) to index them (Brooks and King 2014).

This approach seemed compatible with the notion of an exploratory multicase study. Used alongside the approach of Stake (2006), King and Brooks' (2017) iterative seven-step process provided a useful, flexible tool. Furthermore, its hierarchical structure made the top-level themes more visible which, in turn, aided clarity of focus and depth of thinking. Thus, template analysis provided the study with a detailed, practical and systematic process for defining, structuring and coding themes in order to analyse the data. The following process, as detailed by King and Brooks (2017:26), was adhered to:

1. Familiarisation with the data
2. Preliminary coding
3. Clustering coding
4. Producing an initial template
5. Developing the template
6. Applying the final template findings
7. Writing up

Data analysis started with the pilot study and then continued soon after the data gathering for Case 1 had been completed. It began by re-reading the whole data set a number of times as part of the familiarisation process. Each class was considered separately at first, before merging themes across the case. Using a subset of the data for Case 1, preliminary coding was undertaken by hand, highlighting and annotating points

of interest as memos. This process was completed for all teacher and pupil interview transcriptions (see Appendix 15: Open coding with annotation within transcription) and all open questions within the pupil questionnaires (see Appendix 13: Pupil questionnaires: open questions).

The pupil questionnaires also included closed questions (see Appendix 6: Pupil questionnaire). Some of these were multiple-choice questions, reflecting either attitudes or opinions. For example:

- Attitude: Question 9: *I think learning about grammar words is: great / ok / easy / interesting / confusing / tricky / hard / boring / none of these / my own word...*
- Opinion: Question 19: *I think I learn a new grammar word best when: My teacher explains it / I do a worksheet about it / I talk with others about it / I do a practical activity etc.*

(See Appendix 14: Pupil questionnaires: closed questions: Tables 4.2 and 4.4)

Other closed questions were “factual” in that they required recall of declarative knowledge. For example:

- “Factual”: Question 11: *Write down what you know about the meaning of these words and try to give an example of each.*

(See Appendix 14: Pupil questionnaires: closed questions: Tables 4.1 and 4.3)

In these cases, pupil responses were counted as well as coded and analysed according to the thematic findings. That said, in Question 11, there was still an element of interpretation involved in judging the accuracy and appropriateness of the pupils’ own definitions and examples.

In addition, a priori themes were drawn from reflections on personal and professional experience. Although these were not built into the template, they were kept in mind at the initial stage as part of acknowledging subjectivity. These can be summarised as:

- Attitudes, beliefs and values: negative perceptions of grammatical terminology by teachers and pupils; tensions and contradictions between the teachers’ values and those articulated by national policy;
- Policy and pedagogy: confusion or uncertainty about how to teach grammatical terminology and, as such, discrepancies between policy and practice.

From the annotated transcripts, relevant quotations were identified and written out again on corresponding colour-coded sheets with a single theme title. The physicality of writing out quotations facilitated deep immersion in the emerging themes. Where appropriate, theme titles could be renamed and deeper level connections could be established. In total, there were:

- 15 themes relating to ‘national policy’ (loosely aligned with the 1st research question)
- 7 themes relating to ‘purpose and value’ (loosely aligned with the 2nd research question)
- 14 themes relating to ‘activities and approaches’ (loosely aligned with the 3rd research question)
- 12 themes relating to emerging similarities and differences between teachers and pupils (loosely aligned with the 4th research question)

This led to the development of an initial “post-it note template” (see Appendix 10). As the template developed and increased in complexity, this became an electronic template (see Appendix 11).

The process was repeated for Case 2. As for Case 1, each class was considered separately at first, before merging themes across the case. The template (Appendix 11) continued to be revised and refined throughout. Although time-consuming, the process ensured that the final template was sufficiently robust. This was then used to analyse the findings in all data sets in detail.

The correlation of research questions to top-level themes can be seen in Table 3.1. The scope of these final top-level themes is presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.1: Correspondence between research aim, research questions and top-level themes

Aim of study	Research questions	Top-level themes
To explore the nature of grammatical terminology, contributing to a meaning-oriented theorisation of grammatical terminology in order to better understanding what form effective pedagogical practice in primary schools might take.	RQ1. In what ways do the perspectives and practices of pupils and their teachers relate to national policy for the teaching of grammatical terminology? (WHAT?)	1. Declarative knowledge
		2. Procedural knowledge
	RQ2. What are pupils’ and teachers’ perceptions of the nature, purpose and value of grammatical terminology? (WHY?)	3. Purpose
		4. Value
	RQ3. What approaches and activities do pupils and teachers perceive to be most effective in the teaching of grammatical terminology? (HOW?)	5. Teaching
		6. Learning
	RQ4. In what ways are the multiple perspectives and practices of the pupils and teachers valuable in generating models of good practice for the teaching of grammatical terminology?	<i>The fourth research question is addressed through the analysis of the findings of the six top-level themes.</i>

Table 3.2: Scope of each top-level theme

Top-level themes	Definitions	Scope of top-level themes within the study (directly expressed and/or inferred)
1. Declarative knowledge	<p>Knowing <i>that</i> something is the case; it is conscious and can often be verbalised. It is assumed to precede procedural knowledge. Metalinguistic knowledge, or knowledge about a linguistic form, is declarative knowledge.</p> <p>In this study, evidence of the explicit knowledge about grammatical terminology (e.g. <i>adjective</i> and <i>subordinate clause</i>) frames 'Declarative knowledge'.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pupils' and teachers' attitudes and beliefs about declarative knowledge. • Pupils' and teachers' perception of the opportunities and challenges of declarative knowledge. • Pupils' and teachers' perception of their own competence and confidence related to declarative knowledge. • Evidence of the pupils' conceptualisations of declarative knowledge in questionnaires, writing conferences and interviews.
2. Procedural knowledge	<p>Knowing <i>how</i> to do something, though we may not be able to verbalise it. It is implicit and may involve being able to use a particular form to understand or produce language without necessarily being able to explain it.</p> <p>In this study, evidence of the application of grammatical terminology (e.g. <i>adjective</i> and <i>subordinate clause</i>) explicitly during reflections on writing and grammar activities and games, for example, frames 'Procedural knowledge'.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pupils' and teachers' attitudes and beliefs about procedural knowledge. • Pupils' and teachers' perceptions of the opportunities and challenges of procedural knowledge. • Pupils' and teachers' perceptions of their own competence and confidence related to procedural knowledge. • Evidence of pupils' application of procedural knowledge in questionnaires, writing conferences and interviews.
3. Purpose	In this study, the reason why grammatical terminology is taught and/or the reasons why it is taught as it is frames 'Purpose'.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pupils' and teachers' attitudes and beliefs about the purpose of teaching and learning grammatical terminology.
4. Value	In this study, the importance, worth or usefulness of teaching grammatical terminology frames 'Value'.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pupils' and teachers' attitudes and beliefs about the value of teaching and learning grammatical terminology.
5. Teaching	In this study, the formal and informal classroom processes (e.g. approaches, activities, resources) relating to planning, teaching and assessing grammatical terminology frames 'Teaching'.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pupils' and teachers' attitudes, beliefs about teaching grammatical terminology, including self-confidence. • Pupils' and teachers' reflections on experience and ideas about more/less effective ways of teaching grammatical terminology. • Pupils' and teachers' perceptions of the opportunities and challenges of teaching grammatical terminology.
6. Learning	In this study, the formal and informal processes (e.g. approaches, activities, resources) relating to developing new knowledge, understanding about grammatical terminology frames 'Learning'.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pupils' and teachers' attitudes and beliefs about learning grammatical terminology, including self-confidence. • Pupils' and teachers' reflections on experience and ideas about more/less effective ways of learning grammatical terminology. • Pupils' and teachers' perceptions of the opportunities and challenges of learning grammatical terminology.

3.11.2 Data analysis: multicase focus

While the use of King and Brooks' (2017) Template Analysis facilitated a systematic approach to the analysis of the single case data, it was felt that a return to Stake's (2006) multicase approach better supported the cross-case procedure. Thus, in order to merge findings across cases, a further process of clustering took place with findings common to both cases being physically grouped and re-grouped on a table top. At this point, little attention was given to the two individual cases: the focus instead was placed on identifying similar findings across cases (reflecting either pupil/teacher similarities or within-case pupil/teacher differences). Each cluster of merged findings was renamed to give a better sense of the new cluster identity. Findings that would not merge or were considered weak were omitted to avoid over-generalisation across cases. Ultimately, in deciding which findings to prioritise, the following question was asked: 'how important is this finding (derived from its case) for understanding the quintain (with regard to this theme)?' (Stake 2006:52). The key thematic multicase findings are presented in Appendix 12.

3.12 Chapter summary

Chapter Three has critically explored the methodological and theoretical positioning of this study before explaining and justifying the decisions made regarding research design. It has argued that the choice of a multicase design and the use of a range of multisensory and multimodal research methods are well suited to exploring the abstract and complex phenomenon of grammatical terminology. Given the focus on pupil and teachers' perspectives, the importance of reflexivity has been examined, along with the notions of validity and reliability. The process of data analysis has been presented to show how the wealth of data generated was managed meaningfully in a way that facilitated its systematic and detailed analysis. Chapter Four now presents the single case findings.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF SINGLE CASE FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings for Case 1 and Case 2. It is organised according to the top-level themes of 'declarative', 'procedural', 'purpose', 'value', 'teaching' and 'learning'.

The chapter is largely descriptive with some case-specific analysis. It presents findings relating to 16 key themes (see Appendix 12). Thus, the sacrifice of Chapter Four is depth to the benefit of breadth, though this is then redressed in the theoretical discussion of multicase findings in Chapter Five.

Even so, due to the constraints of this thesis, the findings are prioritised and abbreviated according to their utility to the research questions. The sections related to 'declarative' and 'procedural' are the longest, reflecting the wide range of findings. Sections related to 'purpose' and 'value' are the shortest, reflecting comparatively limited findings. The sections related to 'teaching' and 'learning' are also shorter than 'declarative' and 'procedural', reflecting the fact that some issues have been identifiably explored in previous sections.

Each case begins with a case description. This supports a context-specific illustration of the themes, something that Stake refers to as 'situationality' (2006:46). According to Stake (2006:27), the 'case's activities are expected to be influenced by contexts, so contexts need to be studied and described'. The case description includes a brief consideration of the context of English teaching but, specifically, within writing with which grammatical terminology is most commonly associated.

Case 1 and Case 2 comprise data drawn from two classes each. (Codes pertaining to the participants and the data gathering tools are listed in Appendix 3). The decision to present two classes as one case has already been highlighted (see 3.1.1). However, it is worth extending this to explain that multicase design 'is not a design for comparing cases' (Stake 2006:83). Therefore, it was decided that the side-by-side presentation of individual classes from the same school would risk shifting the focus of the study away from better understanding the quintain by: (i) creating an unhelpful comparative element between the two classes; (ii) putting too great a focus on the teacher/pupil dialectic, inferring potentially superficial causal assumptions between teachers and pupils; (iii) potentially providing too limited an evidence base and (iv) being too repetitive to report, given the high level of similarity in the findings. Nevertheless, this still represented a methodological dilemma, and any losses to the integrity of the concept of a case study are acknowledged.

The case description is followed by a case presentation which focuses upon how the quintain of grammatical terminology appears in that context through the experience of the participants involved. During the case presentation, each top-level theme is seen firstly from the perspectives of the teachers (in order to reflect the actuality of the classroom) and then from the perspectives of the pupils. Although there might have been

benefits to merging teacher and pupil findings, again, it was felt that this would have risked creating superficial causal assumptions.

In order to adhere to the notion of ‘thick description’ (Lincoln and Guba 1985), participants’ verbatim quotes are used frequently, conveying something of the raw data that led to a particular theme or interpretation being made (King and Brooks 2017:42). Unless indented, the direct quotations of teachers and pupils are placed within single inverted commas. The names of all teachers and pupils are pseudonyms. When reference is made to the researcher, first person point of view is used. Where grammatical terminology (i.e. as an entry in the Glossary), is referred to within discussions, the term is italicised to avoid any confusion between this and participant quotations.

Finally, a brief chapter summary acts as a bridge from the single case findings (Chapter Four) to the theoretical discussion of multicase findings in Chapter Five.

4.2 Case 1

The data gathering schedule can be found in Appendix 1.

4.2.1 Case description

4.2.1.1 School

Case 1 was an average-sized primary school in a semi-urban area in the North of England. English lessons were taught daily. In addition, ‘Basic Skills’ sessions had been introduced at the beginning of the academic year in response to a lag in national test scores for writing. The school had recently introduced a literature-based approach to English, centred around a half-termly book focus and building upon existing genre-based pedagogy.

4.2.1.2 Teachers

There were two teachers in Case 1: *Rachel* (Year 5) (T1) and *Alison* (Year 6) (T2) (see Appendix 3: Data source codes). Rachel was a newly qualified teacher; Alison had many years of teaching experience. Both teachers worked closely together, collaboratively planning their lessons and sharing resources. There seemed to be a good degree of consistency between them about the purpose and practice of writing, grammar and grammatical terminology. They were both very positive about the school’s new developments in English.

4.2.1.3 Pupils

There were 26 Year 5 pupils in Rachel's class (Class 1) and 21 Year 6 pupils in Alison's class (Class 2). According to the pupil questionnaire findings, the pupils were more confident in their abilities as readers (56% selected 'very good' or 'good' reader) than as writers (26% selected 'very good' or 'good' writer). Furthermore, pupils seemed slightly more positive in their abilities with grammatical terminology (38% selected 'very good' or 'good') than with writing. Of grammatical terminology, the questionnaire solicited a mix of responses e.g. the most popular adjectives to describe grammatical terminology were: 'interesting', 'ok' and 'tricky'. Some pupils seemed genuinely interested in learning new words, and this may have reflected the emphasis these teachers gave to enriching the pupils' vocabulary. Alison described a key aim as being to develop 'a love of language' (T2,1:1).

4.2.2 Case presentation

4.2.2.1 Declarative knowledge: Teacher perspectives

4.2.2.1.1 Definitions

The findings from the teacher interviews (see Appendix 5) and lesson observations (see Appendix 4) suggested that grammatical terminology reflected traditional semantic verbal definitions. With the introduction of the revised National Curriculum, terms such as 'drop-in clauses' had been exchanged for *subordinate clauses*, reflecting the more linguistically technical terms of the Glossary (DfE 2013a) and the SPaG test (DfE 2013b). In spite of some of this terminology being 'brand new' (T2,1:1), the teachers felt that progress had been made. As Alison explained, 'At the beginning of the term, we couldn't even talk about a clause...this class has come quite a long way in the year' (T2,1:1).

4.2.2.1.2 Nature of grammatical terminology

However, the teachers perceived there to be limits as to what could be achieved in the time available. Alison explained, 'So I could throw terminology at them all day and I don't think at the moment they could take it in'. This suggested that Alison was aware of the developmental nature of grammatical terminology rather than perceiving it as being a simplistic presentation of definitions and examples.

In addition, the teachers felt that some tasks involving grammatical terminology were harder than others. Rachel explained that currently her class was working on adjectives. She described it as a 'big one', depending on whether the pupils were being asked to define or explain it, or identify it:

If I gave them a sentence and said, 'Right, tell me the verb, tell me the noun, tell me the adjective... some of them could do it but a lot of them wouldn't be able to do it and that's the tough bit, I think, identifying it. (T1,1:1)

Rachel's comment hinted at the limitations of traditional semantic definitions at the point of application to writing. Alison's comments concurred.

Both teachers reflected upon the challenging nature of grammatical terminology, comparing it to maths. Alison felt that pupils were able to incorporate words such as 'faces, prisms, edges into their maths talk now...because they've met them from Year 1'. She fully expected that, over time, grammatical terminology would be equally as accessible to the pupils. Rachel reflected on the specific nature of grammatical terms: 'I don't know what it is, but I do think that this [grammatical terminology] is harder than that [maths]'. She suggested there was a different kind of difficulty inherent in grammatical terminology, though found it hard to articulate why.

4.2.2.1.3 Pupil differences

Furthermore, both teachers felt that grammatical terminology was more beneficial for the higher attaining pupils. Rachel believed that these pupils 'soak it up a little bit more'. She explained:

I think it's harder with the lower attainers really...you've really got to sow the seeds... I mean the amount of times we've done subordinate clauses and main clauses and, you know, they'll still look at me like I'm an alien and that I'm speaking a different language. That's the issue I think....getting it in their heads...remembering it. (T1,1:1)

For both teachers, pupil anxiety was a tangible outcome. They felt it created a particular emotional barrier for the lower attaining writers because:

...they're too busy worrying', too focused on, 'Oh, what's an adjective, I don't know what an adjective is' and 'Oh, I've not come across this before' and 'I don't recognise it and that's it, I'm not going to learn it, I'm not going to know it. (T1,1:1)

She continued:

I mean I don't know if you noticed, the boy sat here was really stressed with himself that he couldn't remember what a subordinate clause was. (T1,1:1)

Possible reasons were not suggested. It may have been because of the limitations of the pupil's declarative knowledge or constraints caused by the dual processing demands of an activity (i.e. the need to recall declarative knowledge alongside comprehend the meaning of the text).

4.2.2.2 Declarative knowledge: Pupil perspectives

4.2.2.2.1 Definitions

The findings from the pupil questionnaires (see Appendix 6) suggested that grammatical terminology could be recognised and recalled as a verbal definition by a high percentage of pupils (see Table 4.1 in Appendix 14), especially in Year 6. The pupils' written verbal definitions were very similar and, within the same class, often identical. Many pupils were able to give examples of word classes, although accuracy was generally lower for the 'examples' than for the 'definitions', suggesting there was an additional challenge involved in application of verbal definitions and/or that the examples were not yet as "automised". The pupils were quick to join in with the video teacher's lesson, discussing the "right" answers between themselves:

Sarah: That was the main clause
Tilly: And that's a subordinate clause

Esme: Yes, because that's not a sentence, is it: 'who was very sad'?

Their language reflected that of the NLS (the legacy of which was still perceived by the teachers to be within school) and these pupils seemed comfortable with this familiar "patter" around subordinate clauses. In this way, key questions and statements on the video seemed to be acting as verbal triggers to the recall of known verbal fragments of declarative knowledge.

4.2.2.2.2 *Nature of grammatical terminology*

The pupil questionnaire suggested that *adjective* was the most secure term (over *noun* and *verb*), with 90% of pupils being able to write an appropriate definition and 85% of pupils being able to give an example. This perhaps reflected substantial teaching over time.

Conversely, and in spite of recent teaching, *subordinate clause* was the least competently defined and exemplified term. Only 51% of pupils were able to write an appropriate definition and only 20.5% were able to give an accurate example. Interestingly, in an earlier question on the pupil questionnaire, 78% of pupils had identified *subordinate clause* as a term they understood. Therefore, the findings suggested a potential gap between perceiving and knowing; between the familiar "sense" of a word and its verbal "meaning". While this may reflect the newness of some of the terminology, the teachers reported having worked on these terms all year. Therefore, this may have reflected the more challenging nature of the grammatical terminology relating to syntax.

4.2.2.2.3 *Pupil differences*

The findings from the pupil interviews suggested that despite the similarity within the pupils' verbal definitions - and the homogeneity of the teaching and learning experience - pupils had different qualities of declarative knowledge, both cognitively and affectively. For example, while some pupils admitted to feeling bored by it - and indeed lost focus during discussions around declarative knowledge - others admitted to feeling confused or anxious. In comparison, Esme (a higher attaining writer) was very positive and highly engaged at all times. She demonstrated an ability to answer declarative questions quickly and precisely, and to apply this knowledge in creating a new grammar game. She reported that using grammatical terminology made her feel 'clever'.

The data also revealed individual pupils' mixed feelings. For example, there was a lack of correlation between accurate subject knowledge and positive attitude (i.e. those pupils able to complete the subject knowledge table proficiently were not necessarily the most positive in their attitude, and vice versa). Esme reported feeling bored by the repetition: 'I think it gets quite boring when we go over it quite a lot and I know it'. At other times, she admitted to feeling confused. For example,

Because it gets quite confusing so you like think, 'Oh a noun is a naming word. Oh no, that's a name and so it's not a person naming word, it's a naming word like 'table' and you might get really confused.

Therefore, in spite of seeming to 'soak it up a little bit more' (T1,1:1), higher attaining writers could also be confused - albeit at a different level of cognitive thinking. This was also evident in the pupil questionnaires with some of the higher attaining writers commenting, 'I get meanings mixed up'.

Esme's comment also demonstrated something of her metacognitive abilities as she attempted to unpack and verbalise the issues underlying her confusion. This level of metacognitive thinking was less common and, in the group interviews, illustrated a further difference in the nature of the pupils' responses.

4.2.2.3 Procedural knowledge: Teacher perspectives

4.2.2.3.1 Application

Both teachers were committed to the new whole school approach of a literature-based English curriculum.

Alison talked about the pupils improving as writers through 'absorbing the text':

I didn't tell them it had to be formal but the paragraph just came out and it was quite formal writing and I felt some of them had really captured the style... And that was just through absorbing the text. (T2,1:1)

Both teachers felt that the pupils' grammatical knowledge was 'certainly much better than it was in September' (T2,1:1). However, it was the genre-based approach, contextualised within high-quality literature, which was perceived to have been of benefit, and not the explicit knowledge or conscious application of grammatical terminology. Alison spoke of the pupils' ability to understand, produce and control a grammatical concept, even when they were unable to label it. For example:

They're struggling to remember whether it's a verb, an adjective, a noun, you know, a proper noun, that kind of thing but, when we're actually using it, they're understanding it from a writing perspective if that makes sense. (T2,1:1)

Rachel's comments concurred. Of the boy who was 'really stressed with himself' (see 4.3.2.1.3), she said: 'And if you asked him to write a complex sentence, he'd be able to do it'.

Both teachers were very aware of the challenge of applying declarative knowledge. Rachel talked about supporting the pupils by drawing their attention visually to the adjectives within their own writing:

I'll get them to do a key and underline where they've used certain words and then they can see how many they've used or if they haven't used any and then they can see that: 'Oh actually I've not got any adjectives so I need to add some in...' (T1,1:1)

In this way, she attempted to help the pupils to notice the target feature by enhancing it through a text marking exercise. This may have helped to render abstract concepts more concrete. However, such attention to the linguistic form may have also reduced pupils' capacity to attend to meaning, possibly reinforced by the notion of "adding some in". Although Rachel was merely reflecting on practice in this example, displaying a linguistic form seemed to take priority over meaning and effect.

These findings seemed to reflect two key pedagogical approaches relevant to both teachers' intentions: (i) to achieve implicit knowledge as a writer through "absorbing" or "soaking up" grammatical terminology and (ii) to achieve an automatised of explicit knowledge through the practice approach of Basic Skills sessions. This dual intention seemed reminiscent of the traditional explicit/implicit dichotomy.

4.2.2.3.2 Modelling

Alison talked about the pupils 'absorbing the text' or at least 'absorbing why it's useful... even if they are not absorbing the terminology as much' (T2,1:1). Thus, she perceived there to be benefits in raising the pupils' awareness and attention, perhaps as a first step to more explicit knowledge and understanding. A significant aspect to this was her use of metalinguistic talk which displayed the target terminology in more meaning-based, communicative contexts. The observed lessons demonstrated the frequent modelling of this. For example, following the pupils' independent writing, Alison recapped the lesson: 'Right, we have edited our work, added topic sentences, linked paragraphs using connectives, added emotive language... (T2,1:1).

The modelling of grammatical terminology was also evident in the one-to-one discussions during independent writing:

That's a subordinate clause, Jess. You need a main clause to go with it. Shall we use it as an example? Do you want some help with it? No? Okay, you work on it some more and I'll come back later. (T2,1:1)

Jess politely declined and Alison respectfully moved on. For whatever reason, Jess didn't want help with it. It could be inferred that the metatalk presented Jess with too great an intellectual challenge, suddenly putting her "on the spot", unable to retrieve the necessary explicit knowledge in her own time and/or able to use it in spoken discourse with the teacher. Consequently, she retreated quickly from the exchange. She may have also perceived there to be a censorial element in: 'you need a main clause to go with it'.

4.2.2.3.3 Punctuation

The findings suggested that punctuation terminology presented an interesting difference alongside that of grammatical terminology. Although punctuation is not grammar, the two areas are closely related. The teachers were particularly positive about the school's physical approach to the teaching of punctuation which incorporated sounds and movement. Given the challenges inherent in verbalising thinking, it was interesting that this approach was predominantly a non-verbal cuing strategy Rachel compared punctuation terminology to grammatical terminology, suggesting that there were different levels of difficulty inherent in the latter. She explained that, even for her, punctuation terminology seemed much more straightforward than grammatical terminology, though couldn't quite put her finger on why:

For some reason, I don't know, bracket, dash...fine, but relative pronoun, relative clause, modal verb...(T1,1:1)

Consequently, when examples were needed quickly during the teacher interviews, punctuation was usually cited. It could be inferred that this was the result of greater familiarity from teaching over time i.e. punctuation concepts were simply more established. However, it may also reflect that this non-verbal approach did not

require any “unpacking” into words (even though verbal punctuation rules do exist and to varying degrees of complexity).

4.2.2.4 Procedural knowledge: Pupil perspectives

4.2.2.4.1 Application

According to the findings in the pupil questionnaire, 93% of pupils felt that grammatical terminology was helpful to their writing most of all (i.e. above *reading*, *talking/discussing* and *thinking*). That said, their reasons for this were often vague, referring to a notion of “using them in my writing”. This may have reflected classroom experiences and expectations i.e. that the pupils understood from their teachers that grammar was *supposed* to impact positively on writing.

However, despite the pupils’ positive perceptions, other findings (pupil writing conferences and pupil interviews) suggested that application to writing was very difficult, both in terms of the identification of terminology within writing or the spoken use of grammatical terms when discussing writing. Sometimes this revealed misconceptions and misunderstandings. For example, in response to a request for an effective adjective in the writing conference, one pupil responded, ‘I like ‘mercilessly” (an adverb). When asked for an example of an effective verb, another pupil identified, ‘melodious’ and ‘dreary’ (both adjectives). Nevertheless, their selections brought attention to the impressive range of vocabulary within much of the pupils’ writing, no doubt reflecting the priority given to language development within both classes. It is also possible that the pupils defaulted to “wow words” – an all-encompassing phrase to denote impressive vocabulary choices, often used interchangeably with ‘adjectives’ and common in primary schools at this time. There was also a possibility that the pupils were prioritising my use of the word ‘effective’ over *adjective* or *verb*, again based on their classroom experiences which prized the ‘richness of language’ (T2,1:1).

Furthermore, the inverse was sometimes evident. For example, in a writing conference, a pupil who was asked to give an example from his writing of an effective adjective came up with a ‘big, red strawberry’ and another pupil when asked to identify an ‘effective noun’ responded with ‘cup’ and then ‘bag’ (PW1,1:1). While these words were indeed adjectives and nouns, none of these examples related to the pupils’ own writing. Instead, the pupils seemed to have defaulted to decontextualised taught examples. This suggested that the pupils needed more time to access their own explicit knowledge and that, therefore, the automaticity required (coupled with the desire to give the “right answer”) became a barrier to something more authentic. It could also be inferred that taught examples of grammatical terminology were being perceived as a body of knowledge separate to the pupils’ own written language.

Overall, these examples suggested that the pupils lacked understanding of grammatical terminology as lexical categories. This was supported by the pupil questionnaires (e.g. in responses to questions such as: *I think grammar words helps me with my writing because...*) Here, a generic response of “using them in my writing” was often given, possibly inferring that these were understood as lexical items of vocabulary and not linguistic

categories of grammar. Although these comments were very similar across both classes, a few Year 6 comments stood out. For example, Tilly hinted at terminology being a tool for thinking: 'It helps me to understand things', and Sarah suggested there was something different about the nature of grammatical terms when she wrote: 'they're not usual words'. These higher attaining writers seemed to be beginning to understand (or beginning to be able to verbalise their understanding) of grammatical terminology as a linguistic concept of categorisation.

The findings also suggested the transfer of grammatical terminology to spoken contexts in the form of practical activities and games was difficult (e.g. pupil interview 2). There were numerous examples of this. For example, in the throes of explaining her own invented practical game, Kelly couldn't make a quick enough jump backwards to access her explicit knowledge of 'noun' and so dismissed it with a flap of her hand, calling it a 'noun thingy'. Yet she had already defined and exemplified 'noun' appropriately within the pupil questionnaire.

The openness and inventiveness of practical activities also revealed misconceptions and misunderstandings. For example, Kelly and Tilly spontaneously announced that: 'Adverbs are the easiest because they end in -ly' and then added: 'My name's an adverb and so is Tilly's - so us two are adverbs.' Unfortunately, in spite of her cheerfulness, applying this learned "rule" had led to a misconception.

4.2.2.4.2 *Modelling*

Through the triangulation of findings, it can be inferred that pupils avoided using grammatical terminology. When asked directly, some pupils made references back to their personal vocabulary books where they had already amassed a store of words and phrases collected over time. Rachel called this resource their 'little safe haven'. This was an interesting metaphor, reminiscent of pupil anxiety in the face of the challenge of recall, as discussed earlier (see 4.3.2.1.2).

The notion of an inability to verbalise ideas was evident within the pupil writing conferences. Vague and generic phrases, such as 'to add more' and 'added another bit on', were common. Ophelia (PW1,1:1) stood out in her ability to communicate a sense of audience, purpose and form:

I like it because I think it put a good effect on the paragraph and the person who is reading it would want to be like 'All right then, I need to read on to find out why and what are his needs and rights... Because it's got quite an authoritative tone.

Yet her comments were not typical of pupil responses generally. Connor's *favourite phrases* from his writing were impressive and had a stylistic maturity about them (PW1,1:1). But, when asked why he had chosen these to read aloud, he replied, 'Don't know'. Thus, although pupils demonstrated the ability to identify their own effective language use, they were often unable to elaborate, with or without the use of grammatical terminology. This suggested that while some pupils had internalised effective structures, they were unable, as yet, to verbalise what they knew implicitly. This would seem to have implications for pupils' ability to think about and verbalise ideas relating to meaning and effect, and the significant amount of resource potentially needed to support this.

That said, some pupils did demonstrate an ability to use grammatical terminology in the discussion of their writing. For example, Esme – a high attaining writer and a writer at home – read her writing aloud and then proceeded to give her reasons for this choice: ‘I like it because I’ve used an adverb to start and I’ve used a high-level connective in the middle.’ However, her analysis stopped short at syntactic identification. She had provided a swift technical analysis but, like many other pupils, did not automatically extend this into the semantic value of the grammatical choices she had made.

4.2.2.4.3 Punctuation

The pupils were incredibly enthusiastic about the physical approach to punctuation, including the lower attaining writers. Again, there was something different about punctuation terminology that meant that the pupils, like their teachers, often used it as their “go to” bank of examples, rather than citing terminology relating to word classes or sentence structure. For example, Faisal was keen to read his writing aloud. He announced in the literacy conference, ‘I’ve got some good punctuation in a paragraph’. As he read, he broke off to explain, ‘And I’ve got another question mark there.’

While punctuation is presented here as having a familiar and easy feel to it, it must be noted that the pupils were not asked to define or explain punctuation terminology as part of this study and so it is not known how their explicit knowledge manifested conceptually. It could have been that the taught punctuation gestures and sounds existed only superficially, with little cognisance of the role of punctuation to clarify meaning. In this way, the automaticity afforded by this non-verbal approach could have been akin to the automaticity afforded by the verbal trigger of the “patter” seen in response to the video lesson (see 4.3.2.2.1).

4.2.2.5 Purpose: Teacher perspectives

4.2.2.5.1 Writing proficiency and future prospects

The findings in the Teacher interviews suggested that both teachers perceived the purpose of grammar teaching to be about language development. For example, grammatical terminology was seen as: ‘increasing the pupils’ vocabularies’; ‘helping the pupils to ‘develop a much broader language base’ (T1,1:1); helping them to develop the confidence and skills to ‘use language creatively’ and to ‘refine their choices’ (T2,1:1). Thus, Alison’s perceived purpose of language learning reflected a discourse level of meaning and effect, rather than linguistic competence of accuracy. For Alison, the role of grammatical terminology seemed to be principally about making choices as a writer. However, she also emphasised that it was important that pupils had ‘the right tools for the job’, thereby suggesting that her functional, descriptive conception of language was underpinned by a skills-based approach to teaching it.

However, comments relating specifically to the purpose of grammatical terminology (rather than grammar) were less detailed and less precise. That said, both teachers felt that it did have communicative relevance, although their comments reflected different conceptions of communicative competence. For example, Rachel

emphasised a pragmatic, sociolinguistic purpose, perceiving grammatical terminology to be of benefit to 'the future lives of the children'. For example:

...really important just going into adult life to be able to write a letter or an email or something, a job application...so many people are competing. (T1,1:1)

Alison emphasised the importance of language learning and specifically of pupils improving as writers. She explained that she would like to see the pupils 'manipulating sentences for effect themselves':

But if the children can say: 'I've changed that verb, I've got a more powerful verb there...because I want to emphasise this particular thing' then for me they would have improved as writers. (T2,1:1)

Therefore, although both teachers seemed very much in line with each other in terms of practice, these subtle differences in purpose serve as an important reminder that whole school approaches are underpinned by the different attitudes, beliefs and experiences of individual teachers. It could be argued that, within such an emotionally charged and contentious area as grammatical terminology, it is even more important that teachers adopt a reflexive approach, both individually as well as collectively.

4.2.2.6 Purpose: Pupil perspectives

4.2.2.6.1 Writing proficiency and future prospects

The findings from the pupil questionnaires suggested that the purpose of grammatical terminology was perceived as being related to: (i) jobs, (ii) tests, (iii) secondary school and (iv) writing (in order of priority). Interestingly, the purpose of improving writing did not seem as relevant or important to the pupils as it did to the teachers, suggesting a disconnect between grammatical terminology and their own writing.

This difference in teacher/pupil emphasis was encapsulated in a lively discussion regarding "jobs". Tilly said dismissively that grammatical terminology wasn't relevant to her and Sarah:

Us two want to be zookeepers...I don't think you're going to say when someone comes to the zoo, 'Do you know what an adverb is?' (PG2,1:1)

Tilly was quite vociferous in making her point. But Sarah was quick to contradict this, insisting you had to produce a job application form to be a zookeeper. She explained that a job application had to say: 'I'm good at this, this and this...'. But Tilly shot back with: 'Yes, but you don't have to write much when you're doing the job'. Kelly, who had been quiet, suddenly interjected with a concerned question of her own: 'How about a hairdresser? Hairdressers don't.'

Tilly: They do! They do at least, like, thirty minutes of writing!

Kelly: Oh my God, that's my... I don't know what else to be!

Kelly looked genuinely shocked and lost in thought for a while. It seemed that the pupils had been finding reassurance in the fact that grammatical terminology, grammar or writing did not seem relevant to their future selves, despite everything they were learning at school. In this way, grammatical terminology did have a purpose linked to employment but was judged by these pupils to be of little or no use to them given *their* intended jobs.

4.2.2.7 Value: Teacher perspectives

4.2.2.7.1 Conflicts

The teachers were generally positive about the enhanced grammar content within the revised National Curriculum (DfE 2013a) and the introduction of the SPaG test (DfE 2013b). However, some views seemed contradictory. For example, Alison felt that the SPaG test was 'entirely reasonable' and that through it they could 'give the children the power that they need with words'. Yet she was conscious of some pupils in her class not benefitting from this and identified grammatical terminology (rather than grammar) as '*the* challenge'. Rachel felt that she would carry on teaching the terminology 'loosely', even without the requirement of the SPaG test. However, she questioned the value of teaching something explicitly when it is already known implicitly:

I don't think it matters if they can't say, 'That's a noun or that's an adjective'. If they can write a noun and an adjective fair enough, why do they have to name it? (T1,1:1)

Rachel's view to 'carry on' (albeit with the caveat of teaching it 'loosely') was perhaps contrary to her concerns for the self-esteem of her lower attaining writers. Similarly, Alison's perception of the 'power' of words seemed at odds with her pupils' struggle to remember 'the difference between a noun and a verb'. These examples suggested professional conflicts: while the increased emphasis on grammar was fully embraced, the teachers seemed less certain about the role of its associated terminology. Therefore, there was a sense of grammatical terminology having value (i.e. the 'What'), be that to empower pupils as language learners or as a body of knowledge with social status. But there also seemed to be difficult, unresolved issues and tensions for these teachers around the 'Why' and the 'How'.

On this basis, it could be inferred that the nature and timing of the SPaG test had limited the teachers' professional capacity for thinking about grammatical terminology, legitimised by the new statutory National Curriculum and thereby curtailing any genuine critical debates about its value and purpose. However, this did not seem to be the case. The teachers recounted that the introduction of the SPaG had led to debates in school about its value (e.g. 'Do we really need it?'). Thus, it had been seen as a tool for professional development and beyond 'just something that we have to do' (T2,1:1).

4.2.2.8 Value: Pupil perspectives

4.2.2.8.1 Conflicts

The pupils were positive about the focused 'Basic Skills' sessions and, although the SPaG test did not feature as a dominant theme in the findings, Alison reported that her pupils had found the SPaG test easy:

When they said easy, what they meant was, 'We only had to tick a box or put a circle.' (T2,1:1)

As pupils' perceptions of writing were generally ambivalent or negative, this potentially reflected the deceptive simplicity of grammatical terminology compared to the complexity of the writing process – or at least compared to the pressure of having 'to write a lot' (PG2,1:1).

According to the pupil questionnaires, grammatical terminology was perceived by the pupils as having a high level of importance and usefulness (84% of pupils selected *Extremely important*, *Very important* or *Important*; 89% of pupils selected *Extremely useful*, *Very useful* or *Useful*), even when they did not necessarily find it interesting (only 39.5% of pupils selected *Extremely interesting*, *Very interesting* or *Interesting*). However, in the pupil interview, the perception of value was less favourable. For example, Sarah stated that, ‘Kids don’t want to use really boring words that are useful but they’re boring’, to which there were solemn and serious nods around the table. The notion of ‘boring’ was not unpacked but, given the findings related to *Interest*, it may be that this hinted at the lack of connection between pupils’ motivation and the perceived meaningfulness of this learning. Connor was more accepting, trusting in his teachers, assuming ‘... we don’t know it, so it must be really useful.’ Ophelia was able to recognise and articulate something about the efficiency afforded by grammatical terminology. When asked, ‘And does it help if you know the word?’ she explained:

Yes, because you have to remember “so on and so on” words but, if there’s just like one word for this meaning, it helps better. (PG1,2:1)

Her comment led to group agreement that grammatical terminology had value because it “helps”. Therefore, like their teachers, the pupils perceived there to be *some* sense of worth in knowing grammatical terminology, even though they did not seem entirely sure of what this was.

4.2.2.9 Teaching: Teacher perspectives

4.2.2.9.1 Teach-Practise-Apply

The findings suggested that grammatical terminology was manifested differently in different parts of the lesson. In the ‘Basic Skills’ introduction, it was predominantly framed as explicit knowledge (e.g. definitions and examples), explained by the teacher and proceduralised through question-and-answer sequences and example sentences written by the pupils on whiteboards. In the main part of the lesson, the focus shifted from syntax to semantics. Grammatical terminology was contextualised within text-based learning and modelled during activities such as paired talk, drama techniques, independent writing and review. Thus, grammatical terminology was taught explicitly and systematically and then applied implicitly and incidentally in reading and writing activities. This approach would seem to reflect the process of “teach-practise-apply” advocated in the National Curriculum (DfE 2013a).

This suggested that grammatical terminology was positioned in two epistemologically different ways. Declarative knowledge was taught in the context of decontextualised sentences, intended for the discrete practice of target features through focused exercises. This was then embedded (i.e. proceduralised) in more natural, conversational ways in the context of quality text discussions. In the former, meaning and effect were not discussed; in the latter, meaning and effect were the focus of the interactions. That said, on the basis of the findings, there was little or no attention given to the impact of grammatical choices on meaning and effect. Therefore, post-lesson reflections (researcher journal) perceived a disconnect between the two parts of the lesson, with pupils’ attention being disproportionately focused on grammatical terminology as a linguistic

construct rather than as a tool to create or understand meanings. It also inferred an assumption that explicit knowledge can be turned into procedural knowledge through either implicit and/or explicit practice.

4.2.2.9.2 Explanations

The findings suggested that grammatical terminology was explained through the use of texts to show why and how particular grammatical devices can be used effectively. For example:

... if I was doing newspapers I would cover not just direct and reported speech but I would use that actively to teach passive sentences rather than just as an isolated topic. (T2,1:1)

When asked directly about any strategies the teachers taught related to word learning, Alison replied thoughtfully, 'No, I'm not so sure I do focus on the terminology...' (T2,1:1). That said, the findings suggested that the teachers modelled the use of logical reasoning or analogical clues (e.g. morphemes or etymological roots) to explain the meaning of new grammatical terms. In this example, Rachel encouraged her pupils to use word part analysis, connecting the new whole word, *pronoun* to the more familiar word, *noun*:

I'll ask them to start with what they think it is and why. Pronouns are linked to the nouns so when we first touched on that, at the beginning of the year they were very 'Hey, what's a pronoun?' sort of thing and it was like 'Right okay, let's strip it back, what's a noun? We know what noun is so what do you think pronoun is from that?' you know. They're linked together. (T1:1:1)

In this way, Rachel approached the teaching of new terminology as a semantic problem-solving exercise, helping the pupils to analyse their existing knowledge of the meanings of grammatical terms and thereby deepen their understanding. This encouraged pupil autonomy in looking for lexical, linguistic connections.

4.2.2.9.3 Contextualised in writing

There was a significant emphasis given to contextualising grammatical terminology implicitly in high quality texts, embedding grammar in real language use so that the pupils might develop sociolinguistic competence through deepening their understanding of purpose, form and meaning. Within this context, grammar and grammatical terminology were taught systematically as skills. This included the detailed planning of writing. Both lessons observed involved the pupils in planning according to a template and ahead of a timed independent writing session the next day. The pupils were urged to check their planning sheets to ensure they had included key elements, such as 'a topic sentence for that paragraph' (T2,1:1). The findings suggested that many of the pupils found this difficult. However, Alison said that, in spite of the pupils reporting to her that writing was 'hard' and questioning their own progress with her, she felt they were:

...improving massively, and they obviously don't realise, so we looked back at their [writing] from the beginning of the year and they just laughed. (T2, 1:1)

While this research is not focused upon pupils' perceptions of writing, the findings suggested there were significant issues here relevant to the broader context in which grammar and grammatical terminology typically sit, potentially affecting pupil attention and motivation (e.g. in their sense of writerly purpose and agency). That said, the reflections in the researcher journal noted that the pupils were keen to read their work aloud, as if pleased to have written, even if they were not always pleased about having to write.

4.2.2.9.4 Resources

Both lessons were rich in quality resources, designed for class, group and individual pupil use. For example, lists of vocabulary were provided on handouts (e.g. character adjectives lists; feelings wheels). Each pupil had a book for collecting memorable vocabulary, and they were encouraged to use this as a resource when writing independently.

In terms of grammatical terminology, the main resource was the classroom display commonly known as the “working wall”. Consistent in both classes, this featured colour-coded definitions for each word class with pupil-generated example words visible. Rachel explained their use of cut-out stars when the pupils suggest say an example word:

...it might be an adverb and I'll pick out a star and they'll come and write it on...and then they'll stick it around the *adverb*... (T1,1:1)

The resource seemed to give status and support to declarative knowledge, labelling grammar terms according to their typical word class. However, these were divorced from a sentential context, potentially reinforcing any disconnect between grammatical terminology and impact on meaning. This resource also suggested that word classifications were fixed rather than reflective of the role of a word in a sentence.

4.2.2.10 Teaching: Pupil perspectives

4.2.2.10.1 Teach-Practise-Apply

The pupils were very positive about the focused ‘Basic Skills’ sessions, where they were taught specific grammatical features explicitly in short, focused, teacher-led sessions, practising the grammatical devices on their whiteboards alongside the teacher. For example:

Yes, basic skills, I really like because it helps me in the lesson I'm doing that is because it gives us a warm up. (PG1,2:1)

4.2.2.10.2 Explanations

The findings from the Pupil questionnaire showed that the pupils’ preferred choice of pedagogical approach was teacher explanation (See Table 4.2 in Appendix 14).

The video teacher was considered to have ‘explained it quite well’, although a number of pupils emphasised the importance of pupil interaction. Carl suggested that teacher explanations and demonstrations should not be ‘too long’. Ophelia suggested that the video teacher may ‘know her stuff’ but having an interesting tone was important too (PG1,2:1). Mandy suggested that the video pupils should be allowed to ‘come up with a better word’ for themselves, rather than it always being ‘the teacher’s ideas’.

The pupils valued the interactive element of their teachers’ explanations and incorporated some of the modelled strategies into their independent learning. For example, the Pupil interviews suggested that the

pupils used logical, analogous approaches (as modelled by their teachers' explanations) when faced with the need to recall or work out a grammatical term. For example,

If, say, we hadn't learned adverbs before, I'd get a verb and think 'Right, an adverb, you're probably adding something onto the verb to make it, like, explain more. And so I'd just like try and figure it out by putting it together (PG1,2:1).

4.2.2.10.3 Contextualised in writing

Both of the lessons observed related to planning writing as part of a five-day sequence of text analysis, oral rehearsal and planning, culminating in a timed, independent writing lesson on the sixth day. The pupils' overriding concern was often around trying to remember to "fit everything in". This was reflected in the pupil questionnaires, where 'a good writer' was perceived to have 'paid attention to their lessons' and had 'tried to include everything'. In the pupil interviews, some of the pupils stated that they disliked writing, sometimes quite vehemently e.g. 'And we hate, hate writing' (PG2,1:1). Although this may have been linked to the notion of displaying linguistic forms, much of the negativity around writing seemed to be about the imposed time limit and the physical strain of handwriting continuously for a set period of time. In the group interview, one pupil explained: 'Because you sit there, you sit there for forty minutes and you're just writing...' (PG2,1:1)

Ophelia suggested a lack of ownership as a result of the approach, and a fixed, right or wrong view of grammatical terminology:

Yes, because you can't just stick it in anywhere and then you're like 'Oh I've used a subordinate clause and the teacher will come and say it isn't in the right place and you'll be like 'Oh'...

That said, Ophelia preferred the teacher to give the learning objective and the success criteria at the start of the lesson, 'so you know what you need to include in your writing', suggesting that her preference for autonomy over control was not a straightforward one. Altogether, this had implications for writer agency as seen when Connor drew a distinction between his 'school writing' and 'writing a normal story at home' (PG1,2:1).

4.2.2.10.4 Resources

The pupils reported liking the working walls and the table top resources (e.g. character feeling wheels, spider diagrams for character descriptions and character adjectives sheets), all of which they used to help them build up a picture of their character for the reader as part of their writing. During the lesson observation, the pupils could be seen making regular use of these resources.

4.2.2.11 Learning: Teacher perspectives

4.2.2.11.1 Learning over time

The findings from the Teacher interviews suggested that the teachers felt that, eventually, declarative knowledge would become embedded over time until it became 'second nature and we'll be able to talk about things' (T2,1:1). There was also a feeling that if the pupils were to be tested, grammatical terminology needed

to be introduced much earlier i.e. 'much further down the school' (T1:1:1) as part of a whole school spiral curriculum.

4.2.2.11.2 Recall

The findings from the teacher interviews suggested that the issue of recall was identified as the most significant limiting factor. For example, Alison explained:

Yes, I mean I'm sure you've realised, they're struggling to remember the difference between a verb and a noun and these are Year 6 children. (T2,1:1)

Rachel's responses concurred: 'Adverb they forget and even verb they forget...conjunction, preposition...' (T1,1:1). Given this, she had been disappointed in the National Curriculum's (DfE 2013a) move from 'speech marks' to *inverted commas* and 'connectives' to *conjunctions*, thereby reducing potential semantic prompts to recall.

4.2.2.11.3 Creative, challenging approaches

Both teachers emphasised the need for creative approaches, linked to attention, motivation and, ultimately, recall. Rachel explained 'because if they're not interested, they're never going to retain it'. Similarly, Alison emphasised the importance of practical activities such as five-minute challenges and the use of the whiteboard for trying out ideas in a temporary, non-threatening way. She concluded:

I mean whatever method that is not important. It's how we can get the children to love language and to use it well, I think. (T2,1:1)

Alison's comment conveys a positive message about language learning but the phrase 'whatever method' hints at pedagogical uncertainty. This is echoed by Rachel when, reflecting on the National Curriculum, she concluded, 'something more to go on would be nice.'

Rachel talked of her dislike of grammar worksheets when they are used 'day-in day-out' and her preference instead for a 'repertoire of activities to keep them motivated...interested' and 'because it would bore me to tears if I'd not got something a little bit exciting to do with it [grammatical terminology]'. She stressed the importance of making it 'fun for them' through the use of games, little cards and five-minute tasks.

4.2.2.12 Learning: Pupil perspectives

4.2.2.12.1 Learning over time

As part of the learning process, the notion of 'hard' and 'easy' was a repeated theme (pupil interviews, pupil questionnaires). Some pupils were aware of their learning of grammatical terminology starting off "hard" but then becoming "easy". For example:

Lucy: I feel like more help is needed for me the first time but, after three or four times going over it, I start to get it. (PG1,1:1)

In a different group, Esme (a higher attaining writer) said that she preferred detailed, technical explanations as they helped her to remember, while Aaron (a lower attaining writer) thought you should be:

...allowed to like bring a notepad of your own, not like an electronic one, but like you can bring a little writing book and then while the teacher's talking you can take down notes and stuff... (PG2,1:1)

This was a very interesting idea and underlined the need for pupils to be allowed their different approaches. As Aaron's comments were as part of a discussion about teacher explanations, this also underlined the challenge for some pupils of processing and retaining the spoken word, particularly when related to abstract explanations of grammatical terminology.

The findings suggested that the pupils found some terms easier than others. However, rather than relating this explicitly to perceived differences in the qualities of the terms, this was linked with the notion of familiarity. For example, when prompted by the video teacher during the group interview, the pupils expressed surprise at the level at which the video pupils were working.

Carl 'Year 6?'
Mandy 'Year 4s could do this.'
Carl 'Even Year 2s'
(PG1,2:1)

And Ophelia nodded. Therefore, pupils often had a sense of "ease" about the word classes with which they were most familiar (i.e. 'noun', 'adjective', 'verb' and 'adverb'). Familiarity seemed to be equated with "knowing something" and thereby with understanding. This was reflected in other findings.

4.2.2.12.2 Recall

The findings from the pupil questionnaire suggested that recall of grammatical terminology was the most challenging aspect. Significantly, this seemed to be irrespective of writing ability. For example:

Aaron (lower attaining writer): *The hardest thing about learning grammar words is...* 'remembering them'

Mandy (middle attaining writer): 'It's hard. The hard bit is because there's so many of them and they're hard to remember them all'.

Esme (higher attaining writer): 'You get most of them confused...We remember it but sometimes we forget it, especially in tests'.
(PG2,1:1)

However, as the pupil questionnaire had demonstrated that a high percentage of pupils were able to recall and exemplify verbal definitions appropriately, this seemed to suggest that the difficulty was in application. That said, this may have still been underpinned by a lack of declarative knowledge (i.e. a lack of deeper conceptual understanding), preventing the pupils from generalising more confidently and competently in other contexts.

The findings suggested an issue of frequency and recency. Aaron's comment was reflected in the comments of others. He explained that he was able to understand the grammatical terminology at the point of teaching

and thereby remember it. However, after a period of time - and in spite of his initial understanding - he found he was unable to remember it: 'Because when I understand then I remember them, but then after a bit I don't remember them.' It was interesting that Aaron was able to distinguish between the two processes of *understanding* and *recall*. It seemed he was perceiving the main barrier to be that of recall and not that of understanding. While this may reflect a superficial notion of "understanding", it was nonetheless indicative of his perception of "remembering" as the more significant barrier.

4.2.2.12.3 Creative, challenging approaches

The practical activities and games of the second pupil interview often sparked other creative approaches, such as inventing games of their own and engaging in word play. The pupils buzzed with ideas for adapting existing resources, either those within their classrooms or those introduced in the group interviews (e.g. Ophelia suggested creating a language ball to throw around the room and catch – like their maths ball; Carl tried to adapt the YMCA song as a mnemonic for word classes; there was laughter during the adapted 'Secret Adverbs' game at the "silly" guesses of 'mousely' and 'warmingly'; Lucy tried to make a link to learning times tables and Kelly was thoughtful as she tried to plan a "Punctuation Tig" game that she had been working on since Pupil interview 1). This suggested that creativity was a highly motivational element in the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology. The importance of fun was paramount. This was closely associated with playing games (e.g. board games, cards games, verbal challenges and puzzles). The most excitement and enthusiasm at any time during the pupil interviews was when the pupils were invited to play a game or do an activity they perceived to be fun (e.g. singing, actions, rhymes, mime). Faizal (sometimes slightly reticent to get involved) smiled broadly as he declared: 'It makes it good because it's a fun game and you're using your brain!'

4.3 Case 2

The data gathering schedule can be found in Appendix 2.

4.3.1 Case description

4.3.1.1 School

Case 2 was a larger than average-sized primary school in an urban area in the North of England. English lessons were taught daily. 'Key Skills' sessions had been introduced several years ago in response to an unexpected dip in the national test scores for writing and following whole school development work. There was no one set scheme for grammar teaching; however, high quality texts and a genre-based approach - part of the legacy of the NLS - were in evidence. Yet, increasingly, there was a move away from this towards an approach positioning grammar as the 'new driver' (T1,2:1).

4.3.1.2 Teachers

There were two teachers in Case 2: *Kerry* (Year 5) (T1) and *Alex* (Year 5) (T2) (see Appendix 3: Data source codes). Both teachers had many years of teaching experience. They worked closely together, planning their lessons collaboratively and sharing resources. There seemed to be a good degree of consistency between them about the purpose and practice of writing, grammar and grammatical terminology. For example, both teachers believed that writing should be taught as a set of 'key skills', in order to equip the pupils with the 'tools for writing'.

4.3.1.3 Pupils

There were 28 Year 5 pupils in Kerry's class (Class 1) and 31 pupils in Alex's class (Class 2). According to the pupil questionnaire findings, the pupils were significantly more confident in their abilities as readers (83% of pupils selected 'very good' or 'good' reader) than as writers (40% of pupils selected 'very good' or 'good' writer). In comparison, pupils seemed less positive about their ability to use grammatical terminology (25% of pupils selected 'very good' and 'good') than as writers. The adjectives most frequently selected to describe how the pupils felt when learning grammatical terminology reflected a range of responses with the four most popular being: 'OK', 'interesting', 'boring' and 'confusing'. Within their open-ended responses, attitudes became more negative with comments relating to "confusing" becoming more prominent.

4.3.2 Case presentation

4.3.2.1 Declarative knowledge: Teacher perspectives

4.3.2.1.1 Definitions

The findings from the lesson observation (see Appendix 4) and teacher interviews (see Appendix 5) suggested that grammatical terminology was framed by traditional semantic verbal definitions. For example, during a 'Key Skills' session at the beginning of an English lesson, a *noun* was defined as 'an object, a name or a person' and a *verb* was presented as a 'doing word'. This terminology was practised through quick-fire, whole class question-and-answer routines and demonstrated by the pupils on individual whiteboards. For example:

Alex: What's an adjective, [pupil's name]?
Pupil 1: It's a describing word.
Alex: And what does it describe?
Pupil 1: A noun.
(LO2,2:1)

While the teachers were already teaching many of the grammatical terms listed in the new National Curriculum (DfE 2013a), some terminology was being re-named (e.g. from 'drop in clause' to *relative clause*) and some 'that they haven't come across before' was being introduced for the first time (T1,2:1). Kerry described the amount of grammatical terminology currently being taught as increasing 'at a rate of knots' (T1,2:1).

4.3.2.1.2 Nature of grammatical terminology

The teachers felt that some pupils' knowledge of word classes was 'quite poor' but, within the teacher interviews, they talked about the complexity inherent within this and implied that the pupils had made good progress conceptually e.g. by beginning to understand that 'a word can have a different meaning and a different purpose in different sentences...they can change their function' (T1,2:1).

In Kerry's lesson, 'drop in clause' was being changed to *relative clause*. Despite assurances that the grammatical concept had not changed, this transition did not seem to be a straightforward one for the pupils. Consequently, repeated reassurance was needed throughout the lesson:

And this has a new name. This is our drop in clause and its new name is a relative clause and it always starts with a relative pronoun... There's a little bit of panic in your eyes... We've been doing drop in clauses since the beginning of Year 5 and now we're going to call them relative clauses – it's all relative to the sentence. Don't have a panic. Have a little try. (T1,2:1)

As the underlying grammatical concept was presented as unchanging (at this point in teaching at least), this suggested that the pupils' difficulties were related to the change in terminology. Consequently, it seemed that was more than just a case of exchanging one arbitrary label for another; that 'drop-in clause' was more than just a phonological or orthographical word for these pupils. Perhaps this was because of the semantic value of 'drop in clause' (i.e. suggestive of "dropping something in") or because 'drop in clause' was already imbued with conceptual properties as a result of repeated teaching and practice over time. Whatever the reason, the

pupils seemed to need more support in transitioning from this established grammatical term, which already existed in their minds, to an alternative which did not. This suggested that meaning was incorporated within the word and not just closely associated with it.

4.3.2.1.3 Pupil differences

In the Teacher interview, Kerry did not make any distinction between her lower attaining or higher attaining writers. She felt the range of attainment in her class was not 'too wide' and that they responded, 'quite well at the same kind of level', especially with precise instruction (T1,2:1). That said, differentiation was provided by the personalised grammar targets that the pupils used regularly, highlighting achievement as part of writing reviews.

Alex felt there *were* differences between the lower and higher attaining writers in her class, but this was on the basis of the grammatical terminology alone. She felt that even the lower attaining writers were able to say: 'I want to start a sentence with 'because' or 'I want to start it with 'if''. Therefore, even though they were often unable to recall the grammatical terminology, they were able 'to understand the concept of it'. She continued:

I think in terms of using the terminology that comes and goes. The more able will remember it's a subordinator and that's the main clause. I think the less able children forget that terminology and I suppose for me what's more important is that they've got the skill of writing the sentence. (T2,2:1)

4.3.2.2 Declarative knowledge: Pupil perspectives

4.3.2.2.1 Definitions

The findings from the pupil questionnaires (see Appendix 6) suggested that a high percentage of pupils were able to recognise and recall grammatical terminology as a verbal definition of meaning (see Table 4.3 in Appendix 14). Within the same class, the pupils' written verbal definitions were often identical. Many pupils were able to give examples of word classes, although responses were generally less appropriate for 'examples' than for 'definitions', suggesting (as for Case 1) that there was an additional challenge involved in application of definitional meaning.

4.3.2.2.2 Nature of grammatical terminology

Of all four terms, *noun* was the most competently and consistently defined or exemplified overall (95% of pupils were able to give an example) (see Appendix 14, Table 4.3). *Adjectives* was also consistently strong and, in the pupil interviews (see Appendix 7 and 8), there was a perception of *adjective* being the "easiest" of all grammatical terms. *Subordinate clause* was the least competently defined or exemplified (15% of pupils). This was in spite of 79% of pupils indicating that it was a term they understood in the pupil questionnaire.

Again (as for Case 1), this suggested a difference between perceiving and knowing declarative knowledge. This was also evident in the pupil interviews. For example, *subordinate clauses* were rated as 'easy' by Sabbir and Oscar. However, in the questionnaire, both boys were unable to provide an adequate verbal definition or example. Sabbir wrote: 'I know it, but I can't explain it'; Oscar's definition was incomplete ('a clause') and his

example was inaccurate ('he gazed around the messy room'). Thus, the findings suggested that pupils had more of a "sense" of knowing *subordinate clause* than they did an ability to verbalise its meaning.

Some pupils had a perception of grammatical terminology being harder than technical words in other subject areas. For example:

Me: Are grammar words harder?
Cassie: Yes
Craig: Yes
Cassie: Because there's more stuff.
Evie: Yes, there's complicated rules.
(PG1,2:1)

Zoe explained something of her confusion:

Well there's loads of different ones, for example, an adjective and then like a verb and an adverb, because they both start with the same thing and you get a bit confused. (PG1,2:2)

4.3.2.2.3 Pupil differences

The findings suggested cognitive and affective differences in pupils' declarative knowledge. For example, the pupil questionnaires showed that some pupils were able to define and exemplify all four grammatical terms, whereas others got word classes muddled up. A number of pupils left questions blank and others added a comment to say, 'I can't really explain it, but I do know'. A few pupils hinted at the superficiality of their own declarative knowledge by writing, 'I don't always understand but I can normally do it' (Pupil 21). In terms of self-perception differences, many pupils considered themselves to have weak declarative knowledge (e.g. Pupil 28: 'I have tried a lot, but it does not help'). Others were more positive (e.g. Pupil 22: 'I like learning new things').

Pupil 22 (aka Amanda), also participated in the pupil interviews where she seemed competent, confident and positive about grammatical terminology. Her misconception during her explanation of subordinate clause (she confused *subordinate clause* with *subordinating conjunction*) still demonstrated her high-level thinking. However, her selection of 'clever', 'excited', 'happy' and 'interested' adjectives (to describe her feelings in relation to grammatical terminology) seemed to pale into insignificance with the extra-large, emboldened tick she drew next to 'tricky' (pupil questionnaire). This reiterated the complexity of learning grammatical terminology and suggested that higher attaining pupils may also be confused – albeit confused differently.

The findings suggested that the pupils were capable of different levels of metacognitive thinking about grammatical terminology. For example, during the pupil interview and following the lesson observation (see 4.3.2.1.2), five out of the six pupils shot up their hands to show they preferred the term, 'drop in clause' over *relative clause*. Craig explained that, although he hadn't found 'drop in clause' easy to understand in Year 4, it had become easier over time. Conversely, he queried,

Well I don't really know what it means, relative. I don't know how it's got anything to do with the drop in clause... it's like hard to remember. (PG1,2:2)

Oscar agreed, 'because relative to me is just someone you're related to.' Evie was pragmatic, concluding:

I'm used to knowing drop in clause because we've known that for quite a while now and relative clause is quite new, but in a while I think we'll get to know it more. (PG:1,2:2)

Zoe explained that she had been unsure in the actual lesson. She had consciously tested this out by applying the same principles that she would have applied to the drop in clause. On checking with the teacher, she had found she had 'got it right'. As a result, Zoe seemed pleased at being able to confirm that *relative clause* was indeed 'similar'. Perhaps as a result of this discussion, Craig had begun to test out the new terminology in a different way and he tentatively suggested there *might* be a difference after all. Craig's idea was an abstract notion, suggesting that relative clauses might be restricted or defined by the need for a relative pronoun such as 'who' or 'which' and, therefore, relative clauses might be a subset of drop in clauses.

Because I think the difference between it [relative clause] is... it has... the relative clauses, they have relative pronouns in them like who, which... or I think they only start with like one word, like a name or something...whereas drop-in clauses maybe they have more than one word at the start and I don't think they have 'who was' or 'which was'. (PG1,2:2)

In order to ensure I had understood his point, I responded with, 'Oh, I think I see what you mean. So a drop in clause could be any kind of clause, not just a relative clause?' Craig nodded. If a "drop in clause" was taken to mean *embedded clause*, Craig was right. This demonstrated his ability to generalise grammatical terminology conceptually. It also demonstrated the power of exploratory pupil talk around abstracted ideas such as this. Craig's opening comment in this discussion had been: 'Well I don't really know what it means...' but he had ended with the articulation of something much more sophisticated.

4.3.2.3 Procedural knowledge: Teacher perspectives

4.3.2.3.1 Application

The findings suggested that language was viewed as a skill, based on the principles of over-learning through practising and repeating so that the pupils could 'write well, independently and confidently' (T2,2:1). Whole school practice was underpinned by the principles of 'teaching the children how to write' (T2,2:1) and 'giving the children these tools' (T1,2:1).

Within this, grammatical terminology was taught in embedded ways. For example, the teachers explained that they often taught the concept first before returning to it to introduce the terminology, be this of a semantically orientated nature (e.g. 'drop in clauses' and 'if-sentences') or something more linguistically technical. For example, Alex explained that:

...and then when we come back to it... the second time, then we'll say, 'Right, that 'if' is called a subordinator. There are other subordinators, let's learn how to write sentences that begin with *because* and *although* and *despite*.' (T2,2:1)

This suggested that language patterns were prioritised and used as a "way in", growing explicit grammatical terminology out of implicit language use. Nevertheless, the issue of application of grammatical terminology remained problematic and Kerry explained that, although the pupils may know what a 'drop in clause' is, they have 'not really understood how that relates to the rest of the sentence' (T1,2:1).

When Kerry incorporated a Key Skills approach into her lesson on the class novel, her intention seemed to be to merge together declarative and procedural approaches. For example, she told her class:

Where you see a noun you are going to underline or colour it blue, and where you see a pronoun you are going to underline or colour it purple. If you've finished that use yellow for adjectives and red for verbs. Look on the working wall... (T1,2:1)

Although this Key Skills-type activity added an additional layer of complexity, in principle it seemed to be a logical way of trying to help pupils to convert their explicit declarative knowledge into something more automatically applied; into a more proceduralised skill. Furthermore, the use of a motivational class novel provided a known frame of reference. Thus, this seemed to reflect both inductive and deductive approaches to grammatical terminology. It can be argued that the two are not necessarily mutually exclusive and, in fact, there may be benefits to a combined approach.

However, this example demonstrated a lack of consideration of meaning and effect, though it can be counter-argued that this would have required the pupils to make a two-stage response, thereby increasing the cognitive load. It was possible that a consideration of meaning and effect was planned as a follow-up activity or that this was intended purely as an identification exercise linked to practising for the SPaG test (see 4.3.2.7.1).

4.3.2.3.2 Modelling

The explicit modelling of grammatical terminology was evident throughout both lessons, and notably in the verbal and written feedback given to individual pupils. This can be seen in Kerry's comment:

You are doing absolutely brilliantly at writing relative clauses to give more information about a noun. Remember, we are finding evidence from the book and then we are explaining it. (LO1,2:1)

As well as reformulating and reinforcing the focus terms, this modelled a communicative dimension – inherently difficult for grammatical terminology. This can be linked to Alex's thoughts about "morning work", which seemed to work well for decontextualised maths puzzles about the four operations, but Alex felt that a grammar equivalent didn't have the same level of motivation. Alex wasn't entirely sure why the activity did not transfer so easily to grammatical terminology practice:

...with no context, they actually wouldn't see the point to it. But I could put up four division calculations for them to do on the board and immediately in their head there's a point to it because they need that in their maths. So it's, I suppose, it's tipping the balance more to making them see that just as in maths you learn those four operations, in literacy there are skills that you just need to learn and then practise and practise and practise. (T2,2:1)

4.3.2.3.3 Punctuation

Like Case 1, Case 2 had a similar physical approach to punctuation, which emphasised demarcation in very multi-sensory, practical and enjoyable ways. In addition, the teachers made connections between the grammatical features and their associated punctuation. For example, Alex explained the role of the comma in complex sentences and Kerry discussed the use of the apostrophe for possession.

4.3.2.4 Procedural knowledge: Pupil perspectives

4.3.2.4.1 Application

According to the findings in the pupil questionnaire, almost all pupils (92%) felt that grammatical terminology was helpful to their writing (above *reading*, *talking/discussing* and *thinking*). While, again, most responses reflected a general sense of “improving my writing”, this was given greater specificity by some pupils and linked to attaining higher levels of achievement, being more descriptive, writing with greater complexity, making more sense in writing. As was discussed in Case 1, this alignment with writing may have reflected the assumptions and expectations related to classroom experience.

The findings suggested evidence of intuitive procedural knowledge. For example, Sabbir realised that the noun phrases (which he had initially assumed to be sentences) were incomplete. He murmured tentatively, ‘It doesn’t make sense really...’ though he was unable to verbalise why. Other pupils seemed to have a conscious awareness of having been able to do something implicitly before knowing it explicitly. For example, Evie explained: ‘Yes, I’ve written them loads of times, drop in clauses, and I didn’t know I did it’. Similarly, Craig was aware of using drop in clauses ‘without even knowing I’m doing it’ (PW1,2:1). This consciousness-raising process was potentially beneficial to developing automaticity at a later stage - that is assuming that explicit knowledge of grammatical terminology is available as an automatic skill.

The findings suggested that application of explicit grammatical terminology was incredibly hard. The pupils seemed far less confident about reflecting on their classroom experiences or discussing their writing or activities when they were expected to use grammatical terms. This sometimes revealed misconceptions and misunderstandings. For example, Oscar, previously very accurate in his spoken or written definitions, checked whether a verb was a ‘doing word’ when reviewing his writing (PW1,2:1) and Cassie confused adjective with verb, in spite of being adamant that adjectives were ‘easy’, having learned them in Year 3. This also suggested some element of diminished attentional capacity (of declarative knowledge) at the point of application.

4.3.2.4.2 Modelling

A number of pupils spoke about their preference for being able to talk to others about grammatical terminology, which they felt made grammatical terminology “easier” to learn. For example, Zoe said, ‘It was easier when we worked together’ (PG2,2:2). The findings suggested that the pupils’ declarative knowledge was stronger collectively than it was individually and that the pupils were able to build cumulatively upon each other’s contributions. This was seen during the interviews when the pupils were able to pull together fragments of what they each could remember, thereby co-constructing the conceptual properties of *subordinate clause*. For example:

Georgia: Like a...

Liam: Subordinators...

Amanda: The first word’s got to be a subordinator...and where you put the commas...

Liam: ...and how it all makes sense.
Amanda: And like what the two clauses are.
Andrew: ...the main clause.
James....and the subordinate clause.

Given the other questionnaire findings (Question 11: subject knowledge table of definitions and examples), it was likely that this enabled them to go beyond what they would have been able to do individually.

4.3.2.4.3 Punctuation

The findings reflected similar issues to those in Case 1 and so will not be repeated here. For example, Evie (previously quietly spoken and reserved) suddenly became very animated with a very enthusiastic physical punctuation demonstration.

4.3.2.5 Purpose: Teacher perspectives

4.3.2.5.1 Writing proficiency and future prospects

Within this context, the purpose of grammatical terminology was less clearly defined. Kerry described the new grammar curriculum and the SPaG test as 'upping the ante' and recounted having made a swift response to ensure grammar became the driver, 'the main thing' across the whole school. There seemed a genuine attempt to embed grammar in a meaningful way, through reading, writing, speaking and listening. This reflected Kerry's philosophy and her own self-study which advocated that an integrated contextualised approach 'worked' rather than something decontextualized which the pupils are then more likely to forget (T1,2:1).

4.3.2.6 Purpose: Pupil perspectives

4.3.2.6.1 Writing proficiency and future prospects

The findings from the pupil interviews suggested that the link to texts was significant for the pupils. When the pupils are asked what sorts of things the video teacher might be teaching about (from the learning objective about complex sentences), the pupils jumped almost immediately away from complex sentences and into the text types they had come to associate with them. For example, Oscar made an instant link to writing purpose ('making the writing interesting') and Craig connected quickly with writing form ('Like diary entries...we do lots of diaries entries'). The pupils chatted much more freely about the class novel than about complex sentences but eventually Zoe pulled it back to say they were 'learning all these like new things so they become part of our writing' (PG1,2:1). This suggested that some pupils genuinely understood the purpose of grammar and grammatical terminology to be linked to writing.

4.3.2.7 Value: Teacher perspectives

4.3.2.7.1 Conflicts

Both teachers were positive about the enhanced grammar content within the revised National Curriculum (DfE 2013a) and the introduction of the SPaG test (DfE 2013b). This perhaps reflected an alignment with the school's existing approach to teaching and learning Key Skills. Kerry recounted the school's journey, which had started a few years earlier with the extensive analysis of some disappointing writing results against the SATs marking scheme. The Key Skills curriculum was one of the outcomes of the whole school development work and perhaps perceived as a validation of the school's approach to teaching writing in a direct and systematic way.

However, there were a number of conflicts evident. For example, although Alex was positive about the new grammar curriculum and assessment, she was less certain about the value of teaching the terminology. She explained:

I don't feel it's the terminology that's beneficial, I think it's a bit like I was saying with complex sentences, I think for them to be able to do it and understand it and have it as part of their writing and for it to be a natural part of their writing, I think that's beneficial. I don't think it's necessarily beneficial for them to know that that's a subordinator and that's your subordinate clause and that's the main clause.

She felt that if the SPaG test disappeared tomorrow she would continue to teach grammatical terminology as she felt as a school they had 'found a way forward'. However, there was:

lots of grammatical terminology that I wouldn't teach in Year 5. There are things that I just don't feel adds to their writing or their reading. (T2,2:1)

Kerry's comments concurred:

I think there is some of the vocabulary from the SPaG, some of the content, which does just feel a bit irrelevant... They learn it inherently and they don't need to know the vocabulary for it necessarily. (T1,2:1)

Both teachers revealed areas where the grammatical terminology seemed to be at odds with their beliefs. For example, although Kerry had been swift to respond to the curriculum and assessment changes, she was still aware of the need for 'quick fixes'. She struggled with the notion of doing this in isolation, of teaching in decontextualised ways, which seemed to go against what she had read and researched about effective pedagogy. For Kerry, the teaching of grammatical terminology needed to be done in the context of writing 'so that they know how to use it', and in the context of other subjects 'such as RE'. But she seemed conflicted, recognising at the same time the need to support pupil recall:

I think I do struggle with how important it is for them to understand the terminology in terms of them as writers. I think the SPaG test has put a whole different light on it because they know now, and I will say to them, 'You do need to know what these words mean. You do need to understand what these words are. You need to be able to say what a verb is, what a noun is, because you may well be asked that or there may be a question that says, 'Underline the determiner.' And if you don't know that word means you can't do the question.

4.3.2.8 Value: Pupil perspectives

4.3.2.8.1 Conflicts

According to the pupil questionnaires, grammatical terminology was perceived by the pupils as having a high level of importance and usefulness (68% of pupils selected *Extremely important*, *Very important* or *Important*; 71% of pupils selected *Extremely useful*, *Very useful* or *Useful*), even though they did not find it particularly interesting (only 35% of pupils selected *Extremely interesting*, *Very interesting* or *Interesting*). However, in the pupil interview, the perception of the value of grammatical terminology was presented less favourably, with greater emphasis being placed on the importance of meaning and impact. As Zoe explained: 'It doesn't matter about the name, it matters about how good it is and how good we write it' (PG2:2,2). At other times, the pupils expressed a frustration around the issue of challenge and the importance of wanting to feel 'you've learned something', otherwise 'there's really no point in us learning it' (PG2:2:1). This potentially reflected the element of repetition and practice which, although perceived positively in terms of achieving longer term recall, could have been at the source of this issue on a day-to-day basis.

4.3.2.9 Teaching: Teacher perspectives

4.3.2.9.1 Teach-Practise-Apply

During the Key Skills sessions, there was an emphasis on the value of repetition as a way of embedding both grammar skills and terminology. Like Case 1, it was as a daily quick-fire, whole class question-and-answer routine, practised by the pupils on individual whiteboards.

Nevertheless, Alex's comments as she circulated the room made it clear that some of her pupils had difficulty coming up with appropriate examples. Alex supported those who were unsure by sharing ideas. 'Fat', 'skinny', 'kind', 'tall' and 'pink' were read aloud as examples of adjectives. The pupils were then asked to write sentences, which included an adjective, a noun, a verb and an adverb, and some sentences were read aloud. For example:

Pupil 1: The shiny cat ran quickly.
Pupil 2: The blue dog slowly walked to the park.
Pupil 3: Arminah sat down slowly on a smelly chair.
(LO2:2:1)

As the focus was on grammatical terminology, the pupils were praised for their linguistic accuracy. However, this meant that there was very little discussion of meaning and effect, even though the vocabulary choices seemed very pedestrian. In fact, it wasn't until a pupil read aloud: 'That sneaky, fat cat can't jump' that the vacuousness of the previous sentences became evident. The pupils seemed to have defaulted to simplistic, archetypal word class examples (e.g. 'shiny' and 'quickly') and traditional sentence structures (subject and predicate). It seemed that a linguistic lens had taken precedence over a semantic one. This suggested a disconnect between the language of linguistic exercise and "real language". Alternatively, it may have been that, in the moment of requiring swift recall of declarative knowledge, the pupils' attentional capacity had been taken up by the emphasis on form-related accuracy.

4.3.2.9.2 Explanations

The findings suggested that grammatical terminology was framed quite differently in the main part of this lesson (i.e. in contrast to the more succinct, quick-fire question-and-answer of the Key Skills session). Although neither teacher reported using any word learning strategies as such to teach grammatical terminology, the lesson observations suggested that new words were explained in terms of their syntactic relations to other words (e.g. Kerry's explanations connected *nouns* with lexical relations of *expanded noun phrases*, *pronouns* and *relative pronouns*). As a result, teacher explanations of new terminology were sometimes dense with other grammatical terms in order to try to explain and unpack meaning. This was seen in Kerry's explanation of *possessive pronouns*:

Do you remember apostrophes a couple of weeks ago? Two words put together – a contraction – it's like that. Possessive pronouns tell you it belongs but it doesn't need an apostrophe...and remember pronouns go instead of nouns... (T1,2:1)

As part of her explanation, Kerry went on to recap the 'rules' for personal and possessive pronouns. However, these were not really "rules" as such. Rather, they represented definitional properties that the pupils were encouraged to apply, in order to "test" out a concept (i.e. whether a word was a *possessive pronoun* or a *personal pronoun*). This seemed useful and meant that the pupils were not reliant upon a single verbal definition.

4.3.2.9.3 Contextualised in writing

The findings suggested that the teachers contextualised grammatical terminology through using the class novel to facilitate the application of the declarative knowledge taught previously. For example, in Kerry's lesson the pupils were asked to recap personal and possessive pronouns by 'scanning their eyes over the page' of the novel and making two lists of the ones they found. However, this activity turned out to be deceptively challenging. For example, several pupils queried why the character's name had an apostrophe for possession (*Bradley's*) when one of the "tests" of personal or possessive pronouns was no apostrophe. Kerry explained that this was because 'Bradley' was a noun (and not a pronoun). However, the pupils were still confused, realising that 'Bradley' would be replaced by 'he' (personal pronoun) and that 'Bradley's' would be replaced by 'his' (possessive pronoun). According to the "rules", neither personal nor possessive pronoun were supposed to have an apostrophe – and here was a potential apostrophe! This then challenged an experienced and confident teacher who had to work out on the spot how to explain it to Year 5. This served as a reminder of the high level of teacher expertise needed when faced with challenging linguistic questions. Thus, the findings suggested that the application of grammatical terminology was sometimes marred by the difficulty inherent in "real language". Again, it could be inferred that this reduced the pupils' attentional capacity for any consideration of meaning and effect. Furthermore, "scanning the page" potentially reduced the activity to something more decontextualised than intended, given that the pupils could potentially complete it without comprehending the text at all.

The findings suggested that grammatical terminology was contextualised most often within the teaching of writing. As a result of the commitment to the teaching of Key Skills, the teachers adopted a skills-based, formulaic approach. Kerry felt that pupils appreciated knowing 'the next thing you need to put into your

writing.’ Both teachers felt that the progress of the pupils as writers that year was related to the use of whole school targets, which provided ‘really careful guidance and stepping stones to help them to achieve’ (T1,2:1).

Both observed lessons were planning lessons, aimed at ‘putting their learning into practice; trying to bring all the writing skills in’ (T2,2:1). For example, in Alex’s lesson, the pupils recapped the structure of three topic sentences, including the opening paragraph, elaboration of each topic sentence and then a fifth paragraph to conclude. Occasionally, this approach considered the meaning and effect of grammatical features though this was not a prominent feature of this lesson.

4.3.2.9.4 Resources

The findings suggested that the grammar “working wall”, consistent throughout school, was considered the most useful resource by both teachers. It had been the first visible indication of a response to the new National Curriculum (DfE 2013a) and SPaG test (DfE 2013b). It had been introduced into classrooms during the intervening summer holiday, Kerry explained that the intention had been to ensure ‘we have the word classes present in all classrooms’ (T1,2:1). The colour-coding within the word classes displayed on the working wall was also a consistent approach, providing a year-on-year mnemonic strategy for pupils.

The working wall served as an aide memoire in general. It was where the findings from their book-based investigations were recorded. Kerry seemed cognisant of the need for this:

I talk to my children about that being like their memory bank, if they can’t hold it all in here we’ll put in on the working wall and then they can check it and they can visualise it later. (T1,2:1)

Nonetheless, Alex was aware that the pupils were still struggling to remember:

I still feel that they’re not embedded, even now having gone over them, what’s a verb, what’s a noun, what’s an adjective...(T2,2:1)

4.3.2.10 Teaching: Pupils’ perspectives

4.3.2.10.1 Teach-Practise-Apply

The findings suggested that the pupils valued a “little and often” teaching approach and, for this reason, the ‘Key Skills’ exercises at the beginning of an English lesson were seen as a positive strategy for helping them to remember. For example:

Amanda: Because we’re about to do like a literacy lesson straight after and that, it’s just to wake us up and do a recap, so before the literacy lesson we just remember everything. (PG2,2:1)

This led the pupils to reflect on the usefulness of examples: ‘so we know how to start it off and stuff’ (PG2,2,1) and that the pupils perceived isolated learning to have an important and necessary place in learning grammatical terminology.

A key theme to emerge throughout a range of findings was the notion of repetition, with most pupils perceiving this as a valuable strategy, particularly linked to recall. For example, Sabbir presented this in a positive light:

'We're practically experts at writing diary entries...Because we keep doing it. We keep repeating the lesson'. (PG1,3:1)

However, a later elaboration suggested an inconsistency:

Well I think it's better to learn new things than just keep going over the same, but I think it's because, the reason why our teachers do that sometimes is so we remember them and we still know that we understand them. (PG1,3:2)

So while the pupils reported wanting to 'come back to it after a day or two' (Zoe), they also identified a preference for 'new learning'. A further contradiction seemed evident in the notion of repetition over time which, interestingly, was perceived as a positive strategy that helped them to remember.

4.3.2.10.2 Explanations

The findings from the pupil questionnaire showed that the pupils' preferred pedagogical choice was teacher explanation (See Table 4.4 in Appendix 14).

This was in line with the findings from the pupil writing conference (see Appendix 9) which suggested that pupils valued their teacher's explanations. For example, Zoe and Evie felt that they would benefit from another explanation about personal and possessive pronouns:

Zoe: Not just do the activity again, I want [teacher] to explain it again and then we do the activity again and I'll probably understand it then.

Evie: Before we did it, explain it.
(PW1,2:1)

However, other pupils such as Oscar distinguished between this and being talked at by the teacher: 'Don't just stand at the board...let the kids interact.' Similarly, in an activity of ordering still images of the video teacher's different pedagogic approaches, explaining/demonstrating "at the board" was rated 'probably the worst because we're not doing anything' (PG1,2:1). This suggested that the pupils valued succinct teacher explanations in which they were involved, rather than lengthier and more didactic teacher exposition.

4.3.2.10.3 Contextualised in writing

The findings suggested that pupils thoroughly enjoyed the text-based approach to their English teaching. However, when it came to grammar itself being contextualised within the text, this was sometimes problematic. It was particularly noticeable within Kerry's lesson which incorporated a variety of approaches to grammar teaching, aimed at maintaining pupil interest and engagement. However, during the pupil interview, the pupils described the lesson as enjoyable but 'quite hard though' (Oscar). Craig's explanation suggested he may have confused different parts of the lesson, mixing up the sorting activity of possessive and personal pronouns with the activity on writing a predictive paragraph containing a relative clause:

Well I didn't really get the possessive pronouns and the relative pronouns because well, 'her' and then 'my'...I think they're in different columns and I just didn't get it.

This sorting activity was identified as the trickiest part of the lesson. The pupils suggested potential changes such as already being given the words 'and then you can decide which column to put them in' (Craig) or 'focusing on one word and seeing which that one is' (Evie) and 'we do it as like a group' (Zoe). The most popular ideas were related to repetition by 'probably doing it again in a month's time' and teaching as 'a separate activity'. Oscar explained:

Because you can concentrate on it more... I find it quite hard because we had to, like, look and get evidence from the book and do all the relatives and drop in clauses and stuff like that.

Again, there was lots of agreement for doing 'the same thing so we just get used to it'. When Oscar explained that he liked 'to have *one* thing to do' he stressed the word 'one' and pointed in the air with his index finger. The other pupils agreed. It seemed that contextualising the lesson within the class novel as one activity in a sequence of several activities had been too much for some pupils. Given the very abstract and complex nature of grammatical terminology, this was potentially too much for some pupils to process in a single task or a single lesson.

4.3.2.10.4 Resources

Of all the resources mentioned (books, games, target sheets – and lots of practising), the findings suggested that the working wall was the most well-used, particularly to aid recall. There were some issues nonetheless. Liam said 'we've got the words but it doesn't explain what it is'. He suggested that there could be a little explanation 'that explains everything' just underneath the working wall. For Zoe, the working wall was too small and you're like, 'oh, it's really hard'. James said that it didn't help him much because it was changed too often, explaining: 'if there's a topic which we've done and it isn't on there or something' (PG2,2:1). Linked to this, Hatty suggested that she would like a personal record book of 'what we do'. Georgia agreed: 'something like working books so in a morning we could write it down so every time we forget it we can go and get our book' (PG2,2:1). Amanda developed this idea into 'a box that explains all of it, like a box that's got like, on paper, it's got like explaining it all'. There was a lot of discussion around other possible resources, all of which were linked to recall. In a similar discussion in another Pupil interview, Craig summed it up nicely when he said: 'You need to be resourceful or you'd just give up' (PG1,2:1).

4.3.2.11 Learning: Teacher perspectives

4.3.2.11.1 Learning over time

Both teachers fully supported the notion of a whole school approach for teaching grammatical terminology. Alex explained, 'It can't just be, 'We do a bit in Year 5 and they do a bit in Year 6' (T2,2:1). Kerry recognised that, in spite of the need for 'quick fix' methods, whole school development was underway to embed the terminology consistently through school and in cross-curricular ways (T1,2:1).

4.3.2.11.2 Recall

During the Teacher interviews, the teachers identified recall as the pupils' biggest challenge. Kerry's response was quite emphatic when asked, 'Do you think that [recall] is the key thing for them?' replying, 'Yes, yes I do!'

(T1,2:1). She perceived there to be a need to support pupil recall and had wondered about creating personalised versions of the working wall or enhanced versions of their target sheets or notebooks where they could record their own findings. But she explained she had dismissed this, positing it as a 'dangerous route' to go down, being tantamount to 'providing revision aids'. She continued:

...and it looks like we're just trying to cram their heads full ready of the SPaG test in Year 6...and that isn't always necessarily remembering it is it? That's just recording it. (T1,2:1)

She reflected too on the idea of playing around with other strategies, such as a 'silly rhyme or rap'. But, in the end, given the vast amount of terminology to remember, she concluded, 'I think the only way they're going to remember it is if they use it again later and frequently' (T1,2:1). She emphasised the importance of using it in a way that 'makes sense' rather than:

...you've got to remember this word. Otherwise, the pupils will just think it's 'a bit of a nonsense. (T1,2:1)

Alex also emphasised the importance of practice through discrete lessons:

It's something we're coming back to over and over again...lots of practice. There'll be lots of work on whiteboards, or lots of work of matching two parts of the sentences, matching clauses just with the sentences on paper... I suppose a lot, just going over and over it throughout the year to embed it completely as a skill. (T2,2:1)

4.3.2.11.3 Creative, challenging approaches

The findings suggested that the teachers were keen to keep the pupils involved, perceiving the teaching of grammatical terminology to be something otherwise 'quite dry' (T2,2:1). A lack of attention and engagement were seen as significant potential issues. Consequently, the teachers talked about the need for 'straightforward instructions' but with 'lots of changes' to keep the pupils motivated (T1,2:1). Alex advocated a combination of approaches in order for the pupils to know whether they really understood something:

So yes, they will do a worksheet on it, they might play a game, they'll use it in their writing. Yes I might come back and test them on it, get them to say it, write it on whiteboards. (T2,2:1).

As part of her lesson, Kerry anticipated that the pupils 'wouldn't take any of it in' by the time she 'got to relative pronouns and relative clauses' and so had been pleased by their continued engagement, even though the main activities (e.g. identifying personal and possessive pronouns in a text) had been more challenging than she had expected. This suggested something of a hard/easy dichotomy. Some aspects of grammar teaching were presented simply through straightforward model examples and patterns (e.g. Key Skills). The pupils seemed, as Alex had described, 'accepting of this', perhaps understanding the need for repetition to support recall given the purpose of this kind of learning. However, their creative and collaborative energy was far greater when they had to work something out, even when those investigations were not so straightforward. It seemed that "trying to work it out" was preferable, despite the challenges that authentic language use would bring (e.g. class novel). Inevitably, this presented problems related to applying definitions and following rules. That said, it seemed that the pupils were not unhappy about the level of challenge. Their main issue seemed to be of having too many things to do at once.

The findings suggested that the notion of 'fun' was significant for the teachers. Both teachers mentioned 'grammar games' and these were presented as 'nice reinforcers, not for teaching' (T1,2:1). That said, the

school was in the process of purchasing a range of other resources to support independent activities (such as “morning work”), suggesting a lack of resources in school (and maybe on the market) at the time of data gathering (T2,2:1).

4.3.2.12 Learning: Pupils’ perspectives

4.3.2.12.1 Learning over time

Findings from the pupil questionnaires suggested that the pupils seemed cognisant of their own learning approaches and were able to articulate their own journeys in learning a grammatical term as being one from “hard” to “easy” over time and through regular, repeated practice. For example:

Sabbir: Like I used to think a verb was really hard

Craig: Yes the first one was quite hard to learn but when you’ve learnt it a lot of time then it is [easy]’.

Oscar: First new thing I don’t get it, but then after a couple more lessons I do get it.

(PG1,2:2)

Within this, there was a preference for autonomy and choice. For example, Zoe was keen to do ‘loads of activities for the exactly same grammar’ but then for the pupils to see ‘which ones they understand better...and then they go and then they do it’ (PW1,2:1). In this way, she had potentially added a new dimension to the notion of repetition, suggesting an element of self-differentiation.

The notion of ease of recall seemed relative to the Year group in which the grammatical term was originally introduced. For example: Cassie announced that, ‘Adjectives are really easy’ and then suggested that this was because they had learned them in Year 3 (PG1,2:1). This and other examples suggested the earlier the original teaching, the “easier” the grammatical concept was perceived to be. What was less certain was whether this was because the pupils inferred that it *must* be easier if it had been taught in Year 3 or because the grammatical terminology felt so much more familiar, having been taught for the last three years.

4.3.2.12.2 Recall

The findings suggested that the pupils perceived recall to be the most significant barrier and this was regardless of writing ability. For example, the following comments (written and spoken) were extremely common:

Georgia: I find it hard to remember them

Andrew: It’s easy to learn and understand them

Hatty: Yes but it’s hard to remember

James: Yes it’s hard

Liam: It’s about a ‘9’ to remember (PG2,2:1)

The ‘9 to remember’ referred to the 1-10 rating scale that was part of an activity in the pupil interviews (1= very easy and 10 = very hard) (see Appendix 8). Pupils, such as Zoe, talked about it being ‘hard to get it into your head because you might remember how to do it one day and then forget to do it another’ (PG1,2:2). There was a suggestion the teaching of grammatical terminology should be spread out over two weeks (i.e. and definitely not, according to the pupils, on consecutive days). Oscar suggested it might be useful to have

'like a kind of a rota thing'. This demonstrated that the pupils often had very clear ideas about possible alternative pedagogical approaches that might work better for them.

4.3.2.12.3 *Creative, challenging approaches*

The importance of being active in the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology and 'not just sitting there' (Hatty) has been reported in other sections (e.g. 4.4.1.10.2). In addition to this, findings from the pupil interviews suggested that pupils perceived the notion of 'challenge' to be especially important (it was typically rated as a '6' or '7' on a 1-10 scale of "easy" to "hard"). Amanda's comment was typical when she said: 'If it's really easy you get it straight away and then there was really no point in us learning it'. Hatty equated 'easy' with 'boring'; 'tricky' was perceived as being 'more fun'. James exclaimed, 'Make the verbs harder!' during a game of 'Secret Verbs' (PG2,2:1).

Therefore, for the pupils, the notion of being active was not about being busy with practical tasks. When Zoe talked about her enjoyment of "spot the mistake" type activities, she was highlighting the cognitive processes of looking for differences and discord. She explained she preferred 'fixing it [grammar] when it's wrong' rather than working from examples where 'it's all exactly right' (PG1,2:1).

An interesting discussion occurred in response to the video lesson where the pupils commented disparagingly on what seemed to be too 'easy' for the pupils:

Craig: And they're just saying the same answers.
Oscar: They already know it and I don't like that. They already know it.
Cassie: It gets boring if it's really easy
Oscar: But if it's a challenge you'll learn.
(PG1,2:1)

Given other research findings suggesting that the pupils found repetition and practice valuable, this created an interesting paradox. While learning 'one thing at once' and going over something on 'a rota basis' (Oscar) were considered very positive approaches, learning something that they already knew and in ways they had already covered was not, e.g. 'They already know it and I don't like that' (Oscar). Therefore, there seemed to be a distinction being made between activities aimed at increasing recall (where repetition was viewed positively as the preferred approach) and those aimed at developing knowledge and understanding (where repetition was viewed negatively).

The importance of fun for the pupils ran throughout many of the findings, often alongside an awareness of learning through this. For example, Amanda explained: 'It's fun and it's like you're learning something as you're playing' (PG2,2:2). The grammar activities and games played as part of the Pupil Interviews seemed highly motivational. In one interview, the games were spontaneously rated as '10,10,10,10,10!' by the pupils (PG2,2:2). This flowed naturally into the pupils' own invented games, such as their adaptation of my 'Secret Verbs' game:

James: You pick like a variety of cards, like an adjective, a verb and then you have to do... like... do it as the adjective says you're doing it.
Amanda: How can you do an adjective?

James: If it was smelly you go - [waves his hand under his nose]

Amanda: Like if you're doing an adverb you could do like... if it was slowly running, you could slowly run.

Hatty: You could like mix them both together and then you have to say which one it is and what it is.

Georgia: And you could do nouns or adjectives, like with the verbs.

Amanda: Like if you were a dog, you'd like woof and crawl on your knees.

Hatty: Then you have to say ...like what it is, like what type of word it is and then it would help you to learn which ones are which.

This exchange demonstrated something of the motivation of the pupils within their own creative approaches and challenges self-initiated challenges which created fun approaches to grammatical terminology in collaboration with others. This provided an interesting contrast to the traditional question-and-answer routines seen in the Key Skills sessions (see 4.4.2.1.1).

4.4 Chapter summary

The chapter has presented the findings for the two cases through the perspectives of the teachers and their pupils and according to each of the six top-level themes and main sub-themes. The findings have been largely descriptive with some case-specific analysis. They have focused upon how the quintain of grammatical terminology appears in that context through the experience of the participants involved.

A summary of the multicase findings is presented in Appendix 16 as similarities (mainly between the two cases) and similarities and differences (mainly between teachers and pupils). It provides a bridge from the individual case presentations to the theoretical discussion of the multicase findings in Chapter Five. According to Stake (2006:39), the multicase analysis comes to dominate the report. It contains the most important findings about the quintain, referred to by Stake as 'assertions' (2006:50), giving a better description of the quintain of grammatical terminology than the single case studies could alone. The theoretical discussion of the multicase findings will now be considered.

CHAPTER FIVE: THEORETICAL DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Five presents the theoretical discussion of multicase findings. Given the breadth and depth of the findings generated by this exploratory study, this discussion is afforded shape and focus through the use of Vygotskian theory, providing insights that would otherwise remain undetected.

Vygotsky's theoretical ideas relating to word meaning and the relationship between thought and language are of central significance to this study. The study posits that grammatical terms, such as *adjective* and *subordinate clause* are the epitome of scientific concepts, in contrast to the "spontaneous" or "everyday concepts" which Vygotsky maintains develop naturally as a result of the child's everyday life experience (1987). Vygotsky's methodological ideas are also of central significance. They are reflected in the choice of a multicase design and in the use of a wide range of written, graphic and visual research tools. This study adheres to the Vygotskian premise that it is not possible to look at a single strand in isolation. Instead, understanding is perceived to lie in the interconnectedness of the 'whole'. In this case, the 'whole' is the quintain of grammatical terminology.

Van der Veer and Valsiner (1991:392-3) maintain that Vygotsky adopts a dialectical world view, both to theory and to method:

...for Vygotsky, any two opposing directions of thought serve as opposites united with one another in the continuous whole – the discourse on ideas. This discourse is expected to lead us to a more adequate understanding of the human psyche...

Thus, the multicase findings are analysed and presented as loose dialectical contrasts. In keeping with Vygotsky's perspective, these are not intended to be seen as "either/or" binaries without connection but as 'opposing directions of thought' about grammatical terminology, held together through 'the discourse on ideas' from teachers and pupils (ibid). According to Daniels (2012), this form of dialogic pedagogy is 'a requisite component of effective teaching'. The notion of the dialectic is also emphasised as an important methodological procedure within Stake's multicase design, aimed at going back and forth across the cases as part of a rhetorical, adversarial process (2006:46). In this way, a dialectical approach runs, along different lines, throughout the thesis.

Within Chapter Five, these dialectical contrasts are positioned under the original headings of 'declarative', 'procedural', 'purpose', 'value', 'teaching' and 'learning'; however, these too have been conflated into loosely contrasting pairs ('loosely' because they are not perceived to be in direct opposition to each other), both to signal the dialectical approach being taken within this chapter but also to acknowledge the overlaps in theoretical discussion between them. All sub-themes are included in the discussions, although differing levels of priority have resulted in some sub-themes being subsumed into other related discussions. This approach is intended to support the interconnectedness of the multicase findings and the complexity of the quintain.

This chapter continues to use the past tense when discussing this study's findings and the present tense when discussing the theoretical and empirical ideas and findings of published research and writers, including those of Vygotsky. This will ensure consistency within and differentiation between primary and secondary sources. Furthermore, the use of the present tense is intended to convey a sense of theoretical thinking that is ongoing and language processes that are active, in a way reminiscent of Vygotsky's thinking and evident in the revised translation of the title of Vygotsky's key text, 'Thinking and Speech' (Vygotsky 1987) (changed from 'Thought and Language' 1986.)

While Chapter Four led with the teachers' perspectives (representative of the actuality of the classroom), Chapter Five leads with the findings related to the pupils as the most significant learners in this endeavour. At the end of each discussion, the findings are summarised as a single 'final assertion' (Stake 2006:41). According to Stake, 'the assertions in a cross-case report are the researchers' findings about the quintain' (2006:41). They are based on what is felt to be the most important 'compelling persuasion' (ibid:75) i.e. on the credible "evidence" presented within the theoretical discussion.

Chapter Five culminates with a summary of the findings (i.e. the 12 final assertions in tabulated form). These are then developed into recommendations and models for effective classroom practice in Chapter Six as the contribution to knowledge.

5.2 Declarative and procedural

5.2.1 Word meaning versus word sense

The findings suggested that a high percentage of pupils were able to speak and write traditional semantic definitions and examples, and that these were practised regularly as part of discrete skills sessions. Across a range of evidence (Pupil questionnaire; Pupil interview; Lesson observation), the pupils seemed most competent with *adjective*, *noun* and *verb*, producing definitions with near identical wording. In comparison, the pupils seemed less confident with the verbalisation of other grammatical terms. This was in spite of positive self-assessments of these same terms i.e. having identified these terms as *grammar words* they *understood* (Pupil questionnaire). The most significant example of this was *subordinate clause* as this had been the focus of recent Year 5 and Year 6 teaching. For example, one teacher talked about having focused on subordinate clauses as, 'the first thing we did in Year 5', studying it throughout the year in different contexts and with different audiences, purposes and forms. As a result, the pupils had 'come a long way'. However, the pupils' written responses were less precise and comments such as: 'I am not able to put it in an explanation' were common (PG2,2:2). Other pupils who felt that it was 'easy' were unable to write a definition or provide an example (PG1,2:1). This suggested that pupils had a "sense" (perception) of *subordinate clause*; however, they were not always able to demonstrate "meaning" (knowledge) through an adequate verbal definition.

This would appear to suggest that the pupils' understanding of the concept of *subordinate clause* was less well developed than that of *adjective*, *noun* and *verb*. However, Vygotsky asserts that 'the concepts definition

is significantly narrower than the concept as it is actually used' (1987:161). In this way, a single word can become a 'concentrated clot of sense', needing 'a whole panorama of words' to translate it into the language of external speech. Therefore, it could have been that *subordinate clause* (as an aspect of sentence structure) was harder for the pupils to "unpack" into external speech than *adjective*, *noun* and *verb* (as examples of word classes) but, potentially, was no less 'saturated with sense' (1986:247) (see 5.2.2).

This was supported by pupils' sensitivity to certain verbal triggers which enabled them to "join in" and to co-construct spoken definitional phrases. Often, this was in the absence of independent written ones. For example, when watching the video lesson on *subordinate clauses*, some pupils spontaneously joined in with the video teacher's patter, even when previously they had been less successful at writing a definition. Thus, the video teacher's question-and-answer routine seemed to act as a familiar pedagogical trigger. Pupils' comments such as: 'We've done this before...We've done this years ago' suggested a confidence and a familiarity with these trigger words and phrases (possibly as part of the legacy of the NLS). As their recall was prompted, this enabled the pupils to recover verbal fragments of meaning through the support of a familiar question-and-answer frame and the choral, collaborative activity of the pupil interview.

Nevertheless, this has implications for typical question-and-answer routines in class: the ability to "join in" may be deceiving, providing the teacher with the illusion of knowledge by masking the absence of fuller independent understanding – or even just fuller, independent remembering. This suggested that neither the presence nor the lack of verbal definitions should be taken as an indicator of either word "meaning" (knowing) or word "sense" (perceiving) (see 5.2.3).

This seemed reminiscent of Kelder's (1996:3) ideas about the elusive nature of literacy and about how reducing the conceptual complexity, something can be 'known'. However, how grammatical terminology becomes 'known' is problematic. The meaning-based definitions of *adjectives*, *nouns* and *verbs* reflected the mantras typical of established classroom practice in primary and secondary schools in England (Myhill et al. 2013). This way of verbalising grammatical "knowledge" has a long-established history in English schools and is perhaps unquestioned. The findings suggested that this was in spite of the Glossary's caveat that such definitions are unhelpful i.e. they do not 'help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes' (DfE 2013a:70). Myhill et al. (2013:84) argue that 'the challenge is in knowing how best to define and explain' this terminology without resorting to semantic definitions at the expense of more linguistically functional ones. The teachers' comments suggested conflicting thoughts and ideas about the teaching of definitions. Although clearly embedded as part of discrete practice sessions, the "revision" nature of this teaching seemed to sit uncomfortably (PG1,2:1). The strategies discussed and observed suggested a preference for a more conversational, natural approach, in which the terminology was 'absorbed' by the pupils, particularly in the main part of the lesson, thereby minimising pupil anxiety by presenting it less overtly. There was a palpable resistance to the study of grammatical terminology as 'an end in itself' (Crystal 2004b:10) and, instead, there was a need to locate it 'within a frame of reference which demonstrates its relevance to active and creative tasks of language production and comprehension' (Crystal 2004b:10). While the need for some explicit

teaching seemed to be accepted by the teachers (and the pupils), implicit modelling seemed to be preferred. It was hoped that a level of automaticity would eventually be achieved.

According to Kolln and Gray (2017), definitions based on meaning are ‘certainly useful...although they’re not always accurate’ (2016:7). Paraskevas (2004) explains that teachers’ use of phrases such as “doing words” do not align with more accurate or detailed linguistic definitions and can lead to the development of misconceptions. Misconceptions were evident in all cases, such as Tilly’s announcement that her name and Kelly’s ended in ‘ly’ and so she and Kelly ‘were adverbs!’ Myhill et al. (2013) argues that semantic definitions are likely to make lower demands on teacher’s grammatical understanding and are unlikely to be conceptually robust enough for pupils’ application in authentic language contexts. For this reason, Kolln and Gray (2017) suggest that definitions need to go beyond word meaning to consider word form i.e. to know the defining and limiting characteristics (e.g. “A verb is a word that can take an -s or an -ing form”). These are the definitions built into a person’s internal grammar system (2017:197). Paraskevas (2004:97) argues that pupils need ‘clear, linguistically accurate information about the structure of their language’. However, this presupposes that primary pupils have the cognitive capacity to accommodate this structure within their developing conceptual understanding: that they are capable of perceiving relationships between the meanings of individual words.

That said, verbal definitions would seem to have a place in the teaching sequence. For example, Vygotsky posits that the process of instruction should begin with the verbal definition of the word, as this is what ultimately distinguishes it as a scientific concept as opposed to a spontaneous one. But Vygotsky (1987:169) also counters this by stating that ‘the weakness of the scientific concept lies in its *verbalism*, in its insufficient saturation with the concrete’. Therefore, it is suggested that verbal definitions representing declarative knowledge are just *one* aspect of teaching which should be underpinned by the pupils’ broader and deeper conceptual understanding. As Berry (2010:22) points out, it is possible to manipulate terms and use them to refer to ‘an empty concept’.

Final assertion 1: Traditional semantic definitions and examples of grammatical terminology masked the true nature of a pupil’s developing conceptual understanding.

5.2.2 Word classes versus sentence structures

The findings suggested that the pupils’ perceived some aspects of grammatical terminology to be easier than others. The open word classes of *adjective*, *noun*, *verb* and *adverb* were most frequently perceived as “easy”, as were the closed word classes of *pronouns* and *conjunctions*. This seemed to be related to the pupils’ previous experience e.g. ‘Adjectives are really easy they’re just describing words and we learned them in Year 3’ (PG2,2:1). *Determiners* and *prepositions* were often considered to be “hard”. Again, this was related to familiarity (e.g. ‘I don’t have a clue what it is’). Researchers posit that the frequency and variety of the contexts in which a word has been encountered are factors accounting for its perceived level of meaningfulness (Bjorgen 1964; Underwood and Schulz 1960).

However, pupils' perceptions were sometimes mixed around sentence-level aspects of grammatical terminology, such as *complex sentences*, *main clauses* and *subordinate clauses*. While some pupils chimed, 'Easy!', others explained that: 'They [*subordinate clauses*] can be a bit hard to pick up sometimes, to start learning them, like if you've never seen it before you might start struggling with them...' and 'I'm going to put 'complex sentences' in "Okay" [a category in a sorting activity] because I do know what they are but they are hard to use sometimes' (PG2,1:1). This suggested that some pupils had moved beyond perceptions of "hard" and "easy" as frequency of encounters to an increased sensitivity to the differences in the qualities of grammatical terms and their uses.

For Vygotsky, these different levels of difficulty relate to different degrees of concreteness and abstraction; to what he calls the 'foundation of concept equivalence'. It is based on relationships with generality with other concepts (1987:227). Vygotsky's (1987:225) research posits that:

Each structure of generalization has a characteristic degree of unity, a characteristic degree of abstractness or concreteness, and characteristic thought operations associated with a given level of development of word meaning.

Word classes are considered one of the most fundamental concepts of linguistics (Gardenfors 2014:180). In terms of the qualities of noun, adjectives and verbs, it could be argued that the words that pupils typically gave as examples (such 'table', 'pretty' and 'skipping') have greater concreteness due to their more tangible characteristics and the semantic relationships between word classes. The pupils in Case 1 perceived adjectives to be the "easiest" of all word classes. It can be inferred that this was because adjectives are semantically strong and, although they can exist in comparative and superlative forms, they are often clearly framed by their role of increasing the specificity of a noun (or noun phrase). However, adjectives are not without their challenges. Although they can be reliably multiplied and safely combined with a noun, they can exist in both pre- and post-modifying positions which makes them harder to identify in sentences. Therefore, even though they were considered "easy" in the Pupil interviews and emerged as the most accurately explained and exemplified term within the pupil questionnaire, this did not transfer so easily into application within the context of authentic language use. As one teacher said: 'We have been doing adjectives forever and they still can't identify them in a sentence'. This was seen directly in the pupil writing conference. For example, when asked to identify in their own writing the 'adjectives they were most pleased with', the pupils were almost always hesitant and either avoided this or revealed a misconception in their incorrect identification. In a number of cases, the pupils reverted to arbitrary classroom examples (e.g. 'a big red strawberry') which had nothing to do with their writing. (Incidentally, the quality of this particular pupil's writing was much more mature than the example of 'a big red strawberry' suggested and this "step back" is interesting in itself).

The responses in the subject knowledge table (Pupil questionnaire) in Case 1 suggested that the pupils found *noun* the hardest word class to explain and exemplify, though it was enthusiastically described as "easy" within the pupil interviews. However, while some pupils were able to define *noun* in the questionnaire (e.g. 'name of an object, person or place') and give a suitable example (e.g. 'apple, Libby, park'), other pupils were

less accurate in terms of traditional definitions. Their responses included: 'something that you do'; 'something that describes something'; 'do not know' or 'I forgot' (PG2,1:1). Nouns may appear deceptively straightforward: they have a clear nominative function serving a concretely identifiable referent (such as "chair") (Ausubel 2000:76). However, the traditional semantic definition of 'person, place or thing' is complex. Not only is this a three-pronged definition, the notion of 'thing' is problematic when abstract nouns are considered. In these cases, the 'thing' is not a tangible concrete object but an intangible abstract idea or state. Some of this trickiness can be seen in the example from Esme when she tries to explain the problematic nature of nouns for her:

Because it gets quite confusing so you like think 'Oh a noun is a naming word. Oh no, that's a name and so it's not a person naming word, it's a naming word like 'table' and you might get really confused. (PG1,1:1)

The referential meaning of a person's name (versus *noun* as "a *naming* word") seems to be at the root of her difficulty. Here, the word 'name' has both an ordinary, familiar meaning as well as a grammatical one. Thus, conflicting associations of semantics and syntactics can be seen playing out, creating a confusion that this pupil was cognisant of and able to articulate. (Many pupils were unable to do this and seemed cognisant of this e.g. 'I am not able to put it in an explanation').

As has already been discussed, the findings suggested that pupils across both cases had the greatest difficulty explaining and exemplifying *subordinate clause* and this was in spite of the recent, frequent, varied and contextualised teaching. The teachers had anticipated this, although were generally very positive about their pupils' increased abilities to use subordinate clauses effectively in their writing.

Regarding subordinate clauses specifically, Vygotsky (1987:233) maintains that the syntactical elements do not possess this same level of semantic relation as word classes. Therefore, it could be argued that subordinate clauses were more challenging for the pupils than word classes. Hudson concurs, describing them as 'less clearly defined by a bundle of properties' (Hudson 2010:279). Instead, they represent a structural relationship and one where a level of syntactic dependency is signalled by the unequal part-to-whole relationship of subordination (ibid). This increased level of challenge is reflected in existing research findings and an ability to integrate subordinate clauses by second language learners is often considered an indication of higher proficiency (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005, Tarone and Swierzbis 2009). Li and Sheng (2017) link this to memory and maintain that the active memory of a human being is limited, that people 'cannot load too many syntactic structures at one time' (2017:1190). Kimball (1973) argues that while independent clauses can be accommodated simply into the brain's direct memory, embedded clauses added to sentences cause greater complexity and, as such, interrupt the understanding process.

Perhaps because of this, the pupil questionnaires did not suggest a typical taught verbal definition for *subordinate clause*. While 'Doesn't make sense on its own' was common to some responses (typically Case 1), pupils' responses were far less uniform in others (typically Case 2). This led to a wider variety of explanations as the pupils tried to explain this grammatical term in their own words. At face value, these seemed more tentative, less articulate and less "accurate" as a result. Their explanations ranged from pupils

who seemed to perceive *subordinate clause* syntactically through punctuation (e.g. 'Two commas with one comma first then a sentence and then comma'); the pupils who understood it in terms of positionality (e.g. 'The first part / bit of a complex sentence'); the pupils who connected with the subordinating conjunction (e.g. 'A word that brings clauses together'); the pupils who could exemplify it but not explain it (e.g. 'Bob, who is green, is small'); the pupils who had a "sense" of meaning but couldn't verbalise it (e.g. 'I know but I can't explain it'); and the pupils who perceived it in terms of number of words or clause length (e.g. 'Short sentence') (PG1,2:1). Collectively, these fragments of meaning made up something closer to the concept of a subordinate clause, something described by Vygotsky as 'more a representation or image than scientific concept in the true sense of the word' (1987:218). Seen separately, they also had value. They identified what might have been the most significant seed of an idea or kernel of meaning for that individual pupil and, thus, revealed something of the nature of each pupil's conceptual understanding. According to Sorace (1985) and Green and Hecht (1992), metalinguistic knowledge is often fragmentary and its representation typically inaccurate or incomplete of more implicit knowledge. Vygotsky advocates requiring pupils to explain word meanings in their own words, arguing that 'reproducing something only in the words it was given to him' is too limiting: rather, it is only when a child can explain something in his own words with his own example that his intellectual freedom increases. Some pupils within the study (usually the higher attaining writers) were able to demonstrate this, such as Esme in explaining her difficulties with *nouns*. Vygotsky (1987:72) sees this type of metacognition (the conscious awareness of one's thinking) as a prerequisite for critical cognitive thinking.

In terms of teacher assessment, this form of diagnostic is hugely valuable and potentially more meaningful, more challenging and more empowering than any taught semantic definition ever has the potential to be, providing the teacher with far greater insight into the pupils' developing conceptual understanding and thereby their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). This demonstrates the power and potential of asking pupils to explain word meanings in their own words. In addition, this suggests that a range of different pedagogical strategies may be necessary, potentially differentiated according to their grammatical properties and the level of concreteness and abstraction characteristic within each generalisation. This would seem to suggest the need for professional development (e.g. related to the field of applied linguistics), in order to move well beyond the definitional meanings of the grammar Glossary and deepen teachers' declarative knowledge and understanding. There seemed to be an indirect reference to this when the teachers and pupils tried to put their fingers on the abstract and complex nature of grammatical terminology. One teacher reported that grammatical terminology seemed harder, 'though I don't know why'. Even the teachers who claimed a life-long affinity with English felt that the grammatical terminology was the most challenging aspect of all and, in spite of welcoming the new focus on grammar within the National Curriculum generally, they were conflicted by grammatical terminology and where to position this traditional knowledge within their typically descriptive pedagogy. The pupils also felt that 'grammar words were harder', although, when prompted to take this further, they were unable to give much detail: 'You have to think more harder than normal' (PG1,1:1).

Final assertion 2: Grammatical terms posed different kinds of difficulty (inherent in their different levels of abstraction) which suggested the need for different pedagogical approaches.

5.2.3 Verbal versus non-verbal

The findings demonstrated that the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology existed predominantly on the 'verbal plane' (Vygotsky 1987:121) and, within that, mainly through spoken language. Therefore, practical examples in teacher exposition were considered important for reducing the level of abstraction. For example:

But when she explains it quite well, so like 'A pronoun is like a name for a person, like 'he', 'she', 'they'. I'm like 'All right, yes.' and then it comes in one ear and stays there instead of going out the other. (PG2,2:1)

However, one exception to this predominantly verbal exposition was the physically-oriented, non-verbal approach to punctuation. The pupils and teachers were consistently enthusiastic about using this. For example, one pupil exclaimed: 'I love this!' (PG2,1:1), before spontaneously standing up with others to offer a physical demonstration during a pupil interview. During the pupil writing conferences, hand actions and sound effects for punctuation marks were inserted automatically, alongside the pupils reading and discussing their writing. This synthesis between the words and the gestures was remarkably fluid. Furthermore, there seemed a comparative ease around punctuation explanations and examples and these were often the default position for teachers as well as pupils, as if operating at a very different, less conscious level of conceptual automaticity. One teacher tried to explain her own ease with punctuation versus her own difficulty with word classes in the teacher interview:

For some reason, I don't know, bracket, dash...fine, but relative pronoun, relative clause, modal verb... (T1,1:1)

The connection between punctuation and subordinate clauses was particularly interesting, suggesting that even when pupils were unable to define or exemplify a subordinate clause verbally, they were able to confidently show its demarcation through actions and sounds. It could be that the semiotic, non-verbal nature of punctuation connected differently and more deeply with the pupils' sensory understandings and that, in doing so, the concept was freed from an immutable verbal definition to allow for other semiotic meaning-making to take place. Language may have existed as a pattern, potentially perceived visually as shapes of words rather than as lexical items. This would seem to reflect Vygotsky's supposition that other semiotic systems and ways of symbolising meaning may, in their internalised form, help to make up thought. Vygotsky maintains that: 'the concept is linked with sensual material, the perception and transformation of which give rise to the concept itself' (1987:121). Furthermore, Vygotsky posits that mental or eidetic imagery could also be significant in the same way that a complex thought can be contained in a single graphic image. A complex thought can be contained in a single graphic image which, for Vygotsky, avoids the lengthy translation into a linear form as it is put into words. Vygotsky also draws upon the qualities of poetry which, despite being written (i.e. verbal), operates differently, often relying upon metaphor to make meaning of a condensed semantic nature. Of this, Barrs (2016:244) writes:

Part of the power of poetry, however, lies in not completely unpacking these 'concentrated clots of sense, but allowing them to enter the inner speech of others, and to unfold in the mind of the reader.

Together, eidetic imagery and poetry can be perceived as a means of constructing visual images of ideas of our conception of reality. Thus, the cognitive aspect of conceptual lexical meaning becomes something more

akin to perception, imagination and sensory experience as theoretical relationships between images and concepts are made.

Therefore, non-verbal approaches (e.g. visual images, gestures and metaphor) could be a valuable way of teaching and learning grammatical terminology and, in particular, punctuation could be a useful pedagogical bridge to the teaching of clauses. According to Andrews (2010:97), punctuation is often seen as something separate to grammar: as a marker to be used rather than being derived from 'an understanding and use of accurate and elegant sentence structure'. Andrews draws attention to the connection between punctuation and subordinate clauses, arguing for the 'full integration of punctuation into the functions and forms of sentence structure'.

Furthermore, it could also be hypothesised that the greater the level of abstraction within the grammatical word meaning (and therefore, by default, the greater the potentiality for long and complex verbal definitions or explanations to "unpack" it), the greater the need for non-verbal or partially verbal semiotic 'bridges', connecting the pupils' thinking with symbolised meaning across their pre-verbal, pre-conceptual plane. Sensory connections should be made to developing concepts (and not to the recall of a taught verbal definition), enabling the more cognitively challenging vertical relations to be freed up and to begin to form.

Final assertion 3: Teaching grammatical terminology was predominantly verbal in form; however, punctuation (e.g. indicating an understanding of complex sentence structure) was frequently communicated non-verbally and with great confidence, competence and enthusiasm. This suggested that other semiotic modes of developing grammatical terminology could be valuable in advancing conceptual development.

5.2.4 Teaching versus pupil development

The findings suggested that in spite of the broad homogeneity provided by the curriculum and assessment, and the common experience of teaching (i.e. in that the teachers stated their teaching was not explicitly differentiated by task) through being in the same class for at least two terms, the pupils demonstrated significant differences in their conceptual understanding of grammatical terminology. Although there were many examples of these differences, it was especially significant in the more practically-oriented, open-ended pupil interview tasks where pupils were given the freedom to solve problems or create games with minimal researcher intervention. For example, when inventing a grammar game, Aaron (in spite of being very enthusiastic about the prospect of making a game up himself) could be heard saying: 'I don't know what an adjective is' whereas Esme was able to create and explain her game to others, a game which incorporated grammatical elements appropriately. In that moment, she demonstrated the ability to "see" language 'as the focus of attention, rather than as the medium of communication' (Myhill, Jones & Lines 2018:3). This was a much more explicit awareness of 'language as an artifact' (Myhill 2012:250), of thinking with grammar in mind (Halliday 2002).

These differences seemed most apparent between higher and lower proficiency writers (although the limitations of sample size is acknowledged). This was also supported by the teachers' perceptions of their pupils' abilities, with particular concerns voiced around the self-esteem of the lower attaining writers who 'don't believe in themselves' and 'get really stressed' at being unable to recall the meaning of grammatical terms (T2,1:1). Conversely, the higher attainers were perceived as not finding it 'as difficult'.

However, the findings suggested that the perceived barrier for all pupils, irrespective of writing attainment, was recall. The metacognitive reflections of the more proficient writers (which were much more accessible than for less proficient writers) suggested a higher level of conceptual understanding - and/or misunderstanding; that is to say, the higher proficiency writers were confused differently and in ways that were not so obviously related to recall. Therefore, despite what was a broadly homogeneous experience on a variety of fronts, the grammatical conceptual development of some pupils had progressed at different rates.

This can be related to Vygotsky's theory of concept formation (1987). Vygotsky proposes a developmental sequence in relation to concept formation. He presents these as three basic stages: 'syncretic' (very young child), 'complexes' (pre-school) and 'concepts' (adolescent), though each stage is then broken into 'phases' or 'types'. Given its perceived relevance to the study (and the need to provide it as a reference point for future discussions), a summary now follows:

1. The first of the three stages, the 'syncretic' stage, is characterised by a very young child's subjective connections between objects, potentially with no internal connections evident but merely the external connections of the child's own perceptions and representations (Vygotsky 1987:134).
2. The second stage is 'complexes' where, developmentally, the preschool child begins to move beyond 'heaps as the basic form of word meaning' (Vygotsky 1987:135). The stage is characterised by the establishment of objective relationships among different concrete impressions and objects, and the systemisation of the experience of the child. The child is capable of what Vygotsky calls collections of names or 'family names' (e.g. 'furniture' rather than 'table' and 'chair') and word meanings are no longer indicative of a distinct object (1987:138). Perhaps not surprisingly, the highest level of 'complexes' – so called 'pseudoconcepts' - may well be mistaken for concepts given their external similarity. That said, the pseudoconcepts are essential as a stage in themselves as they create a bridge between the concrete and the abstract: the word is used in different functional ways, and the child moves gradually closer towards the abstract and the intellectual.
3. Vygotsky maintains that the third and final stage of concept formation is not completed until adolescence, when the child masters 'the development of partitioning, analysis or abstraction' (1987:157). He calls this 'the transitional age' (1987:160) and introduces the term 'preconcept' as the substage before true concept formation occurs in adolescence (1987:189) i.e. the stage typical of a school child. Vygotsky's suppositions around 're-formation' (1987:231) are important here. He posits that 'each new stage in the development of generalization depends on the generalizations found in the preceding stages' (Vygotsky 1987:229) (as opposed to each new word meaning being created

anew). To return to the earlier example of the subordinate clause, this suggests that the foundation of the concept or generalisation of this concept supports the later formation of the concept of the 'relative clause'. Thus, the pupil comes to be less bound by the system (1987:230). He is able to generalise from a generalisation. This development is significant to this study.

Therefore, preconceptual thinking signals the beginning of a new movement for the school child. It is the self-movement of thought back and forth, along both the horizontal and vertical axes of the conceptual system where, crucially, the 'abstraction and generalization *of ones own thought* differs fundamentally from the abstraction and generalisation *of things*' (1987:233) (italics added). Thus, the abstraction and generalisation of one's own thoughts about subordinate clauses eventually moves the school child out of a context-bound situation so that, as an adolescent, he or she is able to rise above the lower operation. The potential of this reverse movement signals the 'transition to a new and higher plane of thought' (1987:230). Finally, Vygotsky argues that, even within the same stage, it is not possible for children to demonstrate the same processes of thought: their operations of thinking will be dependent upon the unique nature of the structure of that thought (1987:237).

In this way, it can be argued that the characteristics of conceptual development within each case in this study were not only different, they were unique to each pupil. These differences seemed most apparent between the higher and lower proficiency writers, reflecting something of the disparity that Vygotsky notes between children and adults i.e. that 'the child thinks the same thing in a different way, on the basis of different intellectual operations' (Vygotsky 1987:148). This reflects the findings of Myhill et al. (2018). Through a randomised controlled trial, their statistical analysis, 'showed that able writers made a stronger rate of improvement than less proficient writers, and that the reason for this was not clear' (2018:334). Therefore, it seems feasible to argue that the intellectual operations of some higher attaining pupils seemed different to lower attaining pupils.

Of course, neither the higher nor the lower proficiency writers were homogenous sub-groups in their own right and there were many other factors to take into consideration. For example, Schmidt (2001) argues that exercise difficulty is a relevant, and potentially limiting, factor. He posits that production exercises may be more difficult than comprehension exercises, restricting the pupils' capacity to deal with any subsequent grammatical analysis required. Ausubel (2000:120) concludes there is a difference in learners' ability to recognise and recall on demand instructional material, such as 'proper noun'. He concludes that multiple choice type questions presenting plausible alternatives are easier than the recall of a memory. This seemed evident in the multicase findings with pupils reporting that they recognised a higher number of grammatical terms than they were able to recall in words. This may also be reflected in the cheerfulness with which some pupils recounted their SPaG test experiences. Clara (2016) suggests that the external influences of the environment may impact on each child differently as a result of the uniqueness of each child's developing word meanings. Vygotsky places great emphasis on the affective domain and the 'constraint created by negative attitudes and feelings' (Barrs 2016:245). For Vygotsky, this has huge significance and he relates the

affective domain to the genesis of thought, maintaining that: 'thought is not an abstract, purely cognitive process; it is powered by desires, needs, interests and feelings' (Barrs 2016:244).

The findings suggested that one of the pupils' key motivations was being appropriately challenged by their learning of grammatical terminology. For example, when grammar lessons were perceived as 'easy', the pupils found these boring and stated that there 'was really no point in us learning it' (PG2,2:1). Conversely, lessons which were 'challenging' meant 'then you tell, like, your parents what you've learnt' (PG2,2:2). Therefore, the following comments were common: 'I think we should start from easy and then get harder and harder and harder' (PG2,2:1). There was a sense of progression, of moving from easy to hard: 'I think from Year 3 we should get used to it and just learn a bit about it and then in Year 5 and Year 6 we actually do the work, like really work at it' (PG2,2:1). To an extent this was evident in every item of new learning the pupils described as starting off hard but becoming easy over time. This was often related to a period of practice and repetition, with a preference among the pupils for returning to things in a structured way: 'Yes, like kind of have a rota thing' (PG2,2:1) (see 5.4.2 and 5.4.3).

Within this, the findings suggested that the pupils had clear ideas as to the nature of the pedagogical approaches that might work best for them. This was seen in relation to a sorting activity (*personal* and *possessive pronouns*) when the pupils suggested the following ideas retrospectively:

Pupil: Maybe like to get all the words you can find and then you can decide which column you'd put them in.

Pupil: Or like focus on one word and see if that one, which one that one is. We do it as like a group, so who thinks which one goes in which one.

Pupil: Well kind of like having a word and saying which column does it go in.

Pupil: Like one sentence or maybe a few, just for a practice, you get the hang of it a bit.
(PG:1,2:2)

In a different group, one pupil (a higher attaining writer) talked about preferring detailed, technical explanations, while another (a lower attaining writer in the same group) thought you should be:

...allowed to like bring a notepad of your own, not like an electronic one, but like you can bring a little writing book and then while the teacher's talking you can take down notes and stuff... (PG2,1:1)

This suggested that not only could pupils' self-differentiation be an essential tool in supporting and extending learning in such a complex, abstract and intangible area, they were capable of making very valid and valuable suggestions regarding the creation of mediational tools of their own.

The importance of a range of 'dynamic assessment' techniques (Daniels 2017:14) should also be re-emphasised here and, with it, the importance of generating meaningful opportunities for deeper-level teacher assessment that might afford a window onto the individual pupil's grammatical conceptual development. According to Vygotsky, it is through assessing a child's ZPD that the teacher is able to better identify the child's maturing intellectual functions:

Thus, at a single stage in the development of a single child, we find differing strengths and weaknesses in scientific and everyday concepts. (1987:169)

The findings suggested that the greatest assessment opportunities would seem to lie in the observation of the pupils' engagement in creative, independent, collaborative, investigative tasks (see 5.4.3).

Final assertion 4: Pupils had different strengths and weaknesses in their developing grammatical terminology suggesting the need for deeper-level teacher assessment to inform teacher differentiation. Furthermore, pupils perceived appropriate levels of challenge to be very important and had clear ideas as to what would work for them as learners, suggesting the need for pupil self-differentiation and the creation of personal mediation tools.

5.2.5 Isolated words versus relations between words

The findings suggested that whole class teaching of grammatical terminology was manifested in at least three different ways, reflecting teaching at word, sentence and text levels. In order of prominence within the findings, these were:

- (i) as isolated words, for example, within recall activities and examples on whiteboards. This was also typical of resources such as the "working wall" and table top handouts where there was an absence of sentential context (e.g. see 4.3.2.3.2);
- (ii) contextualised within language, for example, modelled within explanations during teacher exposition or a discussion of the text (e.g. see 4.3.2.9.4);
- (iii) as relations between words with, for example, familiar words being used to work out the meaning of new words. In this way, grammatical knowledge was presented.

As the first two are discussed elsewhere, the emphasis here is on the third approach: relations between words.

Some teachers demonstrated using explicit relations between words in their teaching. For example. they modelled how to use, such as analogy, to work out unknown or forgotten words. The findings showed that the pupils engaged with unknown words in the same way (e.g. working collaboratively to recall the meaning of 'adverb' from what they remembered of 'verb'). This approach seemed successful in engaging the pupils' attention and motivation, potentially due to the problem-solving element.

However, Chapman points out that such relationships can appear 'relatively straightforward' (2000:37). Indeed, the findings suggested that looking for logical connections between known and new words when there are none available (or at least none apparent to the pupils) sometimes resulted in arbitrary links based on supposition. This was seen in the following examples: 'Active voice is good expression'; 'tense is easy because it's...because you're tense'; 'Adverbials is like loads of odd verbs' and 'Determiner is a person who wants to be determined to do something?' and 'What's family or 'relative' [*relative pronoun*] got to do with English?' Sometimes these links were not even semantic, but the pupils were used to problematising and searching for logical connections, which, it can be inferred, they assumed *must* exist. For example, the meaning of 'ambiguity' was suggested as 'aggressiveness or angry or upset...Just because it begins with 'A''

and thereby drawing on phonological and orthographic cues. Nevertheless, it could be argued that there was still merit in problematising grammar in this way. It provided a problem-solving task with an element of challenge which involved the pupils in trying to establish meaning for themselves. In this way, it was reminiscent of first language acquisition and the child's predisposition to construct their own rules through ascertaining similarities and patterns rather than memorising every utterance anew (Trask 1995:175).

However, Vygotsky argues that a definitional verbal plane is 'not characteristic of the child' and, while relationships between concepts are crucial to the pupil's system of concept development, 'the meaning the child attributes to the word' cannot be ascertained in this way:

When we attempt to approach the meaning of a word through other words, what we discover would be better attributed to the relationships among word families that have already been learned or mastered than to a true reflection of the nature of the child's concepts. (Vygotsky 1987:122)

This notion is reflected in Tolstoy's thinking. Tolstoy concluded that upon trying to teach students literary language through forced explanation, memorisation, and repetition:

These experiments have convinced me that even for a talented teacher, it is impossible to explain the meaning of a word. To explain a word such as "impression," you must replace it with either another equally incomprehensible word or with a whole series of words whose connection with it is as incomprehensible as the word itself. (1903:143)

Thus, Vygotsky emphasises the importance of establishing relations between words as 'complex connections, dependencies and relationships' (1987:224), as opposed to working out the *meaning* of a word through other words. He maintains that concepts (as generalisations) do not 'lie alongside one another or on top of one another with no connections or relationships' (ibid). Rather, they are connected, and these connections 'arise, live and develop' (ibid). While horizontal relationships between concepts are important (concepts laying in a single series), it is the vertical relationships that are the most significant, representing 'relationships of generality between concepts' that enable pupils to extend their learning hierarchically upwards 'so that one concept stands over the other; the more general concept includes the more specific' (1987:225). The relationship of generality was seen when Craig hypothesised that *relative pronoun* might be a subset of 'drop in clause' (see 4.3.2.2.3). In this way, his thinking demonstrated a vertical movement which placed the 'drop in clause' as the higher concept subordinating the *relative pronoun*.

The teaching of subordination would seem to reflect Vygotsky's notion of a spiral of stages 'based on a series of connected and ascending circles' as generalisations emerge from previous generalisations and word meanings develop (1987:229). He posits that 'each new stage in the development of generalization depends on the generalizations found in the preceding stages' (Vygotsky 1987:229) (as opposed to each new word meaning being created anew). This suggests, for example, that the foundation of the concept or generalisation of the *subordinate clause* supports the later formation of the concept of the *relative clause* and, through the development of the new concept of the relative clause (as a special type of subordinate clause), the conceptual understanding of the subordinate clause is afforded greater freedom intellectually. Returning to previous discussions (see 5.2.2), this notion of generalisations may also explain the pupils' difficulty with the seemingly straightforward tasks of identifying effective adjectives in their own writing i.e. the process is an

abstract one based on the ability to generalise and, as such, this act of identification is more complex than at first it might seem.

According to Hudson (2010), similarities to other lexemes allow a generalisation: a general pattern of lexical relations or parts of words (Hudson 2010). He maintains that:

...speakers of English can, and do, analyse words into parts on the basis of their similarities to other words. This is important in English because a lot of our vocabulary is tightly interconnected in this way, but also because the patterns that emerge reflect the rather complicated history of the language. (Hudson 2010:272)

The findings suggested that the teachers did not lay claim to any “word-learning strategies” e.g. when introducing a new grammatical term to the pupils. One teacher replied thoughtfully that she didn’t think she had but that she ‘would give that some thought’. Stahl and Nagy (2006) broaden out the notion of using relations of lexical similarity and difference by advocating a range of instructional encounters to know a word fully. This approach includes building and fostering word consciousness and teaching word learning strategies which incorporate morphology, affixes and root words. Therefore, there may be merit in providing pupils with the definitions, descriptions and examples – and the associated etymological or linguistic information – and encouraging them to *find* the links from the information provided, rather than work from conjecture based on superficial lexical semblances. Indeed, this idea of being given the words ahead of the independent activity was suggested by some of the pupils e.g. as one of the alternative strategies to the sorting activity of *possessive* and *personal* pronouns: ‘Well kind of like having a word and saying which column does it go in’ (see 5.4.2).

Encouraging the pupils to ‘notice’ (Qi and Lapkin 2001) and to become more ‘linguistically aware’ (Wright 2002) would seem to be closer to encouraging them to ‘think metalinguistically’ (Harper and Rennie 2009:30). Thus, throughout these creative, practical and problem-solving approaches, the suggestion in this study is that the pupil’s thinking is moved away from “thinking about grammatical terminology” towards “using grammatical terminology with which to think”. This is reminiscent of Halliday’s notion of grammatics (2002). Through this conceptualisation of grammatical terminology per se as a meaning-making resource in its own right (and not just grammatical terminology in use), grammatical terms can be more usefully explored and more functionally re-positioned. Grammatical terminology becomes as an entity of significance and value in its own right (Carter 1990; James and Garrett 1991; Hudson 2010).

Stahl and Nagy (2006) argue in favour of helping learners to construct ‘a concept of definition map’ for a word (presented as a kind of graphic organiser), isolating the key ideas to sensitise children to the different types of information in a definition. Conversely, they argue that dictionary definitions are far harder to use than teachers imagine. Definitions in themselves are abstractions (i.e. they are abstracted from a context) and, as such, do not give enough information about how a word should be used. The language of definitions is dense, requiring a very complex and difficult cognitive strategy to interpret the text. Instead, a definition map enables pupils to more closely consider its meaning by re-presenting some aspect of the definition in their own words. However, they conclude that examples (ideally a number of examples to show how the words are employed) are best where application is the goal. This is reminiscent of Hudson’s use of ‘membership tests’ using

properties that are shared by typical members (2010:260) e.g. properties of 'verbs' in ordinary examples of English (2010:260). As Paraskevas (2004) previously alluded, a network of terms can be valuable in explaining such abstractions - and the relationships between them - to a novice. Otherwise the risk is that word meanings are taught in isolation, that concepts develop in isolation when instead the kinds of relations between them need to be better understood. As Vygotsky asks,

How is the individual concept - this stitch that we tear away from a living integral fabric - intertwined and interwoven with the system of concepts present on the child? (1987:224)

Final assertion 5: Grammatical terms were taught and practised predominantly in isolation from other terms, though there was evidence of the use of semantic relations to explain new terminology. Therefore, strategies for developing relations between words, for increasing word consciousness and for word-learning strategies (i.e. to increase pupils' capacity to think in abstractions) were limited but teachers and pupils were responsive.

5.2.6 Knowing versus applying

The findings suggested that the application of grammatical terminology contextualised in a task or text was the most difficult thing for the pupils to do. The study generated data across a wide range of activities. These had a variety of purposes across all six categories of Bloom's Taxonomy (1956), revised by Anderson and Krathwohl (2001): 'Remember', 'Understand', 'Apply', 'Analyse', 'Evaluate' and 'Create'. However, across the range of data there was very little evidence of the pupils being able to apply grammatical terminology confidently and competently in authentic speaking and writing contexts. While it could be countered that this was because of ineffective teaching or the newness of the revised National Curriculum (DfE 2013a), these findings were significant and consistently so for both cases and the pilot study. Furthermore, the findings included grammatical terms that the pupils had been taught since Key Stage 1 (e.g. *adjectives*, *nouns* and *verbs*) and those that they had recently been taught (e.g. *subordinate clauses*).

Vygotsky argues that application is a high level, cognitively demanding experience for the school child who, as a result, may drop to a lower level of competence. He maintains that success in transfer to a new domain usually signals the first step in the maturation of the adolescent's thinking as the concept has begun to exist on an entirely abstract (rather than concrete) plane (though the movement back and forth from complexes to concepts is common in the transitional age). Therefore, while the word *adjective* may have been enough to trigger the confident recall of a semantic verbal definition and example, it may have been that the more significant, underlying processes of 'abstracting, synthesizing, comparing, and differentiating...the very processes essential to the development of the other higher mental functions' were not in place (Gredler 2012:122). According to Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), the 'retrieval cue' of a taught, simplified and/or semantic definition is ineffective and the processes of retrieving content from memory depends more on the basis of triggers to conceptual understanding drawn from examples that access mental representations than from definitions (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1987:344). Therefore, it is the right triggers (those which help the pupil to connect with deeper, developing conceptualisations rather than shallower, automatic verbalisations) that have to be established.

Furthermore, Vygotsky posits that meaning exists only in that context and that the transference of that learning from the 'original taught experience to another context is incredibly problematic': even in the transitional age, the adolescent thinking is hampered when the concept is torn from the concrete situation in which it was used:

The application of experience to entirely different domains, the process of transferring concepts, presents much greater difficulty. (1987:161)

That said, the teachers reported generic and specific examples of their pupils being able to transfer their learning and use their grammatical terminology in other contexts. For example, one teacher recounted that her pupils in a Religious Education lesson had been keen to tell her: 'Oh I've put in a relative clause and I've used a relative pronoun' (T1,2:1). These reports were suggestive of positive, proud pupils who were beginning to develop a confidence in their use of grammatical terminology. Therefore, the findings relating to difficulty in identification may reflect the influence of contextual difference. Any difficulty in transfer to a new domain may reflect this different experience.

The teachers also reported pupils as being able to demonstrate taught grammatical devices or use certain grammatical structures effectively in their writing, in spite of being unable to identify them or discuss their effectiveness. According to Van Gelderen (2010:109-110), this still has much merit:

If teaching explicit linguistic rules and terminology is not as efficient as we would like, this does not exclude approaches to grammar teaching directed at the implicit learning of structures.

According to Van Gelderen (2010:111), 'Implicit approaches aim at developing grammatical intuitions by confronting students with exemplars of the target structures without explicit metalanguage or rules'. This would seem to be in line with the theme of 'absorbing' terminology: a repeated feature of some teacher responses during the teacher interview. However, it is possible to argue that both implicit and explicit approaches are useful. As Van Gelderen (2010:124) argues, it can be hard to trigger some explicit forms by presenting lots of examples in texts.

Conversely, the findings suggested that the application of grammatical terminology contextualised in a text (rather than a practical activity) was the most difficult of all activities for the pupils. For example, when asked to identify effective word choices as word classes within their writing, the pupils were usually hesitant and sometimes did not reply at all, looking distractedly over their writing until the discussion moved on. 'I'm just looking', said one pupil when gently prompted (PG1,1:1). This was even the case for the higher proficiency writers within the group. For example, one pupil (PG1,1:1) - a very competent, well-motivated writer who had demonstrated a strong level of grammatical declarative knowledge in all aspects of the findings - was uncertain when considering someone else's writing. In response to the writing conference question: *Which do you think is your best use of a verb, noun or adjective?* she tried to help her friend. Reading her friend's work, she said tentatively: 'Sprayed...that is a verb...or...an adjective...? Sprayed...Hmm.' She paused to think about this before looking over to me for confirmation. In the context of this writing, 'sprayed' was a verb taking a subject complement with a clear past tense form ('ed'). In this moment, her verbal definition did not support her, despite the ease and pride with which she had been able to display this. Han and Ellis (1998:6) identify the criteria of 'accessibility' and 'awareness' and suggest that explicit knowledge such as this which is stored

consciously (though may or may not involve metalingual knowledge) can only be accessed with controlled effort. This suggests that this pupil's processing speed was slowed down in this different usage context; that she had not yet reached automatised knowledge where usage will 'no longer diminish our pool of attentional resources' (Dakowska 2005:128), particularly given the additional complication of manipulating a grammatical term in an unfamiliar text. Bialystok (1990) argues that language tasks calling for disembodied language use and the manipulation of complex formal schemata require access to analysed linguistic knowledge and, as such, cannot be accessed easily and rapidly.

Other interview questions within the writing conference were less explicit in their expectation or demonstration of grammatical terminology. This was intentional, aimed at minimising any potential cognitive barriers or psychological constraints and thereby providing the pupils with opportunities to demonstrate their own 'experience and understanding' (Kolln and Gray 2017:5). Thus, the pupils had the opportunity to use grammatical terminology spontaneously and in natural and integrated ways. However, there was minimal evidence of this occurring, as can be seen in the following examples. Upon being asked to justify their *favourite words and phrases; the ones with which they are most pleased*, their responses included:

Sarah: I put 'He showed signs of manic behaviour.' And I put this one because it's a powerful word and it describes what he was doing.

Tilly: On the first one I put: 'The sentence is 'The reason for his actions is he was under the influence of a powerful drug.' And I put 'because the sentence flows and I've got good words like influence'. (PG1,1:1)

In the first example, 'manic' was referred to as a 'powerful word' rather than an adjective in spite of her own use of 'describes', which might have at least prompted "describing word" - and then *adjective*. In the second example, 'the influence' (noun) is described as a 'good word' even though the determiner 'the' is a clear noun signaller. These pupils were proficient writers who had accurately completed the subject knowledge table; had ticked most of the grammatical terms to record understanding in the pupil questionnaire and who had engaged confidently and competently in the pupil interview tasks. Yet they did not automatically include any of the declarative grammatical terminology, which they had previously defined and exemplified in isolation or had perceived themselves to know and understand, even though their chosen sentences facilitated this. This was in spite of having been given thinking time, and having been taught adjectives and nouns (throughout Key Stage 2 at least). Instead, they resorted to more generic, lower level labelling of terms: 'powerful' and 'good'. This suggested that the pupils were finely tuned into the qualities of language and an understanding of meaning and effect of their own writing upon the reader but, as of yet, were unable to draw upon their store of declarative knowledge and convert this into knowledge represented through grammatical terminology. Ellis (1994) claims that implicit and explicit knowledge are separate. Nevertheless, the question remains to what extent these two aspects can interface, or rather to what extent declarative knowledge and grammatical terminology can. In terms of grammatical terminology, it is therefore important that the teacher is cognisant of the purpose of application and the explicit teaching and learning that it is designed to bring about.

Final assertion 6: Grammatical terminology had different levels of difficulty in different contexts with the use of terminology in talking about texts (including their own writing) as the most difficult application of all.

5.3 Purpose and value

5.3.1 Writing instruction versus writing authentically

The findings suggested that the pupils and teachers most commonly ascribed the purpose of grammatical terminology to one of two purposes: (i) increasing future education and employment prospects and (ii) increasing competency as a writer. There is always the danger that the concept learned in school will remain a verbalism rather than a true concept unless or until it is applied to situations or phenomena encountered by students in their everyday lives. However, even when talking about value, the teachers' and pupils' comments lacked detail. For example, the lack of clarity in purpose and value led a teacher to ask: 'Do they need to say what it is if they can already use it?' At another time, a pupil raised the same question: 'Do we really need to know this?' This seemed to run as an undercurrent to their stated beliefs, reflecting Bell's (2016:160) findings of an 'apparent inconsistency in staff beliefs about the value and purpose' which was not always supported by 'comments made in informal conversation'.

Part of the challenge of teaching and learning grammatical terminology lies in establishing what that everyday application of grammatical terminology might look like. Vygotsky argues that, typically, a scientific concept has no historical development, no link to personal experience, no spontaneous usage in everyday concrete situations, therefore motivation is potentially an inherent weakness of scientific concepts. The inverse is true of spontaneous concepts and positive examples of 'reading' and 'being a reader' can be found easily within the findings of this study (e.g. the pupil questionnaire demonstrated very high levels of confidence for pupils' self-perceptions as readers). Therefore, given the high levels of syntactical abstraction within grammatical terminology, it is important to try to ascertain the nature, purpose and value which may, in turn, illuminate motive. As Vygotsky writes: 'No psychological analysis of an utterance is complete until that plane is reached' (1987:253).

As grammatical terminology is often situated within writing, it is important to consider the nature of motive for writing. The findings suggested that the pupils had the least motivation of all for writing. As one pupil said (and others around the table nodded in agreement): 'And we hate, hate writing'.

Within the pupil questionnaires, writing was perceived in terms of transcriptional skills with the physical strain of handwriting alongside the need to maintain concentration over a prolonged period of time emerging as significant themes. Self-perception ratings were the lowest of all for writing, in stark contrast to the enthusiasm and confidence expressed for reading, and the enthusiasm observed in relation to reading children's literature in class. The pupils' negativity towards writing sat in juxtaposition to the perceived ease of the SPaG test (DfE 2013b), which did indeed enable the pupils to focus on "one thing at once", albeit devoid of an authentic and meaningful context. In this way, there was an implied incongruence between the teachers' attitudes and beliefs and those of the pupils, and potentially between the teachers' espoused beliefs and their actual practice. These were teachers who communicated a passionate commitment to children's literature. Reading

and writing were highly valued, and the teachers spoke of the importance of the pupils having 'lots of opportunities to write'.

Vygotsky maintains that although writing enhances the intellectuality of the child's actions, even in its minimal development writing is challenging and requires a high level of abstraction. He posits that writing has the longest journey of all to make, from the initial thought to inner speech, to word meanings, to external speech as the written word on the page. However, unlike speech, the motives for writing are more abstract and more detached from immediate needs of reality. Vygotsky identifies motive as the most significant component of this writing journey, as the element at the very beginning and as the deepest, most inward plane:

Thought is not the last of these planes. It is not born of other thoughts. Thought has its origins in the motivating sphere of consciousness, a sphere that includes our inclinations and needs, our interests and impulses, and our affect and emotion. The affective-volitional tendency stands behind every thought (1987:282).

Therefore, it could have been that the motive for writing was reduced by the nature of this writing which, as part of teaching writing explicitly, seemed very structured and pre-determined. While there is an important place for writing instruction that makes explicit, through teaching strategies such as demonstrations, "think-alouds" and practice examples, the implicit knowledge and understanding of the mature writer and the technical tools and conventions of writing, it may have been that this view of writing dominated the writing curriculum to too great an extent. It could be inferred that the many "writing opportunities" were characterised by writing instruction and writing practice and that this was in the absence of opportunities enabling the pupils to apply through exploration and experimentation their writing instruction to real-life, personally meaningful writing.

In her book, *The Right to Write*, Cameron (2000:xvi) talks about 'writing for the sake of writing'. In answering the question of purpose, 'Why should we write?' she states:

...writing brings clarity and passion to the act of living. Writing is sensual, experiential grounding. We should write because writing is good for the soul.

Graves (1983:3) describes children's natural desire to write, to mark up walls, pavements, newspapers with chalks and crayons long before school begins in order that they might say, 'I am'. McCormick Calkins (1991:23) posits that 'reading and writing are ways in which human beings find significance and direction, beauty and intimacy, in their lives' and recommends the freer, more collaborative classroom space of the Writing Workshop to enable this to happen. However, in contrast, it is interesting to note that there is no "writing for pleasure" equivalent to the current "reading for pleasure" movement included within the National Curriculum (e.g. DfE 2013a:41). Similarly, there seems to be no distinction made between helping pupils to learn to write alongside helping them to become writers who chose to write for their own enjoyment and satisfaction, as there is for reading. In this way, the emphasis on the enjoyment of reading sits in stark contrast to the 'negative mythology that surrounds the writing life in our culture' (Cameron 2000:xvi). Existing research and academic literature suggest many alternative writing-related perspectives and approaches. This includes the socio-cultural orientation of critical literacy, which deals with notions of discourse and power within what are non-neutral texts and positions (Janks, Dixon, Ferreira, Granville & Newfield 2014) and

rhetical grammar analysis framed as the art of using language effectively in the choices made about sentence structure and vocabulary (Kolln and Gray 2017).

This underlines the importance of re-considering the purpose and value of writing in order to find ways of increasing their intrinsic motivation as writers at school. This would lead to a better understanding of the purpose and value of grammatical terminology as positioned within school writing and thereby increase pupil motivation for a phenomenon inherently weak in motivation (Vygotsky 1987).

Within the findings, there was very little evidence of grammatical terminology being taught or talked about in relation to authorial choice, control, meaning and effect. This is discussed further in 5.4.2. That said, the key issue lies in the tensions created by what Hedegaard (2017) terms the motives and demands (in this case, pupils' and teachers' 'motives' versus curriculum and assessment 'demands') and the conflicting purposes and values within them, constraining any possible re-conceptualisations. There were a range of examples alluding to this, including around target setting. For example, during the writing conference, Kelly's responses suggested that the terms were completely devoid of meaning, other than perhaps being a school mantra:

Kelly: I will improve verbs, adverbs and put more punctuation in.

Me: Oh why is that then?

Kelly: Because I don't use a lot of verbs, adjectives and punctuation.

(PG1,1:1)

This may reflect the educational context and the pressure of high stakes accountability and assessment that frame – and constrain – teachers' day-to-day pedagogical decision-making and dilemmas. As previously stated, the second most prominent purpose within the findings was related to increasing the pupils' future education and employment prospects. This reflects the National Curriculum stated aims of teaching 'essential knowledge that they need to be educated citizens' (DfE 2013a:6) and, while this is certainly not without huge importance, it reflects a performative, skills-based context within which writing, grammar and grammatical terminology sit.

Final assertion 7: The purpose and value of grammatical terminology was not clearly articulated and, while its purpose was typically associated with improving writing, the value of grammar and grammatical terminology within this did not seem to be clearly understood.

5.4 Teaching and learning

5.4.1 Listening versus collaborating

Initially, the findings suggested that the pupils perceived teacher explanations negatively (Pupil interviews). For example, when watching the video lesson, some pupils suggested the video learning was too passive and that the video teacher needed to incorporate more active, practical teaching strategies into her teaching. Amelia seemed quite indignant: 'She's just putting it in [relative clause] ...she hasn't taught them, she's

shown... She just said, 'Here's a sentence. Put that there... Like she weren't asking for their advice'. A negative attitude was also communicated via the pupil questionnaires, albeit indirectly through metareflective comments such as: 'I have a short attention span' (PG1,1:1); 'This is quite boring but I will listen so I understand' (PG2,1:1) and 'I get distracted easily' (PG2,2:2).

Therefore, it was surprising to note that, within the pupil questionnaires, many pupils ticked *when my teacher explains it* as the preferred way of learning grammatical terminology (in preference to: *talking about it with others* and *doing a practical activity*) and, despite a sense of traditional and didactic approaches (e.g. 'It helps me when 'she says it over and over again' PG2,1:1), views about teacher explanations were still positive. Potentially, this reflected Vygotsky's assertion that scientific concepts require instruction, without which they are not accessible to the child (1987).

However, on closer examination of the triangulated data, it was concluded that it was monologic teacher talk that the pupils did not like - the talk in which pupils were not involved (and the talk which was mainly demonstrated in the video clip). Conversely, it was the co-construction of declarative knowledge that was important to the pupils. For example, one pupil explained: 'our teacher will involve us... And she'll ask us, 'What do you think? What words shall - ?' It seemed that, no matter how clear, precise and accurate the teacher's explanations might be (and the video teacher was also considered to be 'clear' in her explanations by the pupils), the pupils perceived the need to be involved in the process of constructing meaning. As Davydov (1993) argues, teachers cannot impose their ideas; true learning is created through collaboration.

This would seem to reflect Vygotsky's criticism of 'the method of definition' (1987:121). This method involves:
the study of fully developed and fully formed concepts through the use of verbal definitions... This method deals with the results of the completed process of concept formation, with the ready-made product of that process.

Thus, Vygotsky suggests that in presenting fully formed explanations to the pupils:

we are frequently dealing less with the child's thinking than with his reproductions of a particular concept, we are studying... his verbal development more than we are studying his thinking in the true sense of the word. (1987:121)

Therefore, it can be inferred that the pupils were also aware of a lack of need for 'thinking', resulting in pupil perceptions of teacher explanations sometimes being 'boring' (PG2,1:1).

That said, the findings suggested some caveats around this. On a one-to-one basis, it seemed that the teacher's explanations sometimes caused pupils to retreat from the potential intellectual exchange. This could be seen when a teacher asked Jess if she would like help (LO2,2:1). Jess did not want to engage in this dialogue and the teacher sensitively moved away. While this may be for a wide range of social and personal reasons, it potentially illuminated the pedagogical challenges for the teacher trying to open up the pupils' talking and thinking in a dialogic (rather than monologic) way (Alexander 2002). Furthermore, it could be inferred that the teacher's own modelling of grammatical terminology reduced the potential for discussion in the 'dialogic space' (Wegerif 2013) closing down the space available for the child's own metalinguistic thinking

and talking. Barker, Quennerstedt and Annerstedt (2015:422) maintains that it is important that the teacher does not take over, with a kind of 'front-load and support'. This was in line with the findings, which suggested that the pupils did not like the dominance of the teacher's presence; that explanations were welcome as long as they were not too long, that the teachers' help was appreciated as long as their ideas did not take over. Vygotsky (1987) recognised that the adult can be overactive in a learning situation and that this will not support the child's learning. The child must be actively engaged in an activity in order to learn (Stone 2012:281).

It may have also reflected pupil anxiety about "getting it wrong". As one pupil wrote in the pupil questionnaire: 'It is always hard and if I answer wrong it would be embarrassing' (PG1,1:1). This was reminiscent of the 'fearfulness' often reported by adults (Wilson & Myhill 2012:11). Therefore, in that moment, Jess possibly needed more 'space' to process or produce her own metatalk (not typically *her* own language) in response to the teacher's comments and questions. The challenge here would seem to be in giving the right feedback and posing the right questions at the right time. This can be related back to Vygotsky's ZPD, which affords valuable assessment opportunities. This is of fundamental importance. According to Vygotsky, through assessing a child's ZPD (1978:84) the teacher is able to better identify the child's maturing intellectual functions. The assessment goal is to externalise the learner's internal cognitive processes. However, this is exacerbated by the nature of the grammatical terminology being both the medium and the object of instruction. Thus, the findings suggested that the use of independent practical activities would provide valuable assessment opportunities.

Final assertion 8: Dialogic rather than monologic approaches (e.g. teacher explanations and pupil discussions) which prioritised the co-construction of meaning grammatical terminology (above presenting meaning in a finished form) were valued most highly by pupils.

5.4.2 Activeness versus challenge

The findings suggested that there was a disparity between the teachers and the pupils regarding the notion of *activeness* (as opposed to passivity) and *activity* – a distinction drawn from Activity theory (Engeström, Miettinen & Punamäki 1999:21). The pupils' activeness was particularly important to the teachers. A key finding (Teacher interviews, Lesson observations) was one of keeping the pupils engaged with swift changes of focus delivered through multisensory approaches. The teachers perceived maintaining the pupils' attention, engagement, enthusiasm and motivation as a key goal, given the abstract and inherently challenging nature of grammatical terminology. For example: 'That's what my class need, they need straightforward instructions and lots of changes', otherwise they 'wouldn't take any of it in' (T1,2:1).

The findings suggested that pupils also valued activeness and in the Pupil questionnaire (e.g. *doing a practical activity* was the third most preferred approach to learning grammatical terminology). They valued the multisensory approaches and the context of interesting texts (their class novel, for example). But they also

wanted to be challenged *through* an activity and, in fact, there was more evidence of this being important in the comments they made than the notion of activeness, particularly in the pupil interviews (see 5.2.4).

But the pupils also intimated that there could be too much challenge. This seemed to be related to the activeness that was created which led to multiple grammar-related tasks or contextualised tasks rooted in real language use, giving the pupils too much to think about at the same time. Some pupils talked about this being 'confusing' and suggested instead that they did 'only one thing at once':

I prefer a separate activity....because you can concentrate on it more because on the other one I find it, when we did the paragraph I find it quite hard because we had to like look and get evidence from the book and do all the relatives and drop-in clauses and stuff like that. (PG1,2:1)

Therefore, this suggested that the pupils' preference for challenge needed to be restricted. This was reminiscent of Vygotsky's ZPD through which he maintained that although 'in collaboration the child can always do more than he can independently...he cannot do infinitely more' (1987:209). Rather, the child 'is restricted to limits which are determined by the state of his development and his intellectual potential' (ibid). Consequently, as the previous pupil intimated: 'the only "good learning" is that which is in advance of development' (Vygotsky 1978:89).

Perhaps as a result, evidence of impact and meaning did not emerge as a strong theme in the findings (only by its absence). Pupils did not talk extensively or in detail about this, either spontaneously or in response to research questions. This was not particularly strongly evidenced within the teaching and sometimes the teachers' comments seemed to fall short of this next step in the process. For example: 'If you haven't got many adjectives, can you see where you can put some more in?' rather than perhaps asking whether *any more are needed and, if so, why?*

The teachers seemed passionate about literature and enabling pupils to become confident readers and writers. However, while there was evidence of quality children's literature being contextualised in a meaning-oriented manner (e.g. drama devices of visualisation to create images based on Kensuke's Kingdom), this focused on the construction of semantic meaning rather than the contribution that syntactic devices might make to achieving particular effects. There was less evidence of the applied use of grammar through the consideration of linguistic meaning, in spite of the use of authentic texts in which to contextualise it. Therefore, it could be inferred that the Programme of Study for grammar and SPAG had shifted the teachers' attention (consciously or unconsciously) away from the interpretation of meaning through a grammatical lens onto a different conceptualisation of grammar. Instead of seeing grammar as a resource for shaping meaning (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014), it seemed to have a content-specific focus dominated by the identification of grammatical terminology, albeit in the context of texts. Indeed, one teacher described grammar 'as the new driver' of the English curriculum. Watson and Newman (2017:383) ask whether this reveals that teachers are reflecting a focus on metalanguage and text rather than cognition (psychology) and meaning in a social context. Thus, the findings seemed to suggest a collision of prescriptive and descriptive principles and approaches i.e. even though grammar teaching was contextualised in a text, the approach tended to be somewhat decontextualised.

Myhill (2005:82) raises the question of what we mean by contextualised approaches to writing. She argues, there has been 'little genuine discussion or consideration of what "in context" means' and that lesson observations suggested that "in context" may simply mean "not decontextualized". This seemed to be bound up in notions of "practise and apply" and of 'fitting everything in', no doubt exacerbated by the expectations of the National Curriculum (DfE 2013a) and the SPaG test (DfE 2013b). The result seemed to be a fragmented and formulaic approach to writing in which the pupils attempted to demonstrate their ability to use the target grammatical devices. Within the study's findings, it ultimately seemed to be the case that within multilayered or cumulative independent tasks, the greatest challenge occurred when a task to practise a grammatical feature was positioned alongside a task requiring its application.

Final assertion 9: Contextualised grammar teaching was perceived positively and was motivational. However, there seemed to be a disconnect between the teaching of grammatical terminology as skills (prescriptive approach) and the use of it to explore meaning and effect in texts (descriptive approach) but a practical synthesis of the two in a single contextualised activity posed too great a challenge, with meaning and effect being compromised.

5.4.3 Creating meaning with peers: re-construction versus co-construction

The data from the pupil interviews and lesson observations suggested that peer talk was a significant element in the construction of meaning and, indeed, was rated as the second preferred approach (*talking about it with others*) after that of teacher explanations. At times, this took the form of the co-construction of existing knowledge (e.g. fragments of subordinate clause) and had the purpose of collective recall. In this way, the act of naming – or re-naming (through recall) – can be seen as a social activity (Vygotsky 1987). Vygotsky argues that the child's speech is not the personal activity of the child and concepts cannot grow without social interaction. Therefore, Vygotsky argues, social interaction and generalisation are internally connected – an idea encapsulated within the ZPD. Here, the pupils' development is described as existing on two planes. One that is socially-mediated (intermental) and one that is individually-mediated (intramental). These two principles of meaning-making are essential to thinking about how higher order mental functions evolve:

Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first *between* people (interpsychological), and then *inside* the child' (intrapsychological). (Vygotsky 1978:57)

At other times, pupil talk took more of an exploratory form with the purpose of creating meaning that was new together. The findings suggested that it was most likely to occur authentically and extensively where pupils were engaged in a more creative, collaborative, investigative activity, particularly if the activity was perceived to be fun and laughter was evident. Here, one pupil was quick to make the association between fun and recall, enthusing: 'it makes it easier to remember if you're having fun' (PG1,1:1). The element of challenge within the creative act of problem-solving was also highly significant. The teachers explained the puzzles and challenges they liked to present their pupils with in order to interest them and the pupils talked about wanting to be

'interested'. For example, the pupils reported enjoying the challenge of the teachers' intentional grammatical mistakes:

Because she gives us like a sentence which is proper badly wrong with all like bits of grammar stuff and then we've got to do that. I like it when they do that, not when they are just examples and it's all exactly right.

This reflected Vygotsky's thinking that word meanings as processes should be directed towards the 'solution of a given task' and, in doing so, 'are thereby introduced into a new combination of synthesis' (1987:131). What is central to this 'new, essential and conceptual feature' of concept formation is the functional use of the word for forming concepts. The concept only arises as a result of the solution of this problem (Vygotsky 1987:164).

It could be argued that activities combining problem-solving with game play or design offer the most in terms of learning potential for grammatical terminology (i.e. across cognitive, affective and social domains). For example, the dominoes-based grammar terminology game based on justifying connections between terms (enthusiastically retitled "Gramminoes" by the pupils) enabled the pupils to make connections across their word class declarative knowledge as an integral part of playing an interesting, challenging game with others. Peering and pointing at the "dominoes" of grammatical terms arranged on the table top, one pupil demonstrated her ability to generalise concepts by musing:

I think they all link together because there's a verb and an adverb describe the verb and an adjective is a describing word.

This was suggestive of the horizontal relationships between concepts posited by Vygotsky (see 5.2.5).

The pupil findings suggested that they intuitively understood that they 'must be actively engaged in an activity in order to learn' (Stone 2012:281); that 'knowing is literally something which we do' (Dewey 1916:331). A strength of the classroom teaching (and the research tools) would seem to lie in the convergence of a variety of approaches. Tolstoy (1903) maintains that concepts form in more subtle and roundabout ways. Engelstrom et al. (talking of Vygotsky's work) (1999:59) refers to this as a 'constellation of practical activities' which gives language a definite meaning. The Apprenticeship approach in thinking (Rogoff 1990), being explicitly aligned with Vygotskian thinking, also emphasises the importance of problem-solving. Rogoff defines this problem-solving as the 'active nature of thinking' (1990:9), thus reinforcing Vygotskian theory that the formation of concepts occurs whenever the learner is faced with the task of resolving some problem. Stone (2012) concurs and maintains that in this way creativity relates to culturally created concepts arising in contradiction (2012:279). Through the communicative and collaborative practice of a game or a problem-solving activity, a shared understanding of meaning is made, and the interest, enjoyment and satisfaction involved in doing so increases pupil motivation alongside meaning. In this way, the learning becomes very much a social process as well as an affective and a cognitive one (Rogoff 1990:9).

Final assertion 10: Undertaking and creating investigative, problem-solving activities and games with peers to re-construct, but particularly to co-construct, meaning engendered high levels of thinking, motivation, self-differentiation and interest, and therefore seemed to have the potential to progress concept formation.

5.4.4 Repetition as rote learning versus development over time

The pupils and teachers were consistent in their views that repetition was helpful in enabling them to learn grammatical terminology. For example, one pupil suggested that, 'Every month just like have a couple of lessons to go over it so then we can do it in our writing so then we can do it again'. Another pupil recommended: 'Repeat it, repeat it, repeat it.' This was interesting as it was typically *not* to do with the challenge of "new learning", which seemed to contradict the pupils' perspectives on repetition and practice (see 5.4.3). In this way, there seemed to be a disconnect between the pupils' expectations i.e. repetition seemed acceptable, and even necessary, within the skills-based sessions but less so within that of the main lesson. While one pupil did raise the idea of self-differentiation within practice tasks, this was not common in spite of many of the pupils seeming very aware of their own learning processes. In the skills-based part of the lesson, repetition was related to the goal of remembering. Perhaps then because the purpose was clear - and no doubt linked to the SPaG test (DfE 2013b) - the pupils were 'accepting' of it in this context (T2,2:1). Brown (2009) suggests that most pupils expect it and feel that it helps.

The perception of the usefulness of repetition was even stronger in relation to the notion of learning over time. The findings suggested that the teachers had felt there had been - and still was - a lot to cover. The teachers talked about 'quick fixes' and new terminology being introduced at a 'rate of knots' (T1,2:1), something that Gredler (2012:126) terms a "sprint and cover" approach to address at a surface level as much of the content as possible. One teacher admitted that she had not yet been able to look beyond the Programme of Study for Year 5. A consistent view was that this would improve with time; that teaching grammatical terms throughout school starting earlier (at Key Stage 1) would support, if not ensure, later learning in Year 5 and Year 6. This was based on the pupils' and teachers' previous experiences. For example, the pupils in the Pupil interviews equated the "easier" grammatical terms with those that had been taught the earliest or for the longest number of years (e.g. 'we did that in Year 2') and the teachers often drew parallels with maths terminology which had been successfully embedded as a result of a consistent whole school approach.

The notion of conceptual development over time is supported by Vygotsky's theory of conceptual development. Vygotsky writes that when a child first learns a new word, he has only the 'vague representation' of the word (1987:172). The process of development has not finished, rather it has only just begun and will continue to shift back and forth from scientific to spontaneous many times, forming as the child engages with 'an extraordinary effort of his own thought' (176). Over time, the scientific thinking plays a leading role in the development of the spontaneous thinking, facilitating 'a move upwards toward abstraction and generalization' (ibid:168):

Concepts themselves are the product of the long and complex process that constitutes the development of the child's thinking. (1987:164)

It can be argued that this notion of development over time is built into the National Curriculum in a number of different ways (e.g. by stipulating the Year group when grammatical terminology should *begin* and by the year-by-year progression within the List of terminology). For example, subordination is first identified as an area of teaching for Year 2 pupils (6-7-year-olds) as: 'subordination (using when, if, that, or because) and co-ordination (using or, and, or but)' (DfE 2013a). This is presumably in preparation for *clause* and *subordinate*

clause in Years 3-4 and then *relative clause* and *relative pronoun* in Years 5-6 (DfE 2013a). In this way, the Programme of Study (DfE 2013a) would seem to concur that Vygotsky's system of relations of generality among concepts is important as part of a whole school approach, supporting the case for the conceptual mapping of grammatical terminology across the curriculum.

However, Vygotsky also argues that the young child cannot rise above this level in the way that the adolescent can. Therefore, because the Key Stage 1 pupil and the early Key Stage 2 pupil has not mastered the conceptual system, they are bound to it. This could account for why, within this study, the pupils had persistent and ongoing difficulties around *adjectives*, *nouns* and *verbs*, suggesting that achieving this level of automaticity was not only problematic, it had not been achieved thus far (in spite of having had years of teaching). Vygotsky maintained that, 'Words don't just change according to increased teaching/instruction'. Instead they change as the child develops and with the various ways in which thought functions develop. This casts doubt upon the assertion that increasing teaching by starting at an earlier age will achieve automaticity and posits that indeed maturation is an important condition to consider. In fact, seen through a Vygotskian lens, it could be argued that the Year 2 pupils' thinking will be constrained because certain higher intellectual functions, including awareness of mental operations, are not available until adolescence (Howe 1996:37). This potentially has implications for the grammatical terms taught to the lower attaining pupils (see 5.2.4). Stipek (2006:455) warns of the pressure to teach academic skills at lower levels because of the No Child Left Behind legislation related to the belief of policy makers that an early start on teaching academic skills can help children meet the standards set for elementary school. Rather the curriculum needs building to enable concepts to grow.

However, this would seem to be problematic for grammatical terminology. Vygotsky writes that scientific concepts are more about systems of knowledge (SPaG test) than acts of communication (National Curriculum) but national policy would seem to imbue grammatical word meanings with the need to be both: i.e. a system of knowledge *requiring* a communicative function. This dual purpose is reflective of dualism in activity theory (i.e. the basic and the applied) and, in doing so, return discussions to the complex notion of declarative knowledge leading to procedural knowledge.

Final assertion 11: Repetition to support recall was perceived positively by pupils and teachers but risked grammatical terminology being understood as something to be rote learned over time rather than developed as a true concept.

5.4.5 Automaticity versus mediated recall

The findings suggested that difficulty with the recall of grammatical terminology was perceived as being highly significant, both by pupils and teachers. It was the most significant and consistent theme across both cases (and the pilot study). For example, in response to the question *What do you think is hard about learning grammar words?* most pupils made reference to *remembering*:

In remembering what they mean. (PG1,1:1)
You can't remember. (PG2,1:1)
Can't remember it the next day. (PG1,2:1)
It is hard to remember the meaning of the word. (PG2,2:1)

From the pupils' perspectives, this was regardless of writing proficiency and included those pupils who were able to write a taught definition and example in the pupil questionnaire and who demonstrated a higher level of metareflection in the pupil interviews. Therefore, while the higher proficiency writers were more articulate in explaining their difficulties with recall, the issue was still one of recall.

That said, the findings also suggested that the ability to recall looked different for different pupils (Pupil interviews, Teacher interviews) (see 5.2.4). Vygotsky (1998) posits that the relationship between memory and thinking is an inverted one for the young child, with the focus being always on remembering as much as possible, recalling concrete examples or concrete situations. As can be seen in Vygotsky's stages of concept formation (see 5.2.4), the pupil does not yet possess the character of an abstraction and his definition of a concept is 'to a large degree a product of recollection' (Vygotsky 1998:95). Vygotsky writes:

The content of the thinking act in the child when defining such concepts is determined not so much by the logical structure of the concept itself as by the child's concrete recollections. It is syncretic in character and reflects the fact that the child's thinking depends first of all on his memory. (Vygotsky 1978:50)

The findings suggested that recall was often the first step in the sequence of steps (e.g. 'Who can remember what we did last time?'), commandeering the pupil's cognitive energies from the start and leaving less capacity for the more important, higher order tasks of, say, applying and analysing (Anderson and Krathwohl 2001). Thus, an unusual paradox seems evident in which the teachers may have inadvertently reinforced "recall as a way of thinking", which may have reduced the cognitive space available for the intended higher order thinking, thereby limiting the development of true concept formation over time (Vygotsky 1987:122).

This paradox would seem to be bound up in the notion of automaticity typically associated with recall as the lowest-order skill. Adams (2015:152) cites knowing multiplication tables by rote as a qualitatively different type of thinking than applying multiplication skills through solving "word problems" (ibid). She posits that this recall skill reflects '*Knowledge*': the lowest-order skill of six cognitive skills in Bloom's classification system (Bloom et al. 1956). Adams argues that knowledge 'can be assessed by straightforward means, for example, multiple choice or short-answer questions that require the retrieval or recognition of information' i.e. simple recall of facts.

This can be related to the context of the SPaG test (DfE 2013b) and perhaps explains why many pupils perceived this test as being "easy". However, a technical report on 'English, Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling Test' (Standards and Testing Agency 2013:42-43) suggests that this ease of recall knowledge was not the case for test questions requiring *Knowledge of technical language* (KTL). The report found that: (i) there was a marked difference in pupil performance between questions requiring KTL and those not requiring KTL (even for the same word class) and that (ii) questions without KTL were considerably easier to answer correctly than those with KTL. The report concluded that, despite the marked difference, questions with KTL

were not cognitively more demanding but suggested instead that they had a higher working memory requirement. Therefore, questions requiring recall of grammatical terminology were harder to answer correctly due to their higher working memory requirement.

This suggests that a pupil's natural tendency towards, and reliance upon, recall as a way of thinking is stymied further by the very nature of grammatical terminology which, given its highly abstract form, does not lend itself easily to providing the pupil with tangible "concrete recollections". When Vygotsky writes: 'For the young child, to think means to recall; but for the adolescent, to recall means to think' (1978:50), it suggests that this difficulty may lead to confusion, frustration, anxiety for some pupils as they try to resolve this; as they try to *remember* while at the same time trying to actively *think*. This was reflected in the teachers' comments such as:

Oh well you can try this word and you could try that.' but they're too busy focused on 'Oh what's an adjective, I don't know what an adjective is.' or whatever it might be. (T1,1:1)

Therefore, it may be that the highly abstract nature of grammatical terminology renders it unavailable for automatic recall as a typical lower-order skill (at least for primary pupils). This possibility could be hugely significant, resulting in a misdirection of the emphasis of pedagogical approaches, strategies and resources at the point of application. It suggests that the teacher needs to better support the pupils in the process of recall in order to free up the cognitive space needed for emerging intellectual thinking processes. Therefore, the expectation that remembering will become automatic over time (see 5.4.4), and at that point recalled easily as the first step in the process of application, could be misguided.

According to one pupil's metareflections, remembering was harder than understanding. At the point of teaching this lower attaining writer felt able to understand the grammatical terminology and thereby remember it. However, after a period of time, and in spite of this initial understanding, he found he was unable to remember it: 'Because when I understand then I remember them, but then after a bit I don't remember them.' It was interesting that this pupil was able to distinguish between the two processes of understanding and remembering and that he seemed to position 'understanding' before 'recall' as an intellectual process. Ultimately, it was the barrier of the so-called "lower order" skill of recall that was problematic and not that of understanding.

In order to try to maximise pupils' automatic recall at the point of use and minimise any negative impact on self-esteem, the findings suggested that a range of resources were made available. The pupils were positive about the resources available in their classrooms to support their learning, although expressed their frustrations when "working walls" were too small to see or were changed too soon to accommodate new topics.

This reflects Vygotsky's overarching position on the importance of mediation and his view that with the use of tools, especially psychological "tools" or "signs", human activity can be mediated. He maintains that the higher psychological functions of humans such as memory and cognition are a product of this mediated activity within the socio-historical context (Vygotsky 1987). In order to organise these ideas, Wertsch (2007:61)

differentiates between two general types of mediation, which he calls ‘explicit mediation’ and ‘implicit mediation’. While implicit mediation in the form of language (e.g. modelling provided by teacher and pupil talk; practice exercises in Basic/Key skills sessions) has been discussed, explicit mediation has not and so will be considered separately here.

Explicit mediation typically involves artificially and intentionally introduced cultural tools. Within this study, the findings from a range of sources (observations, interviews and questionnaires) suggested that the lessons were rich in resources that would seem effective in enhancing learning by supporting the pupils’ memory, concept formation, attention and motivation and interest, such as handouts, examples and colour-coded cards. It also enabled the pupils to work independently of the teacher, with the “help” of the teacher being “invisibly present” (Vygotsky, 1987:216). This reflected the teachers’ awareness of the challenge of recall, understanding and application of grammatical word meanings, especially for the lower attaining pupils.

However, this did not come without dilemmas. The teachers were troubled by how this was positioned in relation to their wider literacy practice and principles e.g. one teacher pulled back from designing a personalised resource for each pupil (which, given the pupils’ responses in the group interview, would have probably been very well received) as she feared this was a step too close to the creation of a SPaG test revision aid.

Final assertion 12: Unmediated recall was perceived as the most difficult aspect of all by pupils (across the writing attainment range) and teachers, and the highly abstract nature of grammatical terminology suggested that “remembering” did not precede “understanding” as an intellectual process.

5.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter Five has analysed the multicas e findings of this study. It has presented them as 12 dialectical contrasts, drawn together through the critical discussion of ideas. The findings have been illuminated by the work of Vygotsky, alongside the insights and ideas of other theorists, researchers and writers. Final assertions have been presented in a clear and accessible form at the end of each section, highlighting what has been interpreted as having greatest significance and implication, particularly in terms of national policy.

Chapter Five can be said to have come full circle, arriving back at the notion of recall and the different tools and signs which may mediate this most effectively (see 5.4.5), rather than (or in addition to) verbal definitions (see 5.2.1). In this way, there is a sense of “wholeness” or “interconnectedness” about the chapter, reminiscent of Vygotsky’s theoretical views and methodological approaches i.e. of the ebb and flow of his ideas through this complex and interconnected field.

Chapter Five has demonstrated a development in theoretical and pedagogical understanding. The 12 final assertions are now presented together (see Table 5) for completeness and mapped against the four research questions:

1. In what ways do the perspectives and practices of pupils and their teachers relate to national policy for the teaching of grammatical terminology?
2. What are the pupils' and teachers' perceptions of the nature, purpose and value of grammatical terminology?
3. What approaches and activities do the pupils and teachers perceive to be most effective in the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology?
4. In what ways are the multiple perspectives and practices of the pupils and teachers valuable in generating models of good practice for the teaching of grammatical terminology?

However, given the holistic and interrelated nature of this study, the mapping is a loose one as all findings relate to all research questions at some level.

Table 5.1: Final assertions mapped against the research questions

Research Questions	Final Assertions
RQ1, RQ2	1. Traditional semantic definitions and examples of grammatical terminology masked the true nature of a pupil's developing conceptual understanding.
RQ1, RQ2	2. Grammatical terms posed different kinds of difficulty (inherent in their different levels of abstraction) which suggested the need for different pedagogical approaches.
RQ1, RQ2	3. Teaching grammatical terminology was predominantly verbal in form; however, punctuation (e.g. indicating an understanding of complex sentence structure) was frequently communicated non-verbally and with great confidence, competence and enthusiasm. This suggested that other semiotic modes of developing grammatical terminology could be valuable in advancing conceptual development.
RQ1, RQ2	4. Pupils had different strengths and weaknesses in their developing grammatical terminology suggesting the need for deeper-level teacher assessment to inform teacher differentiation. Furthermore, pupils perceived appropriate levels of challenge to be very important and had clear ideas as to what would work for them as learners, suggesting the need for pupil self-differentiation and the creation of personal mediation tools.
RQ1, RQ2	5. Grammatical terms were taught and practised predominantly in isolation from other terms, though there was evidence of the use of semantic relations to explain new terminology. Therefore, strategies for developing relations between words, for increasing word consciousness and for word-learning strategies (i.e. to increase pupils' capacity to think in abstractions) were limited but teachers and pupils were responsive.
RQ1, RQ2	6. Grammatical terminology had different levels of difficulty in different contexts with the use of terminology in talking about texts (including their own writing) as the most difficult application of all.
RQ1, RQ2	7. The purpose and value of grammatical terminology was not clearly articulated and, while its purpose was typically associated with improving writing, the value of grammar and grammatical terminology within this did not seem to be clearly understood.
RQ3, RQ4	8. Dialogic rather than monologic approaches (e.g. teacher explanations and pupil discussions), which prioritised the co-construction of meaning of grammatical terminology (above presenting meaning in a finished form), were valued most highly by pupils.
RQ1, RQ3, RQ4	9. Contextualised grammar teaching was perceived positively and was motivational. However, there seemed to be a disconnect between the teaching of grammatical terminology as skills (prescriptive approach) and the use of it to explore of meaning and effect in texts (descriptive approach) but a practical synthesis of the two in a single contextualised activity posed too great a challenge, with meaning and effect being compromised.
RQ3, RQ4	10. Undertaking and creating investigative, problem-solving activities and games with peers to re-construct, but particularly to co-construct, meaning engendered high levels of thinking, motivation, self-differentiation and interest, and therefore seemed to have the potential to progress concept formation.
RQ1, RQ3, RQ4	11. Repetition to support recall was perceived positively by pupils and teachers but risked grammatical terminology being understood as something to be rote learned over time rather than developed as a true concept.
RQ1, RQ3, RQ4	12. Unmediated recall was perceived as the most difficult aspect of all by pupils (across the writing attainment range) and teachers, and the highly abstract nature of grammatical terminology suggested that "remembering" did not precede "understanding" as an intellectual process.

In Chapter Six, the final assertions are developed into recommendations for effective practice (although some re-alignment has meant that the final assertions and recommendations do not map directly onto each other). Key ideas are then presented diagrammatically as two models of practice. In this way, the thesis intends to communicate its proposed contribution to knowledge in accessible and purposeful ways.

CHAPTER SIX: CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This study has investigated the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology from the perspectives of pupils and their teachers within the context of the grammar in the Primary National Curriculum for English (DfE 2013a) and the SPaG test (DfE 2013b). Throughout this process, this study has adhered to the principles of the “whole” and has incorporated a dialectical approach to analysing the findings, in line with the established theoretical and methodological work of Vygotsky (1987) and Stake (2006).

This chapter presents two models for classroom practice: (i) a conceptual model (Model 1) (see Fig 6.2) and (ii) a pedagogical model (Model 2) (see Fig 6.3). The strength of these models lies in the alternative perspectives from which they have been drawn and, in this way, this thesis has addressed all research questions, culminating in the fourth:

1. In what ways do the perspectives and practices of pupils and their teachers relate to national policy for the teaching of grammatical terminology?
2. What are the pupils' and teachers' perceptions of the nature, purpose and value of grammatical terminology?
3. What approaches and activities do the pupils and teachers perceive to be most effective in the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology?
4. In what ways are the multiple perspectives and practices of the pupils and teachers valuable in generating models of effective practice for the teaching of grammatical terminology?

6.2 Recommendations

The recommendations for classroom practice are presented as a set of principles for effective pedagogy. These are in line with a descriptive view of grammar teaching and, as such, are committed to authentic language use and the creation of meaning through spoken and written discourse with open-ended opportunities to explore reading and writing as a community of language learners.

The recommendations have been attributed to one of two types, identified within this thesis as: *grammatical terminology per se* or *grammatical terminology in use*. (These are elaborated upon in 6.9). This thesis posits that the teacher needs to be cognisant of these different purposes when planning, teaching and assessing to ensure clarity of focus and to minimise potential cognitive overload on the pupils.

The phrase “word meaning” has been incorporated at this stage to better reflect the *conceptual* nature of grammatical terminology as opposed to its verbal definitional form. That said, this thesis posits that there is no distinction between the grammatical concept and the grammatical term: i.e. that, as a scientific concept, the grammatical term (e.g. *adjective*, *relative clause*) *is* the concept. This reflects Vygotskian theory and the findings of this study. For these reasons, “word meaning” is also incorporated into Model 2.

Thus, in light of the 12 final assertions, the study recommends that the teaching and learning of *grammatical terminology per se* should include:

1. **Word meaning which is shared:** i.e. the re-construction and co-construction of grammatical terminology per se through interactive teacher/pupil and pupil/pupil explanations, discussion and debate, the challenges they present and possible conceptual (rather than definitional) “triggers” to support recall of meaning;
2. **Word meaning which is personalised:** i.e. an active, autonomous and metareflective approach to developing grammatical terminology per se over time which assumes the individuality of the pupil and establishes pupil routines of recording their own ideas and understandings (e.g. in a personalised notebook);
3. **Word meaning which is focused:** i.e. an explicit focus on developing word consciousness, word-learning strategies and relations between grammatical terms to increase the conceptual understanding of grammatical terminology per se;
4. **Word meaning which is varied:** i.e. a multiplicity of pedagogical approaches to develop grammatical terminology per se (e.g. explanations, practical activities, investigations), incorporating semiotic modes of representation (e.g. visuals and metaphors), in order to minimise the cognitive pressure of verbal “unpacking”;
5. **Word meaning through problem-solving:** i.e. the development of grammatical terminology per se through the use of meaningful, motivational and fun investigations and problem-solving tasks and games, focused on the target grammatical feature;
6. **Word meaning which is challenging:** i.e. an appropriately high level of cognitive challenge for all pupils created through a combination of teacher differentiation and pupil self-differentiation (e.g. in determining their own levels of challenge) to learning grammatical terminology per se.

The study recommends that the teaching and learning of *grammatical terminology in use* should include:

7. **Word meaning which is developmental:** i.e. deeper-level teacher assessment to support planning, prioritising active teacher observation and listening during pupils’ independent learning activities and metacognitive reflections to ascertain as fully as possible the nature of the pupils’ developing conceptual understanding over time;
8. **Word meaning which is mediated:** i.e. the use of explicit and implicit mediational resources to: (i) reduce cognitive overload potentially created by the need to recall *grammatical terminology per se* at the point of use (e.g. in multi-layered or cumulative classroom tasks) and (ii) scaffold the pupils’

thinking and articulacy using grammatical terminology, thereby supporting the higher order skills of application, analysis, evaluation and creation at the point of use;

9. **Word meaning through choice and effect:** i.e. application to reading and writing contexts through descriptive approaches to exploring the meaning and effect of grammar choices (including less terminology-reliant activities, such as “discuss the difference” texts) which strengthen individual concept formation, cognitive connections and bridge the potential divide between decontextualised and contextualised approaches;
10. **Word meaning which is spontaneous:** i.e. a range of writing opportunities facilitating the spontaneous use of grammatical terminology (in addition to the explicit teaching of writing skills and declarative knowledge practice exercises) by enhancing pupils’ choice, control and motivation as writers;
11. **Word meaning which is creative:** i.e. an emphasis on the pupils’ motivation to create (e.g. their own mediational resources such as games and word-play; their own written texts with explicit grammatical intent) and thereby develop their capacity to think in abstractions;
12. **Word meaning as a whole school approach:** i.e. professional development, including the articulation of a shared understanding between teachers and pupils of the nature, purpose and value of grammatical terminology and its associated principles and practice within the context of their own school, and with full integration of pupil perspectives.

6.3 Models

These recommendations are represented diagrammatically as two models of effective practice. The accompanying discussion will explain and justify the key aspects of these models, without which it is difficult for a pedagogical approach to be transferred to existing classroom practice (Halliday 1967). This will be supported by key academic literature, including the continued use of the theoretical lens of Vygotskian theory. However, given the scope of this study, this discussion will be limited and, consequently, the 12 final assertions will be cross-referenced as appropriate rather than discussed again.

By way of an overview, the principle rationale underpinning Model 1 is the finding that recall of grammatical terminology was perceived to be the main barrier to pupil learning (Final assertion 12). It posits that, due to the complex and abstract nature of grammatical terminology, ‘remembering’ and ‘understanding’ should be positioned differently in relation to each other and in relation to the higher intellectual processes of ‘applying’, ‘analysing’, ‘evaluating’ and ‘creating’ (Anderson and Krathwohl 2001).

The principle rationale underpinning Model 2 is the finding that the application of grammatical terminology was perceived as the most challenging objective of pupil learning, with talking about written texts being the most difficult of all (Final assertion 6). The findings suggested that this difficulty reflected the need for remembering *and* understanding *grammatical terminology per se* at the point of application as *grammatical terminology in use*. Therefore, Model 2 advocates: (i) distinct foci for each of these two types of grammatical terminology

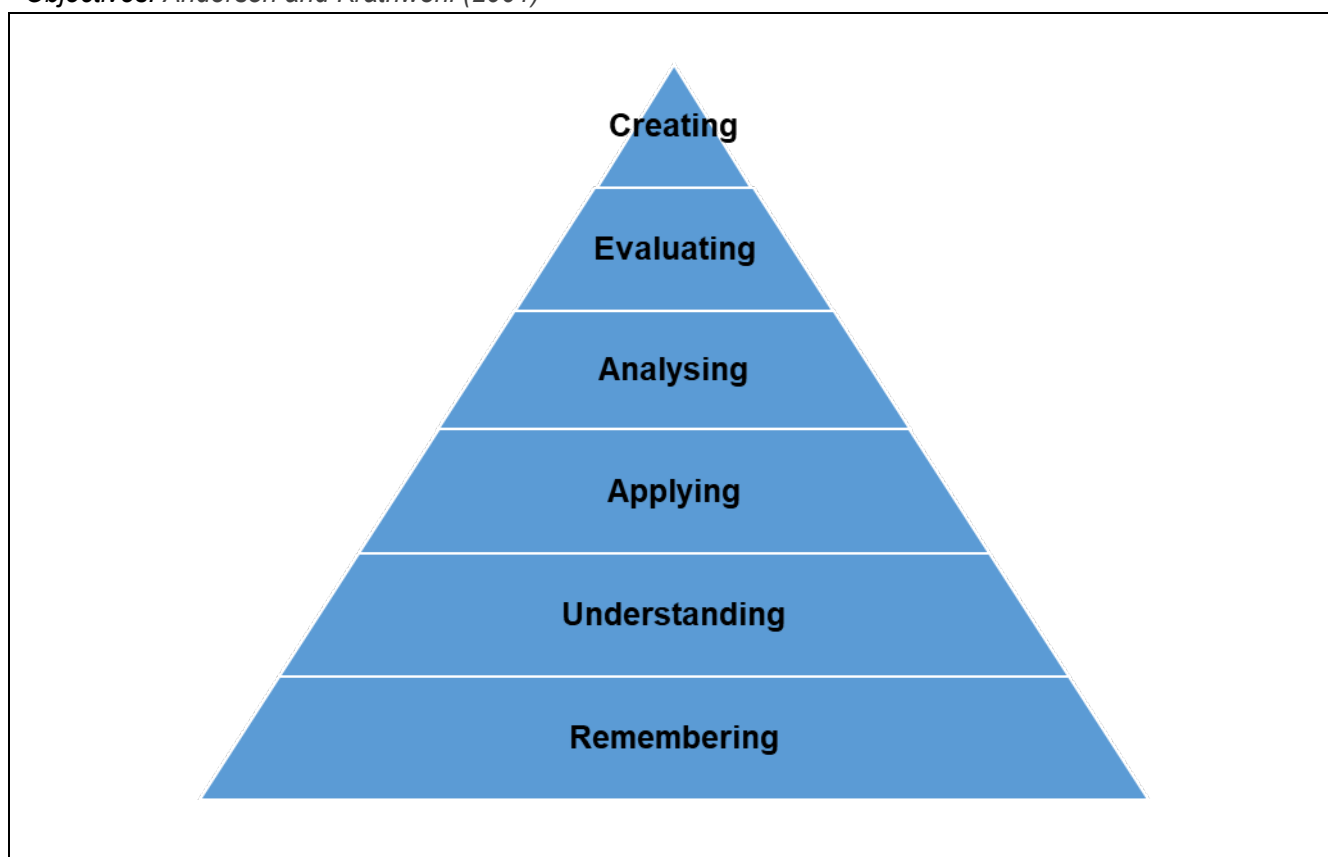
within the context of studying a text (Final assertions 5 and 9) and (ii) the use of a range of semiotic mediational tools and signs to support 'remembering' and 'understanding' (Final assertions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10 and 12). The intention in both cases is to reduce potential cognitive overload and to increase cognitive capacity for the primary school pupil's main endeavour: the exploration and creation of meaning and effect of grammatical features in spoken and written discourse.

In this way, Models 1 and 2 are interdependent, albeit with different emphases i.e. while Model 1 presents the findings of the study as a frame of conceptual understanding, Model 2 presents the findings in the form of a pedagogical approach.

6.3.1 Model 1: A conceptual model for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology

Model 1 is a reconceptualisation of the revised Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson and Krathwohl et al. 2001). The decision to use Bloom's taxonomy at this stage in the thesis reflects the value of using a well-established framework of categories of intellectual processes: 'remembering', 'understanding', 'applying', 'analysing', 'evaluating' and 'creating' as identifiable categories. It is a well-known framework familiar to the 'wider education community' (STA 2013:27). It also has some direct relation to grammatical terminology. For example, the Technical Report on the SPaG (STA 2013) presented Bloom's taxonomy as 'a meaningful and useful scale, representative of the key cognitive processes children go through' (STA 2013:28). Furthermore, while 'applying', 'analysing', 'evaluating' and 'creating' are not differentiated between in the findings of this study, the two processes of 'remembering' and 'understanding' emerged as highly significant. Therefore, a reconceptualisation of this Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, in order to demonstrate the re-positioning of 'remembering' and 'understanding' and in the light of the distinction made between *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use* would seem to be appropriate. It is hoped that this will result in a 'scale' which is even more 'meaningful and useful' (STA 2003:28) for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology. For ease of reference, the version proposed by Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) is presented as Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Anderson and Krathwohl (2001)

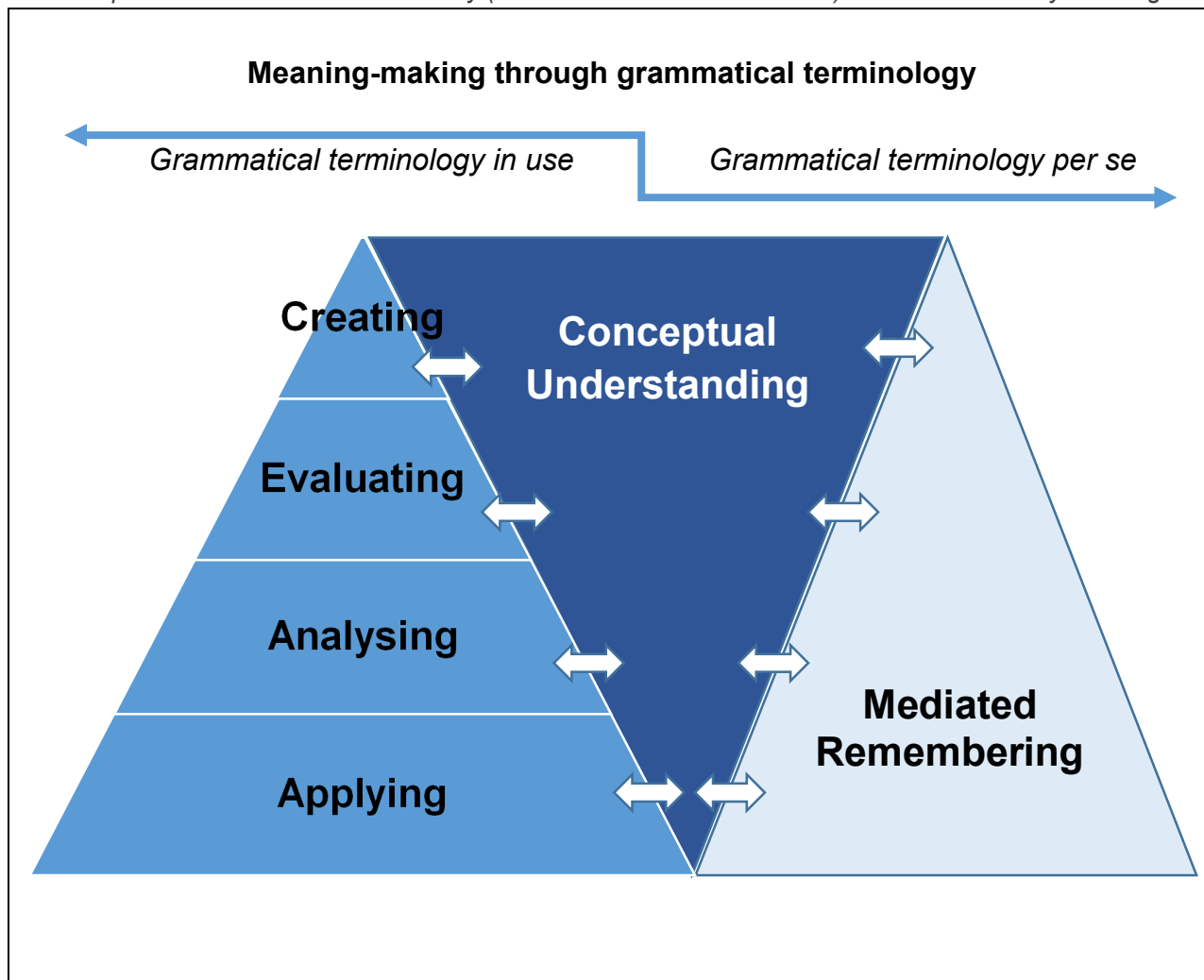


In the light of the findings of this study, it is posited that ‘remembering’ grammatical terminology is not a lower order skill, positioned at the base of the triangle (see Fig 6.1 Anderson and Krathwohl 2001), through which the pupil must pass in order to progress upwards through the cumulative hierarchy of cognitive processes. This thesis suggests that this would imply a form of rote learning, which is impossible for complex abstractions, misguidedly suggesting that automaticity of recall at this early stage in concept development is both desirable and achievable. Nevertheless, this perception is reflected at different levels of educational circles; for example: (i) at policy level (e.g. the “teach and apply” approach in the National Curriculum DfE 2013a:64); (ii) at practice level (e.g. teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of the benefits of “teaching grammatical terminology earlier to embed it sooner”) and at research level (e.g. the declarative versus procedural binary).

This thesis argues that this is not helpful as a conceptualisation of the process of the development of grammatical terminology: it presupposes that pupils will be able to operate with the recall of complex content in the same way as they operate with the recall of more concrete or less complex content. Grammatical terms are difficult with different abstract concepts (Final assertion 2) and, as such, do not lend themselves to the ‘concrete recollections’ of the young child (Vygotsky 1978:50), inferred by the bottom “rung” of ‘remembering’. Therefore, Model 1 presents ‘remembering’ differently i.e. as an ongoing endeavour, developing alongside, through and because of ‘applying’, ‘analysing’, ‘evaluating’ and ‘creating’. It negates the assumption that rote learning through repetition and practice over time will support *grammatical terminology in use* by achieving automaticity (Final assertion 11) and argues that, while this may achieve more confident recall of definitional

verbal meaning, it will not necessarily achieve conceptual understanding (Final assertion 1) that can be meaningfully applied. This thesis posits that it is only deep conceptual understanding over time that will best realise *grammatical terminology in use* (e.g. Final assertion 3). See Figure 6.2: Model 1.

Figure 6.2: Model 1: A conceptual model for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology: a reconceptualisation of Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson and Krathwohl 2001) based on the study's findings



Crucially, within this model, this process of 'remembering' is a mediated one (light blue triangle). The importance of mediation was evident in the findings (Final assertion 12) and is supported by the literature. For example, a fragment of one of Vygotsky's unpublished notes suggests mediation 'as the basis of higher psychological processes' (1978:Preface), based on the principle that 'human beings actively remember with the help of signs' (Vygotsky 1978:51). In the classroom, this mediation is provided by a wide range of implicit and explicit tools and signs, modelled initially by the teacher, then increasingly self-directed and self-constructed by the pupil. The intention is to reduce the cognitive load experienced by the pupil in having to remember an abstraction at the point of application.

Through the use of mediated tools and signs to support recall, the pupil is able to focus more on the higher-order processes of that concept (i.e. 'application', 'analysis', 'evaluation' and 'creating'). Model 1 proports that,

at the beginning stages of conceptual development of a grammatical word meaning, the need for mediation is considerable (represented by the wide base of the light blue triangle) but, over time, the need for mediational tools and signs to support recall in the context of a task diminishes until the pupil is more genuinely capable of unmediated meaningful recall (Ausubel 2000) (represented at the apex of the light blue triangle). At this point, the pupil 'casts off the external stimuli, no longer paying attention to them' (Vygotsky 1978:72) and begins to organise sign use internally and in a more complex way. Thus, it can be inferred that the pupil has greater space available for the intellectual freedom necessary for the higher order processes: thought processes which have begun to run vertically as well as horizontally over and through the different grammatical abstractions and generalisations, making connections between them.

Conversely, 'understanding' is presented as an inverted, dark blue triangle, alongside the light blue triangle of 'mediated remembering'. Thus, the process of 'understanding' is seen as the inverse of that of 'remembering' i.e. 'mediated remembering' reduces in emphasis as 'understanding' increases. Crucially, this 'understanding' is 'conceptual understanding' i.e. a deeper-level understanding which can be generalised or abstracted to other contexts. The use of an inverted triangle typifies Vygotsky's assertion that, at the first point of learning (represented by the point of the inverted triangle of 'understanding'), the conceptual understanding of grammatical terminology has only just begun and exists at this early stage in development as 'only the vaguest representation' (1987:172). Again, over time and through the range of classroom activities which focus the pupils on 'applying', 'analysing', 'evaluating' and 'creating' in purposeful, meaningful and motivational reading and writing activities, 'conceptual understanding' develops.

This reconceptualisation overcomes the difficulties inherent in the declarative/procedural binary as it posits that 'mediated remembering' and 'conceptual understanding' (i.e. declarative knowledge) develop alongside and through the higher order processes of 'application', 'analysis', 'evaluation' and 'creating' (i.e. procedural understanding) rather than before nor after as proceeding or subsequent stages. This is represented diagrammatically by the left-right white arrows. The different contexts of *grammatical terminology in use* should be wide ranging and varied in character, complexity and challenge in order to promote transfer across contexts through generalisation (e.g. cross-curricular application of learning). The findings suggested that the greatest meaning and motivation for pupils lay in 'creativity' and this is already proposed by the Taxonomy as the highest intellectual endeavour.

Model 1 is underpinned by *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use*. These have been introduced by this thesis as two broad categories of grammatical terminology in an attempt to organise and gain control of the complexity of concepts and ideas. They are represented in Model 1 by the blue "step-up" arrow running horizontally across the top of the diagram. Both *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use* contribute to 'meaning-making' (also labelled at the top of the diagram). Therefore, in spite of the "step-up" of this arrow line, the text labels of '*grammatical terminology per se*' and '*grammatical terminology in use*' are not stepped (i.e. are not positioned one above the other). This is intended to signal their equal significance in the meaning-making processes in this study (e.g. grammatical

word meaning and grammatical discourse meaning) as well their comparable significance, importance and interest as areas of study in their own right.

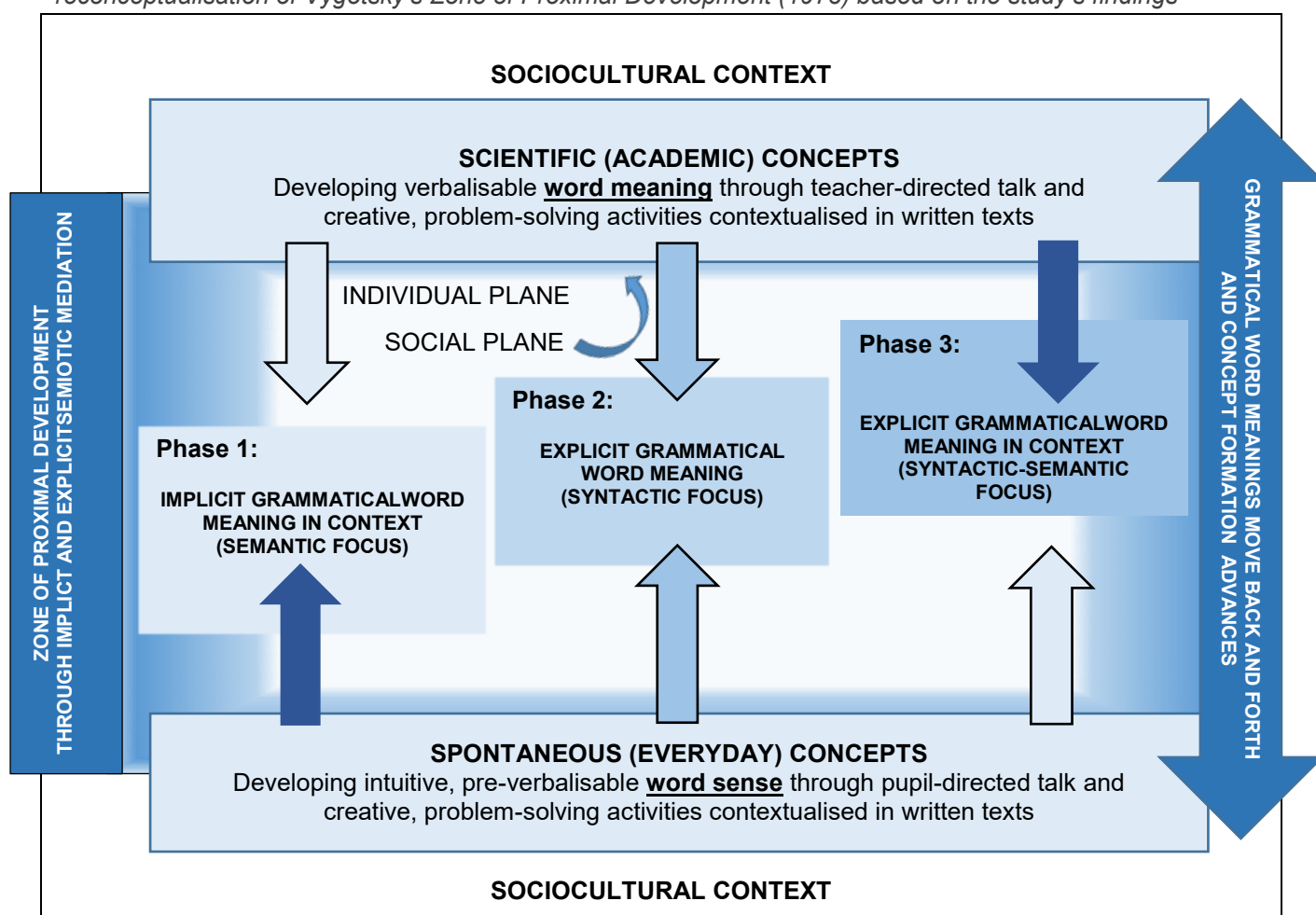
Instead, the step-up arrows are intended to signal a distinction in the interrelationship between *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use*. While the discussion of findings suggested that *grammatical terminology per se* should be supported by mediational tools and signs at all points of teaching and learning, this Model draws attention to *grammatical terminology per se* as a mediational tool for *grammatical terminology in use*. In this way, *grammatical terminology per se* is developed through mediational tools and signs until conceptual understanding develops sufficiently for it to become a mediational tool itself for the development of *grammatical terminology in use*. Thus, the “step-up” (half-way across the inverted blue triangle of ‘conceptual understanding’) denotes this change in relationship.

Model 1 also posits that in order to teach *grammatical terminology per se*, focused teaching would seem to be necessary for some of the time (reflecting the pupils’ call for “one thing at once”) whilst remaining as close as possible to a meaningful and motivational authentic language context (e.g. class novel). These ideas are now presented and discussed through Model 2.

6.3.2 Model 2: A pedagogical model for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology

Model 2 is proposed as a reconceptualisation of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky 1978:84) in light of the findings of this study (See Fig 6.3). Model 2 reflects a constructivist pupil-centred pedagogy. Situated within Vygotskian notions of scientific and spontaneous concepts, the Model is intended to bring meaningful focus and relevance to the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology. It is intended to develop the conceptual ideas of Model 1 by operationalising the pedagogical processes reflected in and recommended through the findings. See Figure 6.3: Model 2.

Figure 6.3: Model 2: A pedagogical model for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology: a reconceptualisation of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (1978) based on the study's findings



Model 2 presents grammatical terminology holistically. Firstly, this is within the wider sociocultural context of written texts and the social practices of reading and writing (Final assertion 9). This is represented diagrammatically by the natural 'spontaneous (everyday) concepts', positioned at the bottom of the Model. This is aligned with the notion of "word sense" (Final assertion 1). Secondly, grammatical terminology is presented cognitively with verbal formulation. It is a concept existing in complex relation with other grammatical concepts and, as such, grammatical terminology is non "spontaneous". This is represented diagrammatically by the taught 'scientific (academic) concepts', positioned at the top of the Model. It is aligned with the notion of "word meaning" (Final assertion 1).

This study has established grammatical terminology as scientific concepts in that they are generalisations (i.e. high order abstractions which require teaching). However, the relationship between spontaneous and scientific concepts related to grammatical terminology is a complicated one. The level of abstraction is especially high. For example, written language already constitutes second-order symbolism (i.e. it uses written symbols to denote speech) (Vygotsky 1978:116). Therefore, as a language with which to think and talk about written language, grammatical terminology further increases this level of symbolism.

Paradoxically, grammatical terminology is also perceived as a means of representing a system “already known”, even to the young child. This has been previously discussed (see 2.3.3) and is reflected in the findings. Confusion around the declarative/procedural binary manifested itself in attitudes that led some teachers and pupils to question the fundamental purpose and value of teaching grammatical terminology: the assumption being that if the pupils could already demonstrate applicability of a grammatical concept (e.g. in terms of using it in their writing), there was little or no need to teach it explicitly (Final assertion 7).

Therefore, like Model 1, Model 2 attempts to lead teachers out of any declarative/procedural confusion or uncertainty. The Model makes clear that it is the scientific concept which is the object of teaching (i.e. the grammatical terminology) and not the associated implicit or intuitive spontaneous understanding (i.e. not what the child can already produce intuitively in speech or writing). Through the teaching of grammatical terminology, the spontaneous concepts are systematised and brought under control. That said, the Model maintains that this process should be continuously supported by the “spontaneous”, thereby increasing the pupils’ motivation through providing them with opportunities for ‘authentic communication’ (Fotos and Ellis 1991:609) through reading and writing discussions and activities (Final assertion 9). Thus, in line with Spada’s (1987) assertions, it is argued that the teaching of grammatical terminology works best when it is linked with opportunities for natural communication and it is through the perpetual back and forth development (from the spontaneous to the scientific and back to the spontaneous and so on) that grammatical terminology as word meanings gradually develop.

Vygotsky maintained that the initial teaching of a word was only the start of its development and that concept formation was a gradual process. In this way, the use of the ‘up arrows’ from “spontaneous” and ‘down arrows’ from “scientific” denote a far less constrained and much more fluid relationship between ‘implicit’ and ‘explicit’ development of grammatical word meanings than is traditionally assumed by “teach and apply” models. Diagrammatically, it is shown by the left-right arrow on the right-hand side.

The three phases within Model 2 are positioned to show an upward trajectory, representing increasing levels of challenge to scaffold pupil progression and support conceptual development within the pupils’ ZPD (Final assertion 4). The overarching activity is focused on a discussion of a high quality fiction, poetry or non-fiction text (potentially, this could also be the pupils’ own writing as part of a writing conference). Text-related discussions are seen through a grammatical lens and the meaning and effect that grammatical devices create are considered in the context of high-quality texts. These three phases are now explained.

6.3.2.1 Phase 1: *Implicit (semantic focus)*

The Model begins with text familiarisation through a reversal of the traditional “teach and apply” sequence. It leads with “apply” rather than “teach”. That said, this notion of “apply” does not relate directly to teaching but instead reflects the intuitive, pre-verbal “word sense” of “spontaneous” concepts. There is no mention made of the new target grammatical term. Instead, Phase 1 capitalises on the pupils’ own spoken language, understanding and experiences. It provides a context for open comprehension and response, and the

emotional dimension of feelings, values, appreciation, attitudes, enthusiasms and, ultimately, motivation characterised by Bloom's 'affective domain' (Bloom et al. 1953). Thus, Phase 1 starts with a semantic focus.

Following this initial discussion, the target grammatical feature is introduced. This is done implicitly, with meaningful teaching drawing 'attention to grammatical patterns or characteristics' (Myhill 2005:88-89). The use of highlighting, a strategy used by the teachers in the study, ensures that patterns and examples can literally be "seen". They are discussed freely, without the barrier of the grammatical languaging that does not yet belong to the pupils. In one way, this approach is reminiscent of the practice examples of 'Key skills' and 'Basic skills' but here the discourse is around that of quality texts (rather than decontextualised sentences written "cold" by the pupils) and the patterns and examples remain embedded within them. Thus, the target grammatical device is recontextualised (rather than decontextualised) and retains the central position of focus. Furthermore, the use of "discuss the difference" versions of the same text (with and without the grammatical feature included) exemplifies the way in which this particular grammatical feature is affecting meaning. This "discuss the difference" activity draws upon a fundamental principle of conflict and challenge created through problem-solving, enhancing pupil interest and motivation (Final assertion 10). In this way, discussions are moved towards what Myhill et al. (2018:5) calls a 'semanticky kind of grammar' and the findings, which suggested a disconnect between decontextualised skills teaching and contextualised discussion of meaning and effect is addressed - without creating cognitive overload (Final assertion 9). This supports the pupils' request for "one thing at a time" (Final assertion 9) and reduces the need for lengthy, complex teacher explanations (Final assertion 8).

6.3.2.2 Phase 2: *Explicit (syntactic focus)*

In Phase 2, the focus shifts conceptually from the "spontaneous" to the "scientific" where the grammatical patterns and examples of Phase 1 are identified metalinguistically or, to use Berry's preferred term, metalingually (Berry 2005) i.e. by their name. This is a departure from Vygotskian thinking (1987:217) which begins 'with work on the verbal definition'. It is intended to first situate discussions in a meaningful and motivational language context. So it is only in Phase 2 that the teacher introduces the verbal definitions, descriptions and/or explanation, framed by the defining characteristics (Hudson 2010; Kolln & Gray 2017) and the grammatical features as language patterns or examples become verbalisable through teacher-directed talk, creative problem-solving activities and word-learning strategies.

That said, Phase 2 is characterised by a shift in focus which could be described as a shift to form over meaning. Berry writes (2010:129), 'no one would advocate teaching form for form's sake', therefore 'how to deal with the focus on form' remains the issue. Phase 2 reflects the study's findings which suggested that pupils preferred to focus on "one thing at a time". Thus, it gives brief "spotlighted" attention to the grammatical term itself while the context of the text remains present, albeit just behind. In this way, the shift to form over meaning could be seen differently i.e. as a shift between different kinds of meaning-making. Therefore, rather than form-focused accuracy, Phase 2 is about form-focused meaning-making. Ultimately, meaning-making

within the term (Phase 2) facilitates meaning-making *through* the term in the context of rich language use in texts (Phases 1 and 3).

The Model advocates that the teacher's role is sometimes that of scribe. Within this, the teacher's position becomes one of observer, listener and reporter, focusing on making sense of the pupils' understandings and misunderstandings, as well as articulating or re-articulating the pupils' own ideas so that they can hear them back. The same principle can, of course, be applied to the pupils acting in the role of "more knowledgeable other" within their own ZPD or a different or early ZPD of their peers so that they develop and reveal insights into how best to teach word meanings (Final assertion 4). This reflects the findings, which suggested a pupil dislike of passivity, of lengthy, monologic teacher talk, and of the imposition and control of teacher ideas (Final assertion 8).

Nevertheless, Phase 2 is still exemplified by teaching, supported by Vygotsky's idea that instruction plays a leading role in learning (and eventual development) in that '...with the appropriate educational programme the development of scientific concepts outstrips the development of spontaneous concepts' (1987:168). He argues that: 'Instruction is only useful when it moves ahead of development' (1987:212) and is 'maximally productive only when it occurs at a certain point in the zone of proximal development' (1987:212).

The focused teaching activities of Phase 2 are based on the principles of creating meaning through practical, creative problem-solving (Final assertion 10). This, in turn, provides interest and fun, and ultimately motivation. It could be inferred that activities within the study at an appropriate level of challenge and enjoyment inspired the pupils to want to achieve, to want to push their own learning on. Therefore, in the end, the true ZPD may be created by the pupils through open-ended challenges and their self-directed explorations and efforts to "work something out" (Final assertion 10). Therefore, it is potentially the process of creative thinking (particularly through contradictions and puzzles) and not the product of learning grammatical terminology that ultimately holds the key to achieving deeper level motivation.

Although there was limited empirical evidence in the findings of strategies to develop word consciousness and word-learning strategies, the ideas of Stahl and Nagy and others would be valuable here (Final assertion 5). Their notion of 'a concept of definition map' for a word (presented as a kind of graphic organiser) is also advocated, suggested by Ausubel and termed an 'advance organiser'. This is a pedagogical resource to manipulate cognitive structures and support receptive learning and meaningful recall through the 'more detailed and differentiated material' (2000:62). This reflects the pupils' and teachers' intuitive feelings that grammatical terminology was harder than other terminology and that there was a need for "something more" e.g. in the form of a revision guide or a personalised permanent "working wall". The advance organiser could therefore bridge the gap between the 'introductory material at a higher level of abstraction, generality, and inclusiveness than the learning task itself' and, in this case, minimise the cognitive pressure caused by recall at the point of application. It is a resource providing information about grammatical terminology in a range of pictorial, diagrammatic and verbal forms, incorporating language prompts 'for the construction of a conceptualisation, which is far richer and more elaborate than minimal meanings provided by language'

(Fauconnier 1997; Turner 1991). While language has limits, conceptualisations do not (Evans and Green 2006). Crucially, this personalised resource is where the pupil tries out their definitions, descriptions and explanations “in their own words” and, with it, the teacher is afforded another assessment window into the pupils’ developing conceptual understanding. It is potentially the ‘safe haven’ book of which one of the teachers talked. In this way, Vygotsky’s notions of individually-mediated (intramental) and socially-mediated (intermental) meaning-making are integral to the Model (Final assertions 8, 10, 11).

The ZPD focuses on the use of mediation through the use of tools and signs (indicated diagrammatically on Model 2 by the dark blue box to the left). Wertsch (2007:61) separates these into implicit and explicit mediation with ‘implicit’ referring to language-based tools and signs (e.g. through discussion) and ‘explicit’ referring to activity-based tools and signs (e.g. grammar games). This is useful as it relates to a number of the study’s findings (Final assertions 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12). In particular, it relates to Final assertion 6 by supporting the pupils’ own reflective metatalk about a text (revealed in the findings as the most challenging form of application) through speaking frames and the availability of definitional and explanatory words and phrases as table top resources. In this way, semiotic mediation to support recall and facilitate conceptual development is fundamental to Model 2, connecting conceptually with Model 1 (Final assertion 12). Although Vygotsky assigns a central and essential element to the role of the teacher, he also suggests that this could be achieved through invisible mediation through the teacher’s introduction of tools and signs that the children would use purposefully. However, the significant element here is in modelling the use of these tools and signs and not just making them available (Final assertion 12).

6.3.2.3 Phase 3: *Explicit (syntactic-semantic focus)*

Phase 3 is characterised by a return to the grammatical feature within the text but now the pupils are more aware of the associated grammatical terminology and are encouraged to try it out. That said, the teacher starts Phase 3 by reminding the pupils of what they said previously, bringing back to mind the ideas they had when they first engaged in discussion and debate about this text – and avoiding the familiar primary school mantra of “who can remember what we did last time?”. Episodic recall is also hard and detracts from the thinking process. As a process of reporting back verbatim, as well as in summary form and scribing, the teacher is carefully listening to the words of the pupils and is not over-teaching or over-talking in this space. Jones and Chen advocate use of a teacher-led review (2016:54) and the importance of going beyond ‘one-shot grammar lessons’ (2016:65). It is an important part of the ‘dialogic spiral’ as a central method of co-constructing meaning through dialogue. At another time, this can be led by one of the pupils in the way of reciprocal teaching. Pupils can change as experts if the teaching sequence is fluid enough and this would be encouraged here.

Thus, the text is reconsidered in the light of the focus on language patterns in Phase 1 and the specific teaching of grammatical terminology of Phase 2. Phase 3 is about discussion of meaning and effect in the text supported by the developing precision and control afforded by grammatical terminology. In this way, Phase 3

has a syntactical-semantic focus, securely positioned at the very heart of the text. This thesis posits that this is true contextualised learning, building upon and through spontaneous conceptual understandings as the pupils work to transfer learning through the application of developing generalisations and abstractions, enabling them to see language through a grammatical lens and, all the while, supported by grammatical terminology as a tool through which to manipulate, control and understand it. In Phase 3, *grammatical terminology per se* becomes the mediational tool with which *grammatical terminology in use* is realised.

Thus, through the three Phases, the pupil is moved upwards and forwards through increasing levels of abstraction based upon implicit to explicit learning and, linguistically, a trajectory of 'semantic' to 'syntactic' to 'syntactic-semantic' understandings. This is continually underpinned by the pupils' spontaneous everyday concepts i.e. their understandings relating to their experiences, interests and motivations as members of a reading and writing community. In terms of grammatical terminology, the ebb and flow is one of a developing intuitive, pre-verbal "word sense" increasingly moving forward towards the development of verbalisable "word meaning" with the aim of achieving a key tenet of Vygotskian theory: "verbal thinking" and "meaningful speech" (Minick 1987:25).

6.4 Summary of recommendations and models

This chapter has presented recommendations for effective classroom practice for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology from the perspective of pupils and their teachers. These have been developed diagrammatically into two models of practice: (i) a conceptual model (Model 1) (see Fig 6.2) and (ii) a pedagogical model (Model 2) (see Fig 6.3) for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology. Through these recommendations and models, this chapter has distinguished between *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use* as two ways of organising and controlling the complexity of this area. It has also discussed the interrelationship between them.

While Model 1 and Model 2 have different emphases (conceptual and pedagogical), they are interdependent. They both maintain that *grammatical terminology per se* should be supported at the point of use in order to: (i) minimise cognitive overload of recalling complex, abstract concepts and (ii) maximise cognitive capacity for moving freely across these complex, abstract concepts with the purpose of exploring grammatical meaning and effect in texts. This support is realised through mediated remembering i.e. the use of a range of semiotic mediational tools and signs. Eventually, as conceptual development increases, *grammatical terminology per se* becomes the main mediational tool for *grammatical terminology in use*. The recommendations and models present conceptual ideas and pedagogical strategies aimed at developing grammatical conceptual understanding over time in meaningful, motivational ways. In this way, they endeavour to contribute towards a theorisation of how *grammatical terminology per se* is transformed into *grammatical terminology in use*.

6.5 Limitations of the study

This study has explored grammatical terminology through the perspectives of pupils and their teachers. Throughout this process, every effort has been made to execute the research in ways which adhere to a high standard of ethics and researcher behaviour. For example, the research field has been explored thoroughly, data gathering has been conducted sensitively and the analysis of the findings has been undertaken diligently. However, inevitably, interpretations have been formed, constraints have occurred and choices have been made. These have resulted in limitations to this study and these are now briefly acknowledged.

Firstly, there is the all-pervading limitation of researcher reflexivity in spite of – and sometimes perhaps because of – my ‘sensitivity and integrity’ as the investigator (Merriam 2009:52). My positionality and reflexivity as a researcher are addressed here (see 6.8) and have been discussed previously in Chapter Three. Most significantly, they have been acted upon throughout as part of the ongoing process of reflexive journaling. The process has felt rigorous. That said, Cresswell maintains that the researcher’s perceptions and interpretations become part of the research and ‘as a result, a subjective and interpretative orientation flows through the inquiry (Cresswell 2014) and, ultimately, this perspective is advocated here.

Secondly, the study has been limited by selection: e.g. of the pilot school, of the two case schools, of the teachers and of the pupils (e.g. Pupil interviews). While the study was never intended to be generalisable, it is acknowledged that different cases comprising different teachers and different pupils may have given rise to different themes and different final assertions. That said, while there were inevitable differences in emphasis, there was always a high degree of similarity between them. In the end, all thematic findings identified were evident in both cases to some degree and evident in the pilot study (see Appendix 16).

Thirdly, the study has been potentially, and perhaps ironically, limited by its exploratory nature in that the range of research tools has generated a great wealth of information about a phenomenon that was in itself so ethereal and complex that the data analysis process became daunting at a number of points. Furthermore, as a result of the quantity of information, the data had to be frequently revisited (e.g. video footage re-watched) in order to sustain a sense of the individuality of each case. Therefore, a study covering less breadth may have afforded greater depth. Nevertheless, given the limited research in this area and the complexity of the phenomenon of grammatical terminology involving pupils as participants, an exploratory approach casting a wider net still seems most appropriate.

6.6 Implications for policy

In the light of the Final assertions, the following implications for policy are proposed.

The findings suggested that a pupil’s declarative knowledge existed implicitly and intangibly (posited as non-verbalisable “sense”) as well as explicitly and tangibly (posited as verbalisable “meaning”). Consequently, verbal triggers and question-and-answer routines could create an impression of confident, competent

declarative knowledge in the pupils. Therefore, it is argued that the SPaG test is too limited as an assessment tool (even for isolated, decontextualised declarative knowledge) as the conceptual nature of grammatical terminology cannot be revealed through verbal recall and reproduction alone (Final assertions 1 and 3). Furthermore, it is argued that the SPaG test promotes a conceptualisation of grammatical terminology as fixed in meaning and transferable to the pupils in pre-packaged, finished form. This is reinforced by Appendix 2 (DfE 2013a:73), which states that 'All terms in bold should be understood with the meanings set out in the Glossary'. This implies there is one acceptable - and thereby accurate - meaning. It is argued that this perception of grammatical terminology threatens to reduce opportunities for pupil exploration and co-construction of meaning, which would better achieve deep-level conceptual learning over time (Final assertion 8).

While this is not to negate the value of a consistent and detailed glossary, it is argued that the pupils' journey to grammatical conceptual understanding must be recognised as a developmental one in the same way as learning is assumed to be developmental in other areas of the curriculum (Final assertion 10). For this reason, this thesis posits that a more discerning list of grammatical terms would enable teachers and pupils to focus on fewer, more developmentally appropriate concepts over time, supported by deeper-level teacher/pupil assessment and differentiation (Final assertion 4) with diagnostic attention given to the nature of pupils' spoken and written misconceptions and misunderstandings. Furthermore, in support of the pupils' developmental journey, it is suggested that a re-presentation of the glossary (e.g. as a network of key terms or definitional map) could be a valuable aid to primary teachers who are typically not linguists. While the 'hyperlinks to other technical terms' are intended to 'help to define each other' (DfE 2013a:80), the findings suggested that the use of semantic (rather than syntactic) relations between terms sometimes led to pupil misunderstandings. Thus, syntactic relations represented diagrammatically may be more helpful (Final assertion 5).

Despite signalling the importance of pupils' development over time, it can be argued that the National Curriculum does not differentiate significantly enough between requirements for the youngest and the oldest pupils. For example, pupils in Year 1 (5/6-year-olds), like pupils in Years 5 and 6, are also required to 'use the grammatical terminology...in discussing their writing' (DfE 2013:25). However, if this type of complex, abstracted thinking is developmentally inappropriate, it threatens to absorb curriculum time in Key Stage 1 unnecessarily and at the expense of time for more meaningful teaching and learning of writing (Final assertion 11). The findings suggested that pupils in Years 5 and 6 found the transfer of grammatical terminology to the explicit discussion of their own writing very difficult – or, at least, too difficult to do so in unmediated ways (Final assertion 6).

Again, this has implications for the SPaG test which, as a form of high-stakes testing, potentially leads to a legitimisation of the perception that recall and repetition 'over time' will lead to readily accessible and applicable grammatical knowledge and understanding. This risks reducing pupils' attentional capacity for thinking about meaning and effect at the point of application. While repetition and practice may indeed be a beneficial element of pedagogy related to grammatical terminology (as supported by the findings), a question

of proportion needs to be considered: i.e. whether a disproportionate amount of time is being spent on remembering at the expense of other higher order intellectual processes that would better contribute to the development of conceptual understanding. This also has implications for the more generic process of change and the ways in which this is managed centrally in the future, in order to minimise any negative impact on the lives of pupils and teachers.

The findings suggest that the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology has implications for teachers' professional development in three main areas. These are detailed as:

- A clearer explanation and/or justification of the intended purpose and value of grammatical terminology that will inform a professional debate leading to the articulation of the role and benefits of grammatical terminology - and equally its limitations - within the primary curriculum. While the inclusion of grammar in the curriculum is considered a very positive one, the absence of clarity around purpose and value threatens to limit teachers' pedagogical decisions of how best to teach it and thereby potentially impact upon teachers' (and pupils') motivation for doing so (Final assertion 7).
- Increased opportunities for primary teachers to develop deeper or different level declarative knowledge (e.g. linked to English grammar, linguistics and/or pedagogical grammar) within a context of descriptive meaning-making approaches. This would inform teacher assessment methods and the nature and specificity of the teachers' insights and conclusions for planning of future teaching and learning (Final assertion 2).
- Increased opportunities for primary teachers to develop and contribute to research-informed practice aimed at increasing pupils' capacity to engage with grammar through writing and reading in confident and creative ways. In particular, attention should be given to the interface between *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use*: i.e. how grammatical terminology enables texts to be meaningfully thought about, discussed and created with clarity, economy, control and intent. While national policy identifies explicit knowledge of grammar as being 'very important, as it gives us more conscious control and choice in our language' (DfE 2013:74), it offers very little pedagogical guidance beyond it being: 'best achieved ... within the teaching of reading, writing and speaking' (DfE 2013:ibid). Professional development should address how this integration within teaching to enable 'teacher creativity' and the construction of 'exciting lessons' could be achieved (DfE 2013a:64). It should explore alternatives to the "teach, practise, apply" approach advocated by the National Curriculum. This thesis posits that this should be through the use of mediated remembering to support conceptual development (Final assertions 9 and 12) (Model 1), which, as a concept, can be applied to different pedagogical approaches.

The final assertions of this thesis are embedded in the two models presented as: (i) Model 1: a conceptual model and (ii) Model 2: a pedagogical model for the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology. These

models represent the main contribution of this thesis to knowledge. Specifically, they are intended to contribute to the developing theoretical, conceptual and pedagogical understandings of grammatical terminology in the primary curriculum, potentially enabling teachers to realise the requirements of the National Curriculum in increasingly meaningful ways. In terms of future possibilities, they are proposed as the beginnings of a primary teachers' toolkit to be developed into a Continuing Professional Development programme. Furthermore, in returning to the 'nature of the problem: a personal reflection' in Section 1.1, there is also a potential for a toolkit for work with students as part of Initial Teacher Education.

While it is believed that there is flexibility and congruence enough within the current National Curriculum to support a descriptive, meaning-oriented approach to grammatical terminology, the SPaG test remains more of a challenge. The findings suggested there was a need to better support pupils cognitively in recalling an abstraction at the point of application, potentially compromising their attention to meaning and effect in texts (Final assertions 6, 11 and 12). Although repetition and practice were positively perceived by pupils and teachers, it seemed that grammatical terminology was viewed as something to be rote learned over time (albeit terminology was being framed as the recall and reproduction of fixed knowledge). The extent to which grammatical terminology, as the complex and abstract set of concepts that it is, can be made available to primary pupils for their automatic access and application is not known. Thus, the SPaG test seems to risk either increasing the cognitive load at the point of application through contextualised teaching or decreasing meaningful learning at the point of demonstration through decontextualised exercises and testing. As part of a teachers' toolkit, Model 1 has the potential to address these issues conceptually; Model 2 to address the issues pedagogically.

Of course, it could be that *grammatical terminology per se* and its application as *grammatical terminology in use* are now effectively embedded in schools, having developed either because of or in spite of teaching and learning over time. Within the study, one teacher noted: 'At the beginning of the term, we couldn't even talk about a clause...this class have come quite a long way in the year'. Perhaps, as the teachers anticipated, grammatical terminology now exists as 'second nature' with the pupils and their teachers being able 'to talk about things' (Teacher). However, returning to the opening paragraph of this section, the findings also suggested that grammatical terminology can be deceiving, with complex conceptual understanding being masked by the confident recall of verbal definitional forms. This may mean that application to texts, particularly writing, is still highly problematic. The quality of pupils' conceptual development over time both as *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use* remains a significant area for future research.

6.7 Areas for future research

This study has generated 12 recommendations and has represented these diagrammatically as models for effective practice. In principle, these recommendations and models also represent potential areas for future research which would stand to inform the pedagogy around the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology (e.g. the impact of teacher assessment through active listening; pupil reflections on self-

differentiation through activity/resource choice; the value of re-construction/co-construction of meaning through problem-solving and games).

However, more fundamentally, the findings demonstrated that the nature, purpose and value of grammatical terminology was not clearly understood by pupils and their teachers. Therefore, the notion of nature, purpose and value would seem to be particularly salient here for, without knowing this, it would seem to be impossible to fully realise what effective practice should look like. Therefore, to better understand the nature, purpose and value of grammatical terminology, future research areas include:

1. The quality of pupils' conceptual development over time, both in terms of *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use*;
2. The use of the pupil grammar notebook as a tool for metareflective thinking and learning;
3. The impact of teacher and/or pupil semiotic "triggers" (e.g. image, gesture, metaphor) to concepts (in addition to verbal definitions);
4. The development of conceptual understanding of grammatical terminology through word-learning strategies and diagrammatic conceptual maps;
5. The insights and implications of replacing an established grammatical term with another (e.g. from 'drop-in clause' to *relative clause*; from 'connective' to *conjunction*);
6. The development of grammatical meaning and effect in texts through the use of mediational tools to support recall;
7. Pedagogical strategies to bridge the disconnect between skills teaching practice (prescriptive) and meaning and effect application in texts (descriptive);
8. The differences between higher and lower attaining writers e.g. their responses to definitions and explanations and the ways in which they internalise them;
9. The creation and use of the pupils' own mediational tools to support the interface between *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use*.

Furthermore, as the motivation for this study was related to the perspectives of student teachers (see 1.1), all of these research areas are applicable to student teachers.

Finally, this study has found that the pupils are capable of contributing seriously and significantly to the exploration of the phenomenon of grammatical terminology in ways not yet reflected in the research literature. The possibilities here for better understanding the phenomenon of grammatical terminology would seem to be vast.

6.8 My positionality and reflexivity in relation to the study

Throughout this study, I have been able to critically reflect on my own assumptions about grammatical terminology and the ways in which this may be manifested in the primary classroom. This study has been framed as exploratory, and I believe it has been genuinely so. It has enabled me, through the perspectives of pupils and their teachers, to better understand some of the complexities and contradictions around and within

grammatical terminology: to be able at last (aside from any statutory requirements or SPaG test) to answer the research question of my own students from years ago: “Do we really need to teach these terms?” (see 1.1). Through the theoretical lens of Vygotsky (1987) and the methodological lens of Stake (2006), I have come to better understand the phenomenon of grammatical terminology within the complex context of teaching and learning. I have learned that the “either/or” binaries (e.g. of declarative/procedural; prescriptive/descriptive; explicit/implicit; decontextualised/contextualised) should be perceived positively, as it is through the discourse in between these dialectical polarities that pedagogy can be better understood. So when the pupils spoke positively of having “only one thing at once” to think about and Vygotsky (1987) wrote about the meaning of a word being recontextualised by new experiences and gradually decontextualised, my perception of “decontextualised: bad” versus “contextualised: good” was re-considered. In the end, my focus shifted away from trying to negotiate which of the polarities might be “right” and which might be “wrong” in favour of exploring the discourse space in between. In this way, Vygotsky’s view that ‘one must study psychological activity in all its complexity, not in isolation’ was known (Wertsch 1985:185).

Through this research, there have been many other significant shifts in my conceptualisations of grammatical terminology. For example, I now better understand why pupils might not be able to identify the adjectives in a sentence in spite of ‘doing this all year’ (Teacher), leading me to conclude the importance of mediational tools to support recall and, thereby, free up cognitive space for pupils to consider meaning and effect. As a student of English literature myself, there was much I lacked linguistically at the start of this study. That said, for me, the significance and the interest lay first and foremost in the grammatical terminology than in the more familiar notions of grammar for writing. The field of applied linguistics seemed notably absent from the associated research literature. There is much for the teacher to learn here that will be of great value to their developing conceptual understanding and, ultimately, to their own intellectual pedagogical freedoms. At this point, I am reminded of the teacher in the study who felt there was ‘no difference really’ between what a pupil should know and what a teacher should know and I now understand that, in a way, this is where I once was. But, in fact, there is so much more to know that will support and extend teachers’ linguistic understanding and free up *their* creative thinking. Therefore, as a researcher, I too have journeyed from “sense” to “meaning” and, through that, I am now able to verbalise what previously I could only perceive. I am now more capable of moving back and forth, horizontally and vertically, over the field that pertains to grammatical terminology. According to Vygotsky, this signals the ‘transition to a new and higher plane of thought’ (1987:230) with which I would absolutely agree.

This study has, of course, also been seen through the lens of many others, namely those of teachers and pupils. As a researcher, I have been in the privileged position of observing and discussing teaching and learning in classrooms, working with teachers who were wholeheartedly committed to creating for their pupils the highest quality learning experiences. Equally, their commitment to their own professional development was very high (hence their interest in this study) and they shared openly with me their perceptions and practices, including their constraints and tensions, as they themselves tried to mediate the spaces in between prescriptive expectation and their own descriptive philosophy and practice. Their involvement has afforded me so much.

I have also learned about pupil conviction, insight, energy and enthusiasm for learning; about their capacity to rise to a challenge; to evaluate teaching and learning openly and perceptively; and to supplement this readily with their own alternative pedagogical inventions and ideas. As genuine participants in this exploratory study, I have realised that I had underestimated them greatly. While every effort was made methodologically to support their engagement in ways that did not limit them to words, they demonstrated that, in spite of the intangible, complex and abstract nature of grammatical terminology, they had much to say and much to offer – telling me upon leaving the pupil interviews that they had enjoyed the experience of doing so.

Thus, my contribution to knowledge is a collaborative one, reflecting something of the socially-mediated (intermental) and the individually-mediated (intramental) about which Vygotsky writes (1978:57). It is a compilation of perspectives, from the personal to the social and back again; from the theoretical, to the methodological, to the empirical, to the theoretical. It is indeed the ebb and flow of ideas over time. What will be made of this thesis is ultimately in the hands - or rather the minds - of its readers and the lens through which they perceive the findings. Perhaps this is the most significant lens of all and it is hoped that, through the way in which this thesis has been written, it has assisted the reader in developing their own meanings (Stake 1995:126).

6.9 Final thoughts

This study has endeavoured to contribute to a meaning-oriented theorisation of grammatical terminology which might inform others (e.g. policy makers, teachers, student teachers and pupils). Teachers in Year 5 and Year 6 classrooms may find resonance within the recommendations and the models. These may also have some value generally for Key Stage 2 teaching and learning and/or for stimulating debate about whole school philosophical understandings and pedagogical approaches. It has endeavoured to contribute to the perceived gap in the existing research literature about the policy, purpose and practice of grammatical terminology. This has been incorporated into the thesis title as the 'What', the 'Why' and the 'How', reflecting the literature which suggests that 'few studies examine actual classroom practice' (Myhill et al. 2013:79). While it can be argued that the 'What' and the 'How' have been substantially addressed by this study, its empirical findings relating directly to the 'Why' have been more limited. This thesis posits that an articulated understanding of the role of grammatical terminology is essential for, without it, it would seem impossible to try to determine what effective practice might look like. The implications of this can be related to motivation, both of the teachers and of the pupils. Motive, Vygotsky maintains, is at the heart of any psychological endeavour (Vygotsky 1987). A lack of metalinguistic motivation threatens to impact negatively on pupils' motivation for writing, and potentially on teachers' motivation for teaching it. Thus, the meaningful integration of grammatical terminology should strive to support the meaningful teaching and learning of writing.

This thesis has posited two broad types of grammatical terminology which, if used by teachers to inform their planning, teaching and assessment, can be considered as two main "purposes". These are: *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use*. Of course, this separation is somewhat artificial as

these two areas in inter-related and inter-dependent. They also share common principles in that both relate to meaning-making in socio-cultural contexts and both are intended to be supported by mediated remembering to enhance conceptual understanding. They encapsulate the essence of the 12 recommendations for effective practice (see 6.2). Thus, in conclusion and through the development of this study (see 3.2.1), this thesis now proposes that:

- Meaning-making related to *grammatical terminology per se* is lexis-based. Through *the study of* grammatical terminology (through a variety of multisensory approaches), concepts develop and words such as *adjective* and *subordinate clause* come to be better understood by the pupils. Because it is based on concepts and not verbal definitional meanings, it has the potential to enhance pupils' capacity to think in abstractions; to enable them to move with greater freedom intellectually; to help them to think more clearly and communicate more precisely. *Grammatical terminology per se* is the mediational tool between cognition and meaning.
- Meaning-making related to *grammatical terminology in use* is discourse-based. Through the use of *grammatical terminology per se* as a mediational tool, written texts or spoken language come to be better understood by the pupils. Thus, meaning-making has the potential to enhance pupils' capacity to write and read with greater conscious awareness and control, with choice, clarity, criticality and creativity. *Grammatical terminology in use* is the mediational tool between grammar and meaning.

Through these processes (particularly relating to mediated remembering), the pupil is moved away from "thinking about grammatical terminology" towards "using grammatical terminology with which to think". This is reminiscent of Halliday's notion of 'using grammar to think with' (2002:416). However, this thesis prioritises the words above all else. Grammatical terminology represents grammar at its most visible and its most obscure, as either a barrier or bridge to understanding. It posits that fully formed definitional verbalisations of grammatical terms cannot be given directly to pupils through linear lines of teaching. Instead, conceptual development is infinitely more complex. It is formed over time in more subtle, roundabout ways (Tolstoy 1903) which include focused teaching alongside opportunities for pupil self-direction and writing in open and unhindered ways. This is underpinned by the teacher's depth of subject knowledge, pedagogical understanding and thinking around the what, the why and the how. Within this, it is the words which afford the control. In much the same way that my labels of 'grammatical terminology per se' and 'grammatical terminology in use' have enabled some of the complexities within this study to be brought under my own conscious control, grammatical terminology, saturated with both "sense" and "meaning", enables abstractions and generalisations to be brought increasingly under the conscious control of the pupil.

Thus, *grammatical terminology per se* and *grammatical terminology in use* are presented as final dialectical contrasts. Whether it is the intellectual endeavour of abstraction and generalisation (i.e. cognition) or the use of grammatical terminology to support the pupils as writers and readers (i.e. language learning) which holds the most value for primary pupils is perhaps a matter of perspective and positionality. Vygotsky may suggest cognition as the main purpose, in that: 'we find that it [grammar] has tremendous significance for the general

development of the child's thought' (1987:205). However, in the context of the current primary curriculum, perhaps it is language learning which should preside, particularly given the pupils' negative perceptions and lack of agency around writing. But, again, these dialectical contrasts are not intended to represent "either/or" binaries but rather to frame the dialectical space between cognition and language learning where there is still so much more to think about and say. It is a discourse of ideas united by meaning: meaning that is created within and through words.

Within this study, the perspectives of the pupils and their teachers have illuminated, through words of their own, something of their perception and practice of the phenomenon of grammatical terminology. Through this, agreement and discord in perceptions, values, attitudes, knowledge and understanding have been recognised. This is deeply significant. It represents the dialectical, dialogic space out of which conceptual and pedagogical insights grow. In the same way that the Literature Review 'debates' in policy, practice and perception examined the grammar disagreements and differences of past and present times, these conflicts in perception should be viewed positively. 'From thought to word and from word to thought' (Vygotsky 1986:218), this exploratory space is perhaps the zone of proximal development of meaning-making.

In conclusion, this thesis has contributed to the knowledge base needed 'to examine what pedagogical strategies might facilitate higher-level metalinguistic understanding' (Chen and Myhill 2016:107). Given that grammatical terminology stretches in such significant ways across the curriculum and assessment expectations of primary English, its conceptual and pedagogical development is hugely important. Thus, this thesis has proposed a conceptual model (see 6.3.1) and a pedagogical model (see 6.3.2), encapsulating 12 recommendations for effective practice (see 6.2). These are aimed at realising the potential of the grammatical terminology of the Primary National Curriculum (DfE 2013a) within the context of the SPaG test (DfE 2013b) so that bridges over barriers to learning may be created. The topic of this thesis will continue to be an issue for pupils and their teachers, and the potentiality of grammatical terminology for creating meaning should be at the heart of future grammar debates.

REFERENCES

- Adams, N. (2015). Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive learning objectives. *J Med Libr Assoc.*, 103(3), 152-153.
- Adelman, C., Jenkins, D., & Kemmis, S. (1977). Rethinking case study: notes from the Second Cambridge Conference. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 6, 139-150.
- Alderson, J. C., Clapham, C., & Steel, D. (1997). *Metalinguistic knowledge, Language Aptitude and Language Proficiency*. CRLE, University of Lancaster Working Papers, 26.
- Alderson, J. C., & Horak, T. (2001). *Metalinguistic knowledge of undergraduate students of English language and linguistics*. Lancaster: Subject Centre for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies in Higher Education.
- Alexander, R. J. (2002). *Culture and Pedagogy: International comparisons in primary education*. London: Blackwell.
- Anderson, J. R. (1983). *The Architecture of Cognition*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Anderson, L. W., Krathwohl, D. R., Airasian, P. W., Cruikshank, K. A., Mayer, R. E., Pintrich, P. R., Raths, J., & Wittrock, M. C. (Eds.). (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Complete edition)*. New York: Longman.
- Andrews, R. (2005). Knowledge about the teaching of [sentence] grammar: The state of play. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 4(3), 69-76.
- Andrews, R., Torgerson, C., Beverton, S., Freeman, A., Locke, T., Low, G., Robinson, A., & Zhu, D. (2006). The effect of grammar teaching on writing development. *British Educational Research Journal*, 32(1), 39-55.
- Andrews, R. (2008). Ten years of strategies. *Changing English: Studies in Culture and Education*, 15(1), 77-85.
- Andrews, R. (2010). Teaching sentence-level grammar for writing. In T. Locke (Ed.), *Beyond the Grammar Wars*. London: Routledge.
- Andrews, S. (1994). The grammatical knowledge and awareness of Hong Kong teachers of English. In N. Bird, et al. (Eds.), *Language and learning proceedings of ILEC 1993, Institute of Language in Education, Education Department, Hong Kong* (pp. 508-520).
- Andrews, S. (1999). All these like little name things: a comparative study of language teacher's explicit knowledge of grammar and grammatical terminology. *Language Awareness*, 8(3-4), 143-159.

Anh, D. T. K., & Marginson, S. (2013). Global learning through the lens of Vygotskian sociocultural theory. *Critical Studies in Education*, 5, 143-159.

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2015). The Australian Curriculum: English. Version 7.5. Sydney: Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. In P. Jones & H. Chen (2016), The role of dialogic pedagogy in teaching grammar. *Research papers in education*, 31(1), 45-69.

Ausubel, D. (2000). *The Acquisition and Retention of Knowledge*. The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Barker, D., Quennerstedt, M., & Annerstedt, C. (2015). Inter-student interactions and student learning in health and physical education: a post-Vygotskian analysis. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 20(4), 409-426.

Barrs, M. (2016). Vygotsky's 'Thought and Word'. *Changing English*, 23(3), 241-256.

Beard, R. (1999). *National Literacy Strategy: Review of Research and other Related Evidence*. London: DfEE Publications.

Beard, R. (2000). *Developing writing 3-13*. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Beck I., McKeown M., & Kucan, L. (2013). *Bringing Words to Life: Robust Vocabulary Instruction* (2nd ed.). New York: Guildford Press

Bell, H. (2015). The Dead Butler revisited: grammatical accuracy and clarity in the English Primary Curriculum 2013–2014. *Language and Education*, 29(2), 140-152.

Bell, H. (2016). Teacher knowledge and beliefs about grammar: a case study of an English primary school. *English in Education*, 50(2).

BERA. (2011). *Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research*. Retrieved from <http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/ethical-guidelines> [Accessed 15th August 2012]

Bereiter and Scardamalia. (1987). *The Psychology of Written Composition*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Bernstein, B. (2000). *Pedagogy, Symbolic Control and Identity: theory, research and critique*. New York: Lanham, Rowman & Littlefield.

- Berry, R. (1997). Teachers' awareness of learners' knowledge: The case of metalinguistic terminology. *Language Awareness* 6/2 & 3: 136–146
- Berry, R. (1999). The seven sins of pedagogic grammar. In R. Berry, B. Asker, K. Hyland & M. Lam (Eds.), *Language Analysis, Description and Pedagogy*. The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology.
- Berry, R. (2005). Making the most of metalanguage. *Language Awareness*. 14/1:3-20.
- Berry, R. (2008). EFL major's knowledge of metalinguistic knowledge: A comparative study. *Language Awareness*, 18(2), 113-128.
- Berry, R. (2010). *Terminology in English language teaching: Nature and use*. Bern: Peter Lang AG.
- Bew Report. (2011). *Key Stage 2 testing, assessment and accountability review: Final report*.
- Bialystock, E. (1990). The competence of processing: classifying theories of second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24, 635-48
- Bialystock, E. (1994). Analysis and control in the development of second language proficiency. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16(2), 157-168.
- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. Harlow: Pearson.
- Bickerton, D. (1999). Creole languages, the language bioprogram hypothesis, and language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of child language acquisition* (p.29). Academic Press.
- Bjorgen, I. A. (1964). *A Re-Evaluation of Rote Learning*. Oslo: Oslo University Press.
- Bloom, B. S., Engelhart, M. D., Furst, E. J., Hill, W. H., & Krathwohl, D. R. (Eds.). (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals. Handbook 1: Cognitive domain*. New York: David McKay.
- Bloom, P. (2000). *How children learn the meanings of words*. Massachusetts: The MIT Press.
- Bloom, P. (2001). Precis of How Children Learn the Meanings of Words. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 24(6).
- Bloor, T. (1986). What do language students know about grammar? *British Journal of Language Teaching*, 24(3), 157-160.

- Bloor, T., & Bloor, M. (2004). *The Functional Analysis of English* (2nd ed.). London: Arnold.
- Blumberg, B. F., Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2014). *Business Research Methods* (4th ed). Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill.
- Boblin, S. L., Ireland, S., Kirkpatrick, H., & Robertson, K. (2013). Using Stake's Qualitative Case Study Approach to Explore Implementation of Evidence-Based Practice. *Qualitative Health Research*, 23(9), 1267-1275.
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods*. Boston: Pearson.
- Bold, C. (2012). *Using Narrative Research*. London: Sage.
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in grammar teaching: A literature review. *Language Awareness*, 12(2), 96-108.
- Borg, S., & Burns, A. (2008). Integrating grammar in adult TESOL classrooms. *Applied Linguistics*, 29(3), 456-482.
- Brooks, J., & King, N. (2014). *Doing template analysis: evaluating an end of life case service*. SAGE Research Methods Cases.
- Brown, A.V. (2009) Students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching: A comparison of ideals. *The Modern Language Journal*. 93(1), 46-60.
- Bourke, J. M. (2005). The grammar we teach. *Reflections on English Language Teaching* 4, 85–97.
- Bruss, E. W. (1982). *Beautiful Theories: The Spectacle of Discourse in Contemporary Criticism*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins UP.
- Cajkler, W. (2004). How a dead butler was killed: The way English national strategies maim grammatical parts. *Language and Education*, 18(1), 1-16.
- Cajkler, W., & Hislam, J. (2002). Trainee teachers' grammatical knowledge: The tension between public expectations and individual competence. *Language Awareness*, 11, 161-77.
- Calderhead, J. (1987). Developing a framework for the elicitation and analysis of teachers' verbal reports. *Oxford Review of Education*, 13(2), 183-189.
- Cameron, J. (2000). *The Right to Write*. London: Macmillan Publishers Limited.

- Cameron, S., & Dempsey, L. (2016). *The Oral Language Book*. Auckland, New Zealand: S&L Publishing Ltd.
- Carter, R. (Ed.). (1990). *Knowledge About Language and the Curriculum: The LINC Reader*. London: Hodder.
- Chapman, S. (2000). *Philosophy for Linguistics: An introduction*. London: Routledge.
- Chapman, S. (2006). *Thinking about Language: Theories of English*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Chen, H., & Myhill, D. (2016). Children talking about writing: Investigating metalinguistic understanding. *Linguistics and Education*, 35, 100-108.
- Chomsky, N. (1969). Quine's empirical assumptions. In D. Davidson & J. Hintikka (Eds.), *Words and Objections* (pp.53-68). Dordrecht: Reidel.
- Clandinin, D. J. (1985). Personal practical knowledge: A study of teachers' classroom images. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 15(4), 361-385.
- Clara, M. (2016). Vygotsky and Vasilyuk on *Perezhivanie*: Two notions and one word. *Mind, Culture and Activity*, 23(4), 284-293.
- Clark, U. (2005). Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse: Linguistics, educational policy and practice in the UK English/literacy classroom. *English Teaching Practice and Critique*, 4(3), 32-47.
- Clark, U. (2010). Grammar in the curriculum for English: What next? *Changing English*, 17(2), 189-200.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research Methods in Education* (7th ed.). London: Routledge/Falmer.
- Corden, R. (2000). Reading-Writing connections: The importance of Interactive Discourse. *English in Education*, 34(2), 35-44.
- Corden, R. (2002). Developing Reflective Writers in Primary Schools: findings from partnership research. *Educational Review*, 54(3), 249-276.
- Cresswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cresswell, J. W. (2014). *Qualitative inquiry & research design* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crystal, D. (1997). The linguistic identity of English-language dictionaries of linguistics. *Lexicographica*, 13, 17-33.

Crystal, D. (2004a). *Making Sense of Grammar*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Crystal, D. (2004b). English Word Classes. In B. Aarts, D. Denison & G. Popova, *Fuzzy Grammar: A Reader*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Crystal, D. (2006). *How Language Works*. London: Penguin Group.

Crystal, D. (2008). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics (6th ed.)*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Crystal, D. (2013, May 5). [Web log post]. Retrieved from <http://david-crystal.blogspot.com/2013/05/on-testing-time.html>

Dakowska, M. (2005). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language. A guide for professionals*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

Daniels, H. (2012). *Dialectic and Dialogic: The essence of a Vygotskian Pedagogy*. Retrieved from PsyJournals.ru

Daniels, H. (Ed.). (2017). *Introduction to Vygotsky (3rd ed.)*. London: Routledge.

Daniels, H., Cole, M., & Wertsch, J. V. (2007). *The Cambridge companion to Vygotsky*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Davydov, A. A. (1993). Intermedity – basic state of social systems. *Systems Research*, 10(4), 81-84.

Dawkins, J. (1995). Teaching punctuation as a rhetorical tool. *College Composition and Communication*, 46, 533-548.

Denzin, N. K. (1970). *The Research Act in Sociology: a Theoretical Introduction to Sociological Methods*. London: Butterworth.

Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (Eds.). (2005). *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research (3rd ed.)*. California: SAGE Publications Inc.

Department for Education. (2013a). *The National Curriculum in England: Key Stages 1 and 2 framework document*. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-in-england-primary-curriculum>

Department for Education (DfE). (2013b). *2013 Key stage 2 tests: English grammar, spelling and punctuation tests*. London: DfE. Retrieved from

<http://www.satspapers.org/SATs%20papers/SPAG/2013%20KS2%20Grammar,%20punctuation%20Spelling%20Test%20%20%20Level%2035/2013%20KS2%20Grammar%20punctuation%20spelling%20paper%201%20short%20answers.pdf>

Department for Education (DfE). (2014). *The National Curriculum in England: English programmes of study document*. Updated 16 July 2014. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-in-england-english-programmes-of-study/national-curriculum-in-england-english-programmes-of-study>

Department for Education (DfE). (2016). *2016 Key stage 1 tests: English grammar, spelling and punctuation tests*. London: DfE. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/key-stage-1-tests-2016-english-grammar-punctuation-and-spelling-test-materials>

Department for Education (DfE). (2017). *2017 Key stage 1 tests: English grammar, spelling and punctuation tests*. London: DfE. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/key-stage-1-tests-2017-english-grammar-punctuation-and-spelling-test-materials>

Department for Education and Employment (DfEE). (1998). *The National Literacy Strategy Framework for Teaching*. London: DfEE Publications.

Department for Education and Employment (DfEE). (1999). *The National Curriculum*. London: DfEE/QCA.

Department for Education and Employment (DfEE). (2000). *The National Literacy Strategy: Grammar for Writing*. London: DfEE Publications.

Department for Education and Science. (1988). *Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Teaching of English Language (Kingman Report)*. London: HMSO.

Department for Education and Science. (1989). *English for Ages 5-16 (Cox Report)*. London: HMSO.

Department for Education and Skills (DfES). (2001). *The National Literacy Strategy Framework for Teaching (2nd ed.)*. London: DfES Publications.

Derewianka, B., & Jones, P. (2010). From traditional to grammar to functional grammar: Bridging the divide. *Special Issue of NALDIC Quarterly*, 6-15.

Dewey, J. (1916). *Essays on experimental logic*. New York: Dover.

Education Reform Act (ERA). (1988). Retrieved from <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1988/40/contents/enacted>

- Edwards, D., & Mercer, N. (1987). *Common Knowledge - development of understanding in the classroom*. London: Methuen.
- Elbow, P. (1981). *Writing with Power: Techniques for mastering the writing process*. New York: Oxford
- Ellis, R., & Barkhuizen, G. P. (2005). *Analysing learner language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Elder, C. (2009). Validating a test of metalinguistic knowledge. In R. Ellis, S. Loewen, C. Elder, R. Erlam, J. Philip & H. Reinders, *Implicit and Explicit Knowledge in Language Learning. Testing and Teaching* (pp.113-138). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Emig, J. (1980). Cited in P. Hartwell (1985). Grammar, Grammars, and the Teaching of Grammar. *College English*, 47(2), 105-127. National Council of Teachers of English.
- Engeström, Y., Miettinen, R., & Punamaki, R-L. (Eds.). (1999). *Perspectives on Activity Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Evans, V., & Green, M. (2006). *Cognitive Linguistics: An introduction*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Fauconnier, G. (1997). *Mappings in Thought and Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Fearn, L., & Farnan, N. (2007). When is a Verb Using Functional Grammar to Teach Writing. *Journal of Basic Writing*, 26(1), 1-26.
- Findlay, K. (2010). *The Professional Identity of English teachers in the Secondary School*. Paper presented at the British Educational Research Association Annual Conference, University of Warwick, England.
- Firth, J. R. (1957). Papers in Linguistics 1934-1951. A synopsis of linguistic theory, 1930-55. In F. Palmer (Ed.). *Selected Papers of J. R. Firth 1952-59* (pp.168-205). London: Longman.
- Fisher, R. (2002). Boys into Writing: research into raising boys' achievement in writing. In M. Williams (Ed.), *Unlocking Writing*. London: David Fulton.
- Fisher, R., Lewis, M., & Davis, B. (2000). *The Implementation of a Literacy Hour in Small Rural Schools*.
- Flick, U. (2009). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research (4th ed.)*. London: Sage.
- Fortune, A. (2005). Learners' use of metalanguage in collaborative form-focused L2 output tasks. *Language Awareness* 14/1, 21-38
- Fotos, S., & Ellis, R. (1991). Communicating about Grammar: A Task-Based Approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(4), 605-628.

- Foucault, M. (1980). *Language, Counter Memory, Practice*. In Bouchard, D.F. (Ed.). Ithaca: Cornell UP.
- Frater, G. (2000). Observed in practice. English in the National Literacy Strategy: some reflections. *Reading*, 34(3), 107-112.
- Frater, G. (2004). Improving Dean's Writing: or, what shall we tell the children. *Literacy*, (38)2, 78-82.
- Fries, C. C. (1927) *The Rules of the Common School Grammars*. 42, 221-23. Cited in Hartwell, P. (1985). Grammar, Grammars, and the Teaching of Grammar. *College English*, 47(2), 105-127. National Council of Teachers of English.
- Gardenfors, P. (2014). A Semantic Theory of Word Classes. *Croatian Journal of Philosophy*. Vol. XIV, No. 41
- Gebhard, M., I-An Chena, L., & Britton, L. (2014). "Miss, nominalization is a nominalization:" English language learners' use of SFL metalanguage and their literacy practices. *Linguistics and Education*, 26, 106-125.
- Geeraerts, D. (Ed.). (2006). *Cognitive Linguistics: Basic Readings*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Gibbs, G. (2007). *Analyzing Qualitative Data*. London: Sage.
- Gilbert, N. (2008). Research, theory and method. In N. Gilbert (Ed.), *Research Social Life* (3rd ed). London: Sage.
- Giovanelli, M. (2015). Becoming an English language teacher: linguistic knowledge, anxieties and the shifting sense of identity. *Language and Education*, 29(9), 416-429.
- Golombek, P. R., & Johnson, K. E. (2004). Narrative inquiry as a mediational space: examining emotional and cognitive dissonance in second-language teachers' development. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 10(3).
- Gombert, E. J. (1992). *Metalinguistic development*. Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- Gombert, E. J. (2003). Implicit and Explicit Learning to Read: Implication as for Subtypes of Dyslexia. *Current Psychology Letters: Behaviour, Brain and Cognition (Special Issue on Language Disorders and Reading Acquisition)*, 10. Retrieved from <http://cpl.revues.org/document202.html>
- Goodson, L., & Medway, P. (1990). *'Bringing English to order: The history and politics of a school subject*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Goodwyn, A., & Findlay, K. (1999). The Cox Models Revisited: English Teachers' Views of their Subject and the National Curriculum. *English in Education*, 33(2).

- Graham, S., & Perin, D. (2007). A meta-analysis of writing instruction for adolescent students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(3), 445-476.
- Grainger, T., Goouch, K., & Lambrith, A. (2003). Playing the Games Called Writing: Children's Views and Voices. *English in Education*, 37(2), 4-15.
- Graves, D. H. (1983). *Writing: Teachers and Children at Work*. Portsmouth: Heinemann.
- Gredler, M. E. (2009). Hiding in plain sight: The stages of mastery/self-regulation in Vygotsky's cultural – historical theory. *Educational Psychologist*, 44(1), 1-19.
- Gredler, M. E. (2012). Understanding Vygotsky for the Classroom: Is it Too Late. *Educ Psychol Rev*, 24, 113-131.
- Green, P., & Hecht, K. (1992). Implicit and explicit grammar: an empirical study. *Applied Linguistics*, 13, 168-184.
- Greig, A., Taylor, J., & MacKay, T. (2013). *Doing Research with Children (3rd ed.)*. London: Sage.
- Grix, J. (2002). Introducing the Students to the Generic Terminology of Social Research. *Politics*, 22(3), 175-186.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp.105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1967). Linguistics and the Teaching of English. In J. Britton (Ed.). *Handbook for English Teachers: 2. Talking and Writing* (pp.80-90). London: Methuen.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1973). *Explorations in the Functions of Language*. London: Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1976). A brief sketch of systemic grammar. In G. Kress (Ed.), *Halliday: system and function in language. Selected papers* (pp.3-6). Oxford University Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). *Language as social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. London: Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold.

- Halliday, M. A. K. (2002). On grammar and grammatics. In J. Webster (Ed.), *The collected works of M. A. K. Halliday Vol. 3* (pp.384-417). London: Continuum.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (2013). Meaning as Choice. In L. Fontaine, T. Bartlett & G. O'Grady (Eds.), *Systemic Functional Linguistics: Exploring Choice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K., Lamb, S., & Regan, J. (1988). *In Retrospect: using language and knowing how*. Twelfth in a series of seminars: Issues in Communication, Claremont Graduate School.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2014). *Halliday's Introduction to Functional Grammar (4th ed.)*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Han, Y., & Ellis, R. (1998). Implicit knowledge, explicit knowledge and general language proficiency. *Language Teaching Research*, 2(1), 1-23.
- Hancock, R., & Mansfield, M. (2002). The Literacy Hour: a case for listening to children. *The Curriculum Journal*, 13(2), 183-200.
- Hansard. (1991). *Hansard Volume: House of Commons Debates*. Retrieved from <https://publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm/cmse9192.htm>.
- Harper, H., & Rennie, J. (2009). "I had to go out and get myself a book on grammar": a study of pre-service teachers' knowledge about language. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 32(1), 22-37.
- Harrison, H., Birks, M., Franklin, R., & Mills, J. (2017). Case study research: Foundations and methodological orientations. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*. 18(1), Art. 19.
- Hartwell, P. (1985). Grammar, Grammars, and the Teaching of Grammar. *College English*, 47(2), 105-127. National Council of Teachers of English.
- Hasan, R. (2004). The concept of semiotic mediation: perspectives from Bernstein's sociology. In J. Muller, B. Davies & A. Marais (Eds.), *Reading Bernstein, Researching Bernstein* (pp.30-43). London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Hedegaard, M. (2017). The significance of demands and motives across practice in children's learning and development. In Daniels, H. *Introduction to Vygotsky* (3rd ed.).
- Herriott, R. E., & Firestone, W. A. (1983). Multisite qualitative policy research: Optimizing description and generalizability. *Education Researcher*, 12, 14-19.
- Hillocks. G. Jr., & Smith, M. (1991). Grammar and usage. In J. Flood, J. M. Jensen, D. Lapp & J. S. Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts*. New York: Macmillan.

- Hislam, J., & Cajkler, W. (2005). Teacher Trainees' Explicit Knowledge of Grammar and Primary Curriculum Requirements in England. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Applied Linguistics and Language Teacher Education* (pp.295-312). New York: Springer.
- Holt, R. D. (1992). Personal history-based beliefs as relevant prior knowledge in course work. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29(2), 325-349.
- Howe, A. C. (1996). Development of Science Concepts within a Vygotskian Framework. *Science Education*, 80(1), 35-51.
- Hudson, R. (1996). *Sociolinguistics* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Hudson, R. (2001). *Grammar Teaching and Writing Skills: The research evidence*. Retrieved from <ftp://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/pub/Word-Grammar/g4w.pdf>
- Hudson, R. (2007). *Language Networks: the new Word Grammar*. Oxford University Press.
- Hudson, R. (2010). *An Introduction to Word Grammar*. Cambridge University Press.
- Hudson, R. (2012). *Becoming a Grammar Teacher: Why? What? How?* Retrieved from dickhudson.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/.../Becoming-a-Grammar-Teacher-v21.doc.
- Hudson, R. (2013). *How linguistics has influenced school teaching in England*. Retrieved from dickhudson.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/influence.doc
- Hudson, R. (2016, May 5). *SPaG – a brief history of the teaching of spelling, punctuation & grammar and the SATs tests*. [Web log post]. Retrieved from <http://educationmediacentre.org/blog/spag-a-brief-history-of-the-teaching-of-spelling-punctuation-grammar-the-sats-tests/>
- Hudson, R., & Walmsley, J. (2005). *The English Patient 1: English Grammar and teaching in the twentieth century*. Retrieved from <http://dickhudson.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/engpat.pdf>
- James, C. & Garrett, P. (Eds.). (1991). *Language Awareness in the Classroom*. London: Longman.
- Janks, H., Dixon, J., Ferreira, A., Granville, S., Newfield, D. (2014). *Doing Critical Literacy*. New York: Routledge.
- Johnson, K. E. (1994). The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of preservice ESL teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 10(4), 439-452.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2008). *Educational Research* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

- Jones, P., & Chen, H. (2016). The role of dialogic pedagogy in teaching grammar. *Research papers in education*, 31(1), 45-69.
- Kagan, D. (1992). Implications of research on teacher beliefs. *Educational Psychologist*, 27, 65-90.
- Keen, J. (1997). Grammar, Metalanguage and Writing Development. *Teacher Development*, 1(3), 432-445.
- Keith, G. (1997). Teach yourself English grammar. *The English and Media Magazine*, 36.
- Kelder, R. (1996). *Rethinking Literacy Studies: From the Past to the Present*. (conference paper presented at the World Conference on Literacy (Philadelphia, PA, March 12-15, 1996). Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED417373.pdf>
- Kimball, J. (1973). Seven principles of surface structure parsing in natural language. *Cognition* 2, 14, 15-47.
- King, N. (2004). Using templates in the qualitative analysis of text. In C. Cassell & G. Symon (Eds.), *Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research* (pp.256-270). London: SAGE.
- King, N., & Horrocks, C. (2010). *Interviews in Qualitative Research*. London: SAGE.
- King, N., & Brooks, J. (2017). *Template analysis for business and management students*. London: Sage Publications Inc.
- Kolln, M. (1996). *Rhetorical grammar: Grammatical choices, rhetorical effects*. New York: Longman.
- Kolln, M. (2006). *Rhetorical grammar: Grammatical choices, rhetorical effects*. New York: Longman.
- Kolln, M., & Gray, L. (2012). *Rhetorical grammar: Grammatical choices, rhetorical effects (7th ed.)*. New York: Longman.
- Kolln, M., & Gray, L. (2017). *Rhetorical Grammar: Grammatical Choices, rhetorical Effects (8th ed.)*. Pearson Education Inc.
- Krashen, S.D. (1983) Cited in Hartwell, P. (1985). Grammar, Grammars, and the Teaching of Grammar. *College English*, 47(2), 105-127. National Council of Teachers of English.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews*. London: Sage Publications.
- Langacker, R. W. (1987). *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar, Volume I*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Langacker, R. W. (2008). *Cognitive Grammar*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

- Lantolf, J. P. (2006). Sociocultural theory and L2. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(1), 67-109.
- Lefstein, A. (2009). Rhetorical grammar and the grammar of schooling: Teaching 'powerful verbs' in the English national literacy strategy. *Linguistics and Education*, 20, 378-400.
- Levy, R. (2011). *Young children reading at home and at school*. London: Sage.
- Lewis, J., & Ritchie, J. (2003). Generalising from Qualitative Research. In J. Ritchie & J. Lewis (Eds.), *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*. London: Sage.
- Li, H., & Sheng, X. (2017). A Study on the Garden Path Phenomenon from the Perspective of Generative Grammar. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(6), 1190-1194.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE.
- Locke, T. (2010). Introduction: "Grammar Wars" and Beyond. In T. Locke (ed.), *Beyond the Grammar Wars*. London: Routledge.
- Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher a sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Macken-Horarik (2012). Why School English Needs a 'Good Enough' Grammatics (and Not More Grammar). *Changing English*, 19(2), 179-194.
- Maun, I., & Myhill, D. (2005). Text as design, writers as designers. *English in Education*, 39(2), 5-21.
- McCormick Calkins, L. (1991). *Living Between the Lines*. Portsmouth: Heinemann Educational Books.
- McCullagh, J. (2012). How can video supported reflection enhance teachers' professional development? *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 7, 137-152.
- McDonough, J., & McDonough, S. (1997). *Research Methods for English Language Teachers*. London: Arnold.
- McMahon, H., & O'Neill, W. (1992). Computer-mediated zones of engagement in learning. In T. M. Duffy, J. Lowyck & D.H. Jonassen (Eds.), *Designing environments for constructive learning* (pp.29-50). New York, Springer-Verlag.
- Medwell, J., Wray, D., Poulson, L., & Fox, R. (1998). *Effective Teachers of Literacy: A report of a research project commissioned by the Teacher Training Agency*. Exeter: School of Education.

- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research – A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley and Sons Inc.
- Mertz, N. T., & Anfara Jr, V. A. (Eds.). (2006). *Theoretical frameworks in qualitative research*. Sage. London
- Micciche, L. (2004). *Making a Case for Rhetorical Grammar*. The National Council of Teachers of English.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Minick, M. (1987). The development of Vygotsky's thought: An introduction. In R. W. Rieber & A. S. Carton (Eds.), *Collected works of L. S. Vygotsky: Vol. 1. Problems of general psychology* (pp.17-36). New York: Plenum.
- Mir, R., & Watson, A. (2000). Strategic Management and the Philosophy of Science: the Case for a Constructivist Methodology. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21, 941-953.
- Mukherji, P., & Albon, D. (2010). *Research Methods in Early Childhood*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Muller, H. J. (1967). *The uses of English: Guidelines for the teaching of English from the Anglo-American conference at Dartmouth College*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Myhill, D. (2000). Misconceptions and Difficulties in the Acquisition of Metalinguistic Knowledge. *Language and Education*, 14(3), 151-163.
- Myhill, D. (2003). Principled understanding? Teaching the active and passive voice. *Language and Education*, 17(5), 355-370.
- Myhill, D. (2005). Ways of knowing: Writing with grammar in mind. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 4(3), 77-96
- Myhill, D. (2008). Towards a Linguistic Model of Sentence Development in Writing. *Language and Education*, 22(5), 271-288.
- Myhill, D., & Watson, A. (2011). Teaching Writing. In Green (Ed.), *Becoming a Reflective English Teacher*. Berkshire: Open University Press.

- Myhill, D. (2012). 'The Ordeal of Deliberate Choice': Metalinguistic Development in Secondary Writers. In V. Berninger (Ed.), *Past, present, and future contributions of cognitive writing research to cognitive psychology* (pp.247-274). New York: Psychology Press/Taylor Francis Group.
- Myhill, D., Jones, S. M., Lines, H., & Watson, A. (2012). Re-thinking grammar: the impact of embedded grammar teaching on students' writing and students' metalinguistic understanding. *Research Papers in Education*, 27(2), 139-166.
- Myhill, D., Jones, S., & Watson, A. (2013). Grammar matters: How teachers' grammatical knowledge impacts on the teaching of writing. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 36, 77-91.
- Myhill, D., & Watson, A. (2014). The role of grammar in the writing curriculum: A review of the literature. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy*, 30(1), 41-62.
- Myhill, D., & Jones, S. (2015). Conceptualizing metalinguistic understanding in writing. *Culture and Education*, 27(4), 839-867.
- Myhill, D., Jones, S., & Wilson, A. (2016). Writing conversations: fostering metalinguistic discussion about writing. *Research Papers in Education*, 1, 23-44.
- Myhill, D., Jones, S. & Lines, H. (2018). Supporting less proficient writers through linguistically aware teaching. *Language and Education*, 32(4), 333-349.
- Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19(4), 317-328.
- Newbolt, H. (1921). *The Newbolt Report: the teaching of English in England*. Retrieved from www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/Newbolt
- Nisbet, J., & Watt, J. (1984). Case study. In J. Bell, T. Bush, A. Fox, J. Goodey & S. Goulding (Eds.). *Conducting Small-Scale Investigations in Educational Management* (pp.79-92). London: Harper & Row.
- Norman, K. (Ed.). (1992). *Thinking Voices: the work of the National Oracy Project*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.
- Norman, P. (2010). Fitness or formality, fruitcake or fudge? A retrospective on grammar in the English curriculum. *English, Drama, Media*, 17, 39-46.
- Nutbrown, C., & Hannon, P. (2003). Children's perspectives on family literacy: Methodological issues, findings and implications for practice. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, 3(2), 115-145.

- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). (2012). *Moving English forward: Action to raise standards in English*. London: OFSTED.
- Pajares, F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307-332.
- Paraskevas, C. (2004). Learning about grammar. *International Journal of Learning*, 11, 93-99.
- Paraskevas, C. (2006). Grammar Apprenticeship. *English Journal*, 95(5), 65-69.
- Perera, K. (1987). *Understanding Language*. London: National Association of Advisers in English.
- Petruzella, B. A. (1996). Grammar instruction: What teachers say. *English Journal*, 85(7), 68-72.
- Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System* 37, 380-390.
- Pomphrey, C., & Moger, R. (1999). Cross-subject Dialogue About Language: Attitudes and Perceptions of PGCE Students of English and Modern Languages. *Language Awareness*, 8(3&4).
- Poulson, L., Avramidis, E., Fox, R., Medwell, J., & Wray, D. (2001). The theoretical beliefs of effective teachers of literacy in primary schools: An exploratory study of orientations to reading and writing. *Research Papers in Education*, 16(3), 271-292.
- Prepoutsidou, F., Kyriacos, A., Yorgos, Z., & Pantazis, P. (2004). *Phenomenological approach in educational research*. Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research Post Graduate and New Researcher Pre-Conference, University of Crete, 20-21 September 2004.
- Pring, R. (2000). *Philosophy of Educational Research*. London: Continuum.
- Prosser, J., & Loxley, A. (2008). *Introducing Visual Methods: NCRM Methodological Review*. Manchester: ESRC National Centre for Research Methods.
- Qi, D. S., & Lapkin, S. (2001). Exploring the role of noticing in a three-stage second language writing task. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10, 277-303.
- Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). (1998). *The Grammar Papers: Perspectives on the teaching of grammar in the National Curriculum*. London: QCA.

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). (1999). *Not Whether But How: Teaching grammar in English at Key Stages 3 and 4*. London: QCA.

Richards, C. (2011). *Watching white paint dry – first reactions on reading the executive summary of the Bew Report*.

Retrieved from [http://www.primaryreview.org.uk/downloads /news/2011/06/FirstReactions to BewReport Summary_June2011.pdf](http://www.primaryreview.org.uk/downloads/news/2011/06/FirstReactions_to_BewReportSummary_June2011.pdf)

Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (2nd ed.) (pp.102-119). New York: Macmillan.

Richmond, J. (1990). What do we mean by Knowledge About Language? In R. Carter (Ed.), *Knowledge about Language and the Curriculum*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Richmond, J. (2015). *Curriculum and Assessment in English 3 to 19: A Better Plan: The National Curriculum for English from 2015*. UKLA and Owen Education.

Robinson, M. (2005). Metalanguage in L1 English-speaking 12 year-olds: Which Aspects of Writing Do they Talk About? *Language Awareness*, 14(1), 39-55.

Robson, C. (2002). *Real World Research* (2nd ed.). Blackwell: Oxford DEAN.

Rogoff, B. (1990). *Apprenticeship in Thinking*. New York: Open University Press.

Rosenburg, J. P., & Yates, P. M. (2007). Schematic representation of case study research designs. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 60(4), 447-452.

Rudduck, J. (1999). 'Education for all', 'achievement for all' and pupils who are 'too good to drift' (the second Harold Dent memorial lecture). *Education Today*, 49(2), 3.

Safford, K. (2016). Teaching grammar and testing grammar in the English primary school: The impact on teachers and their teaching of the grammar element of the statutory test in spelling, punctuation and grammar (SPaG). *Changing English*. Vol.23, No.1,3-21.

Saussure, F. (1960). *Course in General Linguistics*, trans. Wade Baskin. London: Peter Owen, [1st French ed. 1915].

Sealey, A. (1999). Teaching Primary School Children about the English Language: A Critique of Current Policy Documents. *Language Awareness*, 8(2).

- Shaughnessy, M. P. (1977). *Errors and Expectations: A Guide for the Teacher of Basic Writing*. New York: Oxford UP.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1-22.
- Slobin, D. (1996). From "Thought and Language" to "Thinking for Speaking". In J. Gumperz & S. Levinson (Eds.), *Rethinking Linguistic Relativity* (pp.70-96). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sorace, A. (1985). Metalinguistic knowledge and language use in acquisition-poor environments. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 239-254.
- Spada, N. (1987). Relationships between instructional differences and learning outcomes: A process-product study of communicative language teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, 8, 137-155.
- Stahl, S. and Nagy, W. (2006). *Teaching Word Meanings*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. NJ, USA
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stake, R. E. (2005). Qualitative case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stake, R. E. (2006). *Multiple Case Study Analysis*. New York: The Gilford Press.
- Standards and Testing Agency (STA). (2013). *English grammar, punctuation and spelling: 2013 Technical report*. STA.
- Stipek, D. (2006). No Child Left Behind comes to preschool. *The Elementary School Journal*, 106(5), 455-465.
- Stone, J. E. (2012). A Vygotskian Commentary on the Reggio Emilia Approach. *Contemporary Issues in Early Childhood*, 13(4), 276-289.
- Taber, K. (2013). *Classroom-based research and evidence-based practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Tarone, E., & Swierzbis, B. (2009). *Exploring learner language*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Thomas, G. (2011). *How to do your Case Study*. London: Sage Publications.
- Thompson, D. (Ed.). (1969). *Directions in the Teaching of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Thorne, S. L. (2005). Epistemology, Politics, and Ethics in Sociocultural Theory. *The Modern Language Journal*, 89(iii), 393-409.
- Thornton, S. J. (1993). The quest for emergent meaning: A personal account. In D. J. Flinders & G. E. Mills (Eds.), *Theory and concepts in qualitative research* (pp. 68-82). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Titunik, I. R. (1986). "The Formal Method and the Sociological Method (M. M. Baxtin, P. N. Medvedev, V. N. Volosinov) in Russian Theory and Study of Literature." (Appendix to Volosinov 1986, 175-200).
- Tolstoy, L. (1903). *Pedagogical Writings*. Moscow: Kushnerev.
- Trask, R. L. (1999). *Language: the basics* (2nd ed.). Oxon: Routledge.
- Trask, R. L. (2004). What is a word? *University of Sussex Working Papers in Linguistics 11/04*. Retrieved from <http://www.sussex.ac.uk/english/documents/essay---what-is-a-word.pdf>
- Turner, M. (2001). *Reading Minds: The Study of English in the Age of Cognitive Science*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- UKLA/PNS. (2004). *Raising Boys' Achievements in Writing*. Hertfordshire: UKLA.
- Underwood, B. J., & Schulz, R. J. (1960). *Meaningfulness and Verbal Learning*. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- United Kingdom Literacy Association (UKLA). (2013). *Statement on Teaching Grammar*. Retrieved from http://www.ukla.org/news/story/ukla_publishes_its_statement_on_teaching_grammar/
- Ur, P. (1988). *Grammar practice activities*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Urquhart, I. (2002). Moving Forward Together: do we need a 'common language'? *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 32(1), 27-44.
- Van der Veer, R., & Valsiner, J. (1991). *Understanding Vygotsky: A quest for synthesis*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Van Gelderen, A. (2010). Does explicit teaching of grammar help students to become better writers? Insights from empirical research. In T. Locke (Ed.), *Beyond the grammar wars: a resource for teachers and students on developing language knowledge in the English/literacy classroom*. New York: Routledge.
- Van Maanen, J. (1979). Reclaiming qualitative methods for organizational research: A preface. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(4), 520-526.

Van Manen, M. (1997). *Researching Life Experience* (2nd ed.). Canada: The Althouse Press.

Vavra, E. (1996). On not teaching grammar. *English Journal*, 85(7), 32-37.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1960). In Minick, N. In Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). *Thinking and Speech*. Trans. N. Minick. In R. W. Rieber and A. S. Carton (eds), *The Collected Works of L.S. Vygotsky: Vol. 1: Problems of General Psychology: Including the volume Thinking and Speech*. New York: Plenum Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1966). Development of the higher mental functions. In A. N. Leont'ev, A. R. Luria, & A. Smirnov (Eds.), *Psychological research in the U.S.S.R (Vol. 1)* (pp.11-54). Moscow: Progress. [Original work published 1931].

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Edited and translated by M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner and E. Souberman. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language*. Translated and edited by Alex Kozulin. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). *Thinking and Speech*. Trans. N. Minick. In R. W. Rieber and A. S. Carton (Eds.). *The Collected Works of L.S. Vygotsky: Vol. 1: Problems of General Psychology: Including the volume Thinking and Speech*. New York: Plenum Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1994). The development of academic concepts in school-aged children. In R. Van der Veer & J. Valsiner (Eds.), *The Vygotsky reader* (pp. 355–370). Cambridge: Blackwell.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1998). Trans. Hall, M.J. In R. W. Rieber (Ed.). *The Collected Works of L.S. Vygotsky: Vol. 5: Child Psychology – Cognition and Language*. Springer US.

Vygotsky, L. S. (2004). The historical meaning of the crisis in psychology: a methodological investigation. In R. W. Rieber & D. K. Robinson (Eds.), *The Essential Vygotsky* (pp. 227-344). New York, NY: Kluwer/Plenum.

Walford, G. (2001). *Doing Qualitative Educational Research: A personal guide to the research process*. London: Continuum.

Walker, R. (Ed.). (1998). *Applied Qualitative Research*. Hants: Gower.

Wall, K., & Higgins, S. (2006). Facilitating and supporting talk with pupils about metacognition: a research and learning tool. *International Journal of Research and Methods in Education*, 29(1), 39-53.

- Watson, A. (2015). Conceptualisations of 'grammar teaching': L1 English teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar for writing. *Language Awareness*, 24(1), 1-14.
- Watson, A. M., & Newman, R. M. C. (2017). Talking grammatically: L1 adolescent metalinguistic reflection on writing. *Language Awareness*, 26(4), 381-398.
- Wegerif, R. (2013). *Dialogic: Education for the Internet Age*. London: Routledge.
- Wells, G. (1994). The Complementary Contributions of Halliday and Vygotsky to a "Language-Based Theory of Learning". *Linguistics and education*, 6, 41-90.
- Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic inquiry: Towards a socio-cultural practice and theory of education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wertsch, J. V. (1985). *Vygotsky and the Social Formation of Mind*. Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Wertsch, J. V. (1995). The need for action in socio cultural research. In J. Wertsch, P. del Rio, & A. Alvarez (Eds.), *Sociocultural studies of mind* (pp.56-74). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Wertsch, J. V. (2007). Mediation. In H. Daniels (2017) (Ed.). *Introduction to Vygotsky (3rd Ed.)*. London: Routledge.
- Wilkinson, A. (1971). *The Foundations of Language: talking and reading in young children*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wilson, A. (2001). *Language Knowledge for Primary Teachers*. London: David Fulton.
- Wilson, A., & Myhill, D. (2012). 'Ways with Words: teachers' personal epistemologies of the role of metalanguage in the teaching of poetry writing'. *Language and Education*. doi: 10.1080/09500782.2012.669768
- Wittgenstein, L. (1958). *Philosophical Investigations*, trans. C. K. Ogden. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Wolcott, H. F. (2005). *The art of fieldwork (2nd ed.)*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.
- Wright, T. (2002). Doing language awareness: issues for language study in language teacher education. In H. Trappes-Lomax & G. Ferguson (Eds.), *Language in language teacher education*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Yasnitsky, A., & Van der Veer, R. (Eds.). (2016). *Revisionist revolution in Vygotsky studies*. London - New York: Routledge.

Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods (2nd ed.)*. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage Publishing.

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods (4th ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods (5th ed.)*. Sage Publishing.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Data gathering schedule: Case 1

Data gathering visits took place over 4 days: 3 consecutive days in March and the following Monday. Data gathering activities were undertaken according to the following schedule.

Visits	Nature of visits	Key resources	Participants	Times
Visit 1 3 weeks ahead of start of data gathering	Familiarisation visit to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Discuss research purpose and process with the headteacher and teachers Agree a research schedule (below) Discuss draft consent forms 	Research information sheet	Headteacher + teachers	Meeting time 1pm
		Draft research schedule		
		Draft consent forms		
Visit 2:	Class 2 lesson observation – whole class	Observation schedule Researcher field notes	Class + teacher	Class 2: 1 hour
	Pupil questionnaires – individual, completed with whole class	Written questionnaires	Whole class: 21 pupils in Class 2; 26 pupils in Class 1	Class 1 and Class 2: 30mins each
	Pupil writing conference (including post-lesson discussion as well as writing reflections)	Interview schedule Written evaluation slips	6 pupils per group	Class 2: 30mins
	Teacher interviews - individual	Interview schedule Audio recorded with permission	Teachers	Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 (after school): 40mins each
Visit 3:	Class 1 lesson observation – whole class	Observation schedule Researcher field notes	Class + teacher	Class 1: 1 hour
	Pupil writing conference (including post-lesson discussion as well as writing reflections)	Interview schedule Written evaluation slips	6 pupils per group	Class 1: 30mins
Visit 4:	Pupil interviews 1 (including video teaching lesson)	Interview schedule Video/Audio recorded with permission	6 pupils per group	Class 1 and Class 2: 50mins each
Visit 5:	Pupil interviews 2 (including grammar activities and games)	Interview schedule Video/Audio recorded with permission	6 pupils per group	Class 1 and Class 2: 50mins each

Appendix 2: Data gathering schedule: Case 2

Data gathering visits took place over 3 consecutive days in April. Data gathering activities were undertaken according to the following schedule.

Dates	Nature of visits	Key resources	Participants	Times
Visit 1 3 weeks ahead of start of data gathering	Familiarisation visit to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Discuss research purpose and process with the headteacher and teachers Agree a research schedule (below) Discuss draft consent forms 	Research information sheet	Headteacher + teachers	Meeting time TBC
		Draft research schedule		
		Draft consent forms		
Visit 2:	Class 1 lesson observation – whole class	Observation schedule Researcher field notes	Class + teacher	Class 1: 1 hour
	Teacher interview - individual	Interview schedule Audio recorded with permission	Teacher	Teacher 2: 40mins
	Class 2 lesson observation – whole class	Observation schedule Researcher field notes	Class + teacher	Class 2: 1 hour
	Pupil questionnaires – individual, completed with whole class	Written questionnaires	Whole class: 28 pupils in Class 1; 31 pupils in Class 2	Class 1 and Class 2: 30mins each
	Teacher interview - individual	Interview schedule Audio recorded with permission	Teacher	Teacher 1: 40mins
Visit 3:	Pupil writing conference (including post-lesson discussion as well as writing reflections)	Interview schedule Written evaluation slips	6 pupils per group	Class 1: 30mins
	Pupil interviews 1 (including video teaching lesson)	Interview schedule Video/Audio recorded with permission	6 pupils per group	Class 2: 50mins
	Pupil interviews 1 (including video teaching lesson)	Interview schedule Video/Audio recorded with permission	6 pupils per group	Class 1: 50mins
	Pupil writing conference (including post-lesson discussion as well as writing reflections)	Interview schedule Written evaluation slips	6 pupils per group	Class 2: 30mins
Visit 4:	Pupil interviews 2 (including grammar activities and games)	Interview schedule Video/Audio recorded with permission	6 pupils per group	Class 1: 50mins
	Pupil interviews 2 (including grammar activities and games)	Interview schedule Video/Audio recorded with permission	6 pupils per group	Class 2: 50mins

Appendix 3: Data source codes

The data gathering activity is referenced as an abbreviated code followed by three digits:

- The first digit of the code denotes the Class & Teacher (1 or 2).
- The second digit of the code denotes the Case (1 or 2).
- The third digit of the code denotes the number of times the method was used (1 or 2).

Activity abbreviations	Case 1		Case 2	
	Class 1 & Teacher 1 (<i>Rachel</i>)	Class 2 & Teacher 2 (<i>Alison</i>)	Class 1 & Teacher 1 (<i>Kerry</i>)	Class 2 & Teacher 2 (<i>Alex</i>)
LO: Lesson observation	LO1,1:1	LO2,1:1	LO1,2:1	LO2,2:1
T: Teacher interview	T1,1:1	T2,1:1	T1,2:1	T2,2:1
PQ: Pupil questionnaire	PQ1,1:1	PQ2,1:1	PQ1,2:1	PQ2,2:1
PW: Pupil writing conference and post-lesson reflections	PW1,1:1	PW2,1:1	PW1,2:1	PW2,2:1
PG: Pupil group interview 1	PG1,1:1	PG2,1:1	PG1,2:1	PG2,2:1
PG: Pupil group interview 2	PG1,1:2	PG2,1:2	PG1,2:2	PG2,2:2
RJ: Researcher journal	Throughout			

Appendix 4: Lesson Observation Schedule

Focus areas guiding the observation and informing post-lesson analysis and journal reflections:

Observation focus	Notes
Teacher's use of grammatical terminology: type and frequency used in the lesson.	
Teacher's overarching approach to teaching grammatical terminology (e.g. explicit/implicit; discrete / embedded; exposition / pupil collaboration; linguistic terms / semantic variations; knowledge / application e.g. meaning and effect)	
Teacher's strategies used to teach grammatical terminology (e.g. modelling, scaffolding by scribing, echoing / re-presenting non-technically / inviting questions, pupil explanations, using paired / group talk	
Teacher's use of context and examples (e.g. use of children's literature). Accuracy / appropriateness / meaning and effect?	
Teacher's expectations of the pupils' knowledge / understanding / application? In different contexts? Writing? Reading?	
Pupils' responses to questions and own questions asked.	
Pupils' use of grammatical terminology? With accuracy / understanding / interest / enthusiasm / confidence?	

Appendix 5: Teacher Interview Schedule

Interview questions/prompts:

1. Context: the class

Could you tell me a little about your class in terms of the subject of English (e.g. attitude and attainment)?

2. General reflections on lesson observed

What were the main purposes of this lesson?

How do you think the pupils got on (general comments: learning, engagement, interest, difficulties)?

In what ways did this lesson reflect your overall beliefs about teaching/learning literacy/English?

3. Grammatical terminology – teaching approaches

How do you normally approach the teaching of grammatical terminology? Was this lesson a typical example?

Which approaches do you feel are the most / least effective? Why?

At what point a new topic / area of learning / concept would you typically introduce the grammatical term(s)?

What might be the process? How you might teach it / help the children to learn it / help the children to use it?

Are there any resources that you find particularly useful in teaching grammatical terminology?

4. Grammatical terminology – teacher's perceptions of pupil learning

I noted some of the grammatical terms you used in your lesson. Were any of these terms new today? Familiar terms? Well established?

How well do you think the children handled the grammatical terminology? What makes you think this? Is this typical of this class?

What do you think the pupils think or feel about the grammatical terminology they experience?

Are there any grammatical terms that pupils typically find difficult / easy? How do you approach this?

Which do you think are the most important / most useful to know? E.g. most / least helpful to their writing?

Do you think the experience of grammatical terminology is different for different pupils? In what ways?

In what areas of grammatical terminology would you like to see your pupils improve?

5. Grammatical terminology – teacher’s beliefs, attitudes, perceptions of grammatical terminology

How would you describe your overall attitudes and beliefs about grammatical terminology?

What do you think is its purpose and value? What do you think the children think about its purpose and value?

Do you have any concerns about the teaching and learning of grammatical terminology? What are the issues? Challenges? A help or a hindrance to learning?

If challenges are identified, what do you think makes it challenging?

6. Grammatical terminology – teacher’s personal and professional experiences

What do you think has influenced your attitude and approach to grammatical terminology?

Was grammatical terminology part of your own education?

If yes, what do you recall of how was it taught? When? Teachers who influenced you?

If no, do you think it should have been? At what stage? Why?

What do you consider to be your strengths in teaching grammatical terminology?

What are your professional development needs in this area?

What have you done to develop your subject knowledge or pedagogical knowledge so far? Is there anything you would like to learn more about?

How do you approach the learning of grammatical terminology (e.g. self-study)?

7. Grammatical terminology – teacher’s reflecting national context

What was your initial reaction when the National Curriculum for English (grammar orders and appendices) and SPaG test first appeared?

Has your practice with regard to use of grammatical terminology changed as a result? In what ways?

Have your perceptions of grammatical terminology changed as a result? In what ways?

To what extent does the current policy serve your children’s interests and needs?

If the grammar aspect of the Programme of Study and/or the SPaG test was abandoned tomorrow, what aspects of your current practice would you keep and what would you change / lose? Why?

8. Other

Do you have anything else that you would like to say about grammatical terminology?

Appendix 6: Pupil Questionnaire

Pupil questionnaire

This questionnaire is all about the **grammar words** (grammatical terms) you are learning in literacy – words like *verb, adverb, noun, pronoun and adjective*.

Thank you for filling in this questionnaire.

Watch for the pencil to tell you how and where to answer.

Ask if you have any questions. Don't worry about what other children are writing. I am interested in what you think. Other children will not be reading your answers.

verb
adverb
noun
pronoun
adjective

1. **Tick one box**

I love English.	I like English.	English is OK.	I'm not bothered about English.	I don't like English at all.
-----------------	-----------------	----------------	---------------------------------	------------------------------

This is because _____

2. **Tick one box**

English is too easy.	English is sometimes too easy.	English is just right.	English is a little tricky.	English is too hard.
----------------------	--------------------------------	------------------------	-----------------------------	----------------------

This is because _____

3. **Tick one box**

I think I'm a very good writer.	I think I'm a good writer.	I think I'm OK at writing.	I'm sometimes OK at writing.	I'm not very good at writing.
---------------------------------	----------------------------	----------------------------	------------------------------	-------------------------------

This is because _____

4. **Tick one box**

I think I'm a very good reader.	I think I'm a good reader.	I think I'm OK at reading.	I'm sometimes OK at reading.	I'm not very good at reading.
---------------------------------	----------------------------	----------------------------	------------------------------	-------------------------------

This is because _____

Finish the sentences

5. A good writer is someone who _____

6. A good reader is someone who _____

1

7. Here is a list of grammar words. **Tick** ✓ **one column** each time to show which words you understand, which words you are not sure of and which ones you don't know yet.

Grammatical words	Yes ✓	Not sure ✓	Don't know ✓
capital letter			
sentence			
noun			
noun phrase			
adjective			
verb			
tense (past, present)			
adverb			
preposition			
connective			
conjunction			
clause			
subordinate clause			
direct speech			
inverted commas			
speech marks			
determiner			
pronoun			
possessive pronoun			
adverbial			
modal verb			
relative pronoun			
relative clause			
subject			
object			
active voice			
passive voice			

8. Draw your expression to show how you are feeling when learning a new grammar word in a literacy lesson.

↓

Tick one or more boxes

What is your expression showing?
How are you feeling about learning this new grammar word?

clever ☐
excited ☐
happy ☐
sad ☐
bored ☐
interested ☐
confused ☐
not bothered ☐
or ... none of these words ☐
or ... my own word is _____

9. **Tick one or more boxes.** I think learning about grammar words is:

great ☐ OK ☐ easy ☐ interesting ☐
confusing ☐ tricky ☐ hard ☐ boring ☐
or ... none of these words ☐ or ... my own word is _____

I think this because _____

10. **Tick one box.** I think...

I am very good at using grammar words	I am good at using grammar words	I am OK at using grammar words	I am not very good at using grammar words	I cannot use grammar words at all
---------------------------------------	----------------------------------	--------------------------------	---	-----------------------------------

2

11. **Write in the table**

Write down what you know about the meaning of these words and try to give an example of each.

Grammar word	What I think it means	Examples
noun		
adjective		
verb		
subordinate clause		

12. **Answer the question**

What do you think is hard about learning grammar words? _____

13. **Answer the question**

What do you think is easy about learning grammar words? _____

14. **Tick one or more boxes**

I think knowing grammar words helps me with my:

- a) writing..... ☐
b) reading..... ☐
c) talking/discussing..... ☐
d) thinking..... ☐

This is because _____

15. **Tick one box**

I think the hardest thing about grammar words is:

- a) remembering them..... ☐
b) understanding them..... ☐
c) spelling them..... ☐
d) using them e.g. in my reading, writing, talking, thinking... ☐

3

16. **Finish the sentence**

A new grammar word we have been learning in our class is _____
You might like to think about this as you answer the questions on this page.

17. **Write in the blue bubble**

When my teacher teaches me a new grammar word, I think to myself...



18. **Write in the green bubble**

When my teacher teaches a new grammar word, I think it helps me to learn it when...



19. **Tick one or more boxes**

I think I learn a new grammar word best when:

- My teacher explains it..... ☐
I do a worksheet about it..... ☐
I talk with others about it..... ☐
I do a practical activity..... ☐
e.g. investigation or game
I find out for myself about it..... ☐
I use it in my writing or reading.... ☐
My teacher gives us a test on it.... ☐
I say it or write it lots of times..... ☐

Or something else? Say what: _____

4

20. **Write in the red bubble**

I think my teacher wants me to know grammar words because...



21. **Tick one box** How important do you think it is for children to learn grammar words?

Extremely important	Very important	Important	Quite important	Not that important	Not important at all
1	2	3	4	5	6

22. **Tick one box** How useful do you think it is for children to learn grammar words?

Extremely useful	Very useful	Useful	Quite useful	Not that useful	Not useful at all
1	2	3	4	5	6

23. **Tick one box** How interesting do you think it is for children to learn grammar words?

Extremely interesting	Very interesting	Interesting	Quite interesting	Not that interesting	Not interesting at all
1	2	3	4	5	6

24. **Tick one box** How hard do you think it is for children to learn grammar words?

Extremely hard	Very hard	Hard	Quite hard	Not that hard	Not hard at all - easy
1	2	3	4	5	6

25. **Tick one box** Do you think children should be tested on grammar words (SPAG test) at the end of Year 6?

- Yes..... ☐
No..... ☐
It depends.... ☐
Don't know... ☐

I think this because

5

Appendix 7: Pupil Interview Schedule 1: Focusing on video-supported reflection

Year 5/6 “subordinate clause” NLS training video of teaching

1. Introduction:

Research purpose, process and ethical protocols reiterated. Confirm continued pupil consent. Any questions? Confirm understanding of the term ‘grammatical word’ / ‘grammatical term’.

Introduce the main activity of watching and discussing a video clip based on the teaching of subordinate clauses in a Year 5/6 English lesson. Explain the use of resources to support their ideas e.g. an individual rating scale and still images (screenshots) from the video.

Talk about ‘learning objectives’ and whether they find them useful. Give the video teacher’s learning objectives.

What do they think the lesson is going to be about? How does this sound? Hard / easy? Interesting / boring? Use rating scales 1-10 and ask pupils to explain their rating, reflecting on their own experiences.

2. Watching and discussing the video lesson:

Stop after video pupil has answered ‘subordinate clause’ (8.46) discuss:

- I wonder why she chose to teach this lesson, and in this way? *Pause*. Prompt: what do you think to the lesson so far?
- What do you think the children might be thinking? Choose a screenshot (from on the table) and discuss.
- Have you learned about subordinate clauses in class? Do you find this easy / hard? Why? What helps you to learn?

Watch to the end of the sequence then discuss (drawing on their own experiences):

- What do you think the pupils have learned? Do you think they need to spend more time on this? Why?
- Do you think the teacher was good at teaching subordinate clauses? Why do you think this?
- Will this help them to be better at other aspects of their learning (e.g. writing, reading)?
- What else could she do to help the children in their learning of grammatical terms? Resources?
- Do you think they needed the teacher or could have learned this on their own? Why do you think this?

3. Sequencing screenshots of video teacher’s approaches and discussing choices:

Pupils to work together to arrange the A4 screenshots taken from the video lesson (selected from the complete lesson) in order of personal preference of pedagogical approach/activity (e.g. Video teacher demonstrating at the board; pupils engaged in question-and-answer routines with the teacher; pupils’ sharing their sentences on whiteboards at the front of the class; pupils writing on whiteboards...etc.).

Pupils to explain and justify choices, drawing upon their own experiences of teaching and learning grammatical terminology to exemplify.

4. Reviewing this session:

- Have you enjoyed talking about this? Is talking about grammatical terminology like this tricky? Easy? Useful? Interesting? Boring?
- Through working together today, have you had any new thoughts/ideas about teaching grammatical terminology and how you learn best? Anything final you would like to add or ask about this research?

Video lesson: 3.13 Using a complex sentence to start the final paragraph of a story (Year 5 & 6). Taken from: Department for Education and Employment. (DfEE 2000). The National Literacy Strategy: Grammar for Writing. London: DfEE Publications.

Appendix 8: Pupil Interview Schedule 2: Focusing on grammar activities and games

1. Introduction:

Research purpose, process and ethical protocols reiterated. Confirm continued pupil consent. Any questions? Confirm understanding of the term 'grammatical word' / 'grammatical term'.

Introduce the main activity of discussing grammatical terminology and playing grammar games and activities. Explain the use of resources to support their ideas e.g. pupils to use 1-10 to rate activities and games for learning, for fun etc., reflecting on their own experiences.

2. Discussing the pupil questionnaires:

- Discuss Question 15 and rate according to the most/least 'hardest thing'. Why do you think this? What would help you (i.e. to remember, to understand, to spell, to use)?
- Is learning grammatical terminology easy or hard in general?
- How do you feel when learning grammatical terminology? E.g. confident or confused?
- Do you think you need to learn these technical terms? Why / why not?
- Discuss Question 7 and sort grammatical terms according to "Hard" / "OK" / "Easy" to learn. Why do you think this? To remember? To understand? To spell? To use? Is there a difference? Can you say more?

3. Learning through activities and games:

- Play, rate and discuss the learning potential (levels of usefulness, interest, fun, challenge etc) of a range of activities and games:
 - Dominoes: to explain/justify connections you are making between grammatical terms.
 - Mime e.g. secret verbs game
 - Songs e.g. modal verbs song
 - Card games e.g. joining sentences through choosing conjunctions
 - Board game to create a sentence
 - Noun phrase generator activity
- Inventing our own games and activities. Any ideas? What do you think other children would like to play to help them with their learning; that teachers would find useful to help them with their teaching?

3. Reviewing this session:

- Have you enjoyed this session today? Is learning about grammatical terminology like this tricky? Easy? Useful? Interesting? Boring?
- Through working together today, have you had any new thoughts/ideas about teaching grammatical terminology and how you learn best? Anything final you would like to add or ask about this research?

Appendix 9: Pupil Writing Conference and Post-Lesson Reflection Schedule

Introduction:

Research purpose, process and ethical protocols reiterated. Confirm continued pupil consent. Any questions? Confirm understanding of the term 'grammatical word' / 'grammatical term'.

Lesson reflections with a focus on grammatical terminology:

1. What sorts of things are you learning about in literacy/English at the moment? What are you particularly enjoying?
2. What did you most enjoy about the lesson today? Was anything particularly easy / hard to learn / understand?
3. Did anyone learn a new grammar word / grammatical term today? Or strengthen a grammar word they already knew? Was it easy or hard to understand it? Why or why not? Will you use that grammar word again? Will you remember it for another time? What will help you to remember it?
4. Why do you think you are learning about grammatical terms?
5. Do you think knowing that grammar word helps you with your reading and writing?
 - Discuss reading in the context of the class novel in the observed lesson (meaning and impact?)
 - Discuss writing in the context of their English/literacy books i.e. link to writing conference (below).

Writing conference:

Pupils given time to look through their pieces of writing and to choose one piece they would like to share with the group. Time was also given for the pupils to read and / or jot down their ideas using an optional writing evaluation sheet. Pupils volunteered to read their work aloud. A discussion then ensued. The following questions provided a loose template for this discussion.

6. What writing have you chosen to share? Can you tell us a little bit about it?
7. Why did you choose this piece of writing? What do you particularly like about it? Is there anything you found tricky about it?
8. What do you think is your best use of language and why? What effect do you think that word or phrase creates for the reader? *Grammatical terminology (e.g. verb, noun, adjective) modelled through follow-up questions here.* Would you like to make any changes re-reading it now (i.e. to make it even better?) How would you change it and why?
9. When you look back through your literacy/English book (e.g. from the beginning of the year), what do you think about you as a writer?
10. What do you need to do or learn to be an even better writer? What would help you to do that?

Appendix 10: Data analysis example: Using preliminary coding (i.e. initial themes in textual data) to support the emerging structure of the initial template



Appendix 11: Data analysis example: Applying and developing the template

1. Declarative knowledge:

1.1 Perceptions of

- 1.1.1 English
- 1.1.2 Reading and writing
- 1.1.3 Grammatical terminology

1.2 Subject knowledge competence

- 1.2.1 Perceptions of
- 1.2.2 Accuracy of

1.3 The nature of grammar terminology

- 1.3.1 Word forms
- 1.3.2 Concepts
 - 1.3.2.1 Differences in “easy” / “hard” terminology (e.g. adjective v subordinate clause)
 - 1.3.2.2 Lack of conceptual understanding of grammatical terminology as a linguistic category: vocabulary confusion

1.4 Verbal definitions and explanations

- 1.4.1 Nature of
- 1.4.2 Usefulness of

1.5 Differences in “easy” / “hard” subject knowledge

- 1.5.1 Word classes e.g. adjective
- 1.5.2 Sentence structure e.g. subordinate clauses

1.6 Pupil differences

- 1.6.1 Higher versus lower attaining pupils
- 1.6.2 Self-esteem of lower attaining pupils
- 1.6.3 Differences in responses (cognitive and affective)

1.7 Differentiation

- 1.7.1 Challenges of differentiation (teachers)
- 1.7.2 Importance of match of activity to needs (pupils)

1.8 Misunderstandings and misconceptions

1.9 The challenge of recall

2 Procedural knowledge:

2.1 Differences in “easy” / “hard” application

- 2.1.1 Punctuation as “easy” to apply
- 2.1.2 Word classes as “hard” to apply
- 2.1.3 Sentence structure as “hardest” to apply

2.2 Approaches

- 2.2.1 “Teach then apply”
- 2.2.2 Meaning, impact, choice and effect

2.3 Evidence of application

- 2.3.1.1 Grammatical terminology in use
- 2.3.1.2 Grammatical understanding without grammatical terminology
- 2.3.1.3 Meaning, impact and effect
- 2.3.1.4 Ability to articulate thinking: metatalk

2.4 Automaticity

- 2.4.1 Achieved over time (e.g. spiral curriculum)
- 2.4.2 Achieved through exposure (e.g. “hidden”, “absorb the terms”)
- 2.4.3 Achieved through practising (e.g. repetition)

3 Purpose:

- 3.1 Improve writing**
- 3.2 Do well in tests**
- 3.3 Needed for high school**
- 3.4 Needed to get a job**
- 3.5 A wider life skill**
- 3.6 Confidence as a language learner**
- 3.7 Reference to professional development (teachers)**

4 Value:

4.1 Improve writing

4.2 Tensions

- 4.2.1 Keeping the SPaG
- 4.2.2 Status: “Important but not that interesting” (pupils)
- 4.2.3 Bored: “It’s just a word” (pupils)
- 4.2.4 Affective dimension
 - 4.2.4.1 Pride in accomplishment
 - 4.2.4.2 Empowerment
 - 4.2.4.3 Frustration

5. Ways of teaching:

6.1 Teaching styles

6.2 Contextualised in reading

6.3 High-quality children's literature

6.4 Contextualised in writing

6.5 Dislike of writing

6.6 Writing for practising skills

6.7 Ownership of writing

6.8 Active learning

6.8.1 Positive aspects (e.g. engaging)

6.8.2 Negative aspects (e.g. overload)

6.9 Teachers' use of exposition and explanations

6.9.1 Positive aspects (e.g. co-construction)

6.9.2 Negative aspects (e.g. lengthy; difficult)

6.10 Discrete skills teaching

6.10.1 Positive aspects (e.g. focus; warm ups)

6.10.2 Negative aspects (e.g. decontextualized)

6 Ways of learning:

6.1 Preferences

6.1.1 Perceptions of "easy" and "hard" aspects in the process of learning (pupils)

6.1.2 Different ways of teachers learning versus teaching (teachers)

6.2 The challenge of recall

6.3 Use of resources and the learning environment

6.4 Using semantic clues

6.5 Repetition

6.5.1 Positive aspects (e.g. embedding learning)

6.5.2 Negative aspects (e.g. lack of challenge)

6.6 Maintaining attention

6.7 Learning independently of the teacher (pupils)

6.7.1 Self-initiated and self-directed approaches (at times)

6.7.2 Working with others

6.8 Motivation through creative challenges

6.8.1 Playing and inventing e.g. word play and games

6.8.2 Problem-solving and investigations

6.8.3 Physicality (e.g. punctuation approaches)

6.8.4 The use of rewards and quality materials

6.8.5 Pupils as confident, interested learner

Appendix 12: Data analysis example: Key thematic multicase findings

1. Declarative

- 1.1 Definitions
- 1.2 Nature of grammatical terminology
- 1.3 Pupil differences

2. Procedural

- 2.1 Application
- 2.2 Modelling through talk
- 2.3 Punctuation

3. Purpose

- 3.1 Writing proficiency
- 3.2 Life prospects

4. Value

- 4.1 Attitudes*
- 4.2 Conflicts

5. Teaching

- 5.1 Teach-Practise-Apply
- 5.2 Explanations
- 5.3 Contextualised in writing
- 5.4 Resources

6. Learning

- 6.1 Learning over time
- 6.2 Creative challenges
- 6.3 Recall

**‘Attitudes’ was considered to be an integrative theme, permeating many of the other thematic findings and, as such, was also subsumed within them.*

Appendix 13: Data analysis example: Pupil questionnaires (open questions)

Coded according to the multicase thematic findings (see Appendix 12)

Questionnaire questions are presented in italics. Pupils' responses are in inverted commas and emboldened. Pupils' spelling and punctuation errors have been corrected.

Theme/Code	Pupil questionnaire responses
Declarative 1.2 Nature of	Q13. <i>What do you think is easy about learning grammar words?</i> 'Nothing except basics.' 'It is just hard.' 'You do one at a time.'
Procedural 2.1 Application	Q17. <i>When my teacher teaches me a new grammar word, I think to myself...</i> 'How can I use this in my writing?'
Purpose 3.1 Writing proficiency	Q20. <i>I think my teacher wants me to know grammar words because...</i> 'We can make our English writing skills better.'
Purpose 3.2 Life prospects	Q20. <i>I think my teacher wants me to know grammar words because...</i> 'Because she/he thinks I will need it when I'm older but I actually don't for the job I want.'
Value 4.1 Attitudes	Q17 <i>When my teacher teaches me a new grammar word, I think to myself...</i> 'I am really happy.'
Teaching 5.1 Teach-Practise-Apply	Q18 <i>When my teacher teaches a new grammar word, I think it helps me to learn it when...</i> 'We practise on our whiteboards using the new grammar.'
Teaching 5.2 Explanations	Q18 <i>When my teacher teaches a new grammar word, I think it helps me to learn it when...</i> 'She says it over and over again.' [Ticked: My teacher explains it.]
Learning 6.3 Recall	Q17. <i>When my teacher teaches me a new grammar word, I think to myself...</i> 'This is hard to remember.'

Appendix 14: Data analysis example: Pupil questionnaires (closed questions)

Table 4.1: Case 1: Question 11 *Write down what you know about the meaning of these words and try to give an example of each.*

Grammar word	What I think it means – typical responses	Accuracy (whole class)	Examples – typical responses	Accuracy (whole class)
Noun	'Name of a place, a person or a thing'	Combined: 68%	'table'	Combined: 64%
Adjective	'Describes the noun'	Combined: 90%	'shiny'	Combined: 85%
Verb	'A doing or a being word'	Combined: 75%	'running'	Combined: 63%
Subordinate clause	'A sentence that doesn't make sense on its own'*	Combined: 51%	' <u>Although I love him</u> , my dog is annoying'	Combined: 20.5%

Table 4.2: Case 1: Question 23 *I think I learn a new grammar word best when...*

Pedagogical approach	Combined total (no. of pupils)
My teacher explains it	38
I talk with others about it	24
I do a practical activity	21

Table 4.3: Case 2: Question 11 *Write down what you know about the meaning of these words and try to give an example of each.*

Grammar word	What I think it means – typical responses	Accuracy (whole class)	Examples – typical responses	Accuracy (whole class)
Noun	'Place, name, object'	Combined: 74%	'dog'	Combined: 95%
Adjective	'Describing word'	Combined: 78%	'shiny'	Combined: 73%
Verb	'Doing word' ("being word" not taught)	Combined: 79%	'running'	Combined: 73%
Subordinate clause	'A clause that wouldn't make sense without a main clause'	Combined: 15%	' <u>Although I hate broccoli</u> , I ate it.'	Combined: 15%

Table 4.4: Case 2: Question 23 *I think I learn a new grammar word best when...*

Pedagogical approach	Combined total (no. of pupils)
My teacher explains it	41
I talk with others about it	33
I do a practical activity	28

Appendix 15: Data analysis example: Open coding and annotation within transcription

Coded according to the multicase thematic findings (see Appendix 12).

Key: Teacher explanation; Challenge; Repetition (recent and over time); Remembering; Nature of grammatical terminology; Application

Transcription extract from PG1,2:2	
* Do you think they've learnt anything so far from this lesson?	Teacher explanations as effective teaching
M Yes, because she explains the points.	
* Okay.	
F --- they know the answer to every single question.	Repetition and practice viewed negatively. Importance of challenge and new learning
M They already know and I don't like that, because if you're not learning anything new then basically your teacher's just like 'And what is this?' and you all know it.	
F And they're all just saying the same answers.	Importance of challenge and new learning
M Because none of the, when they all answered she said, she's never said like 'This is a --' or 'This is --' because all the children already knew it.	
* Really?	Importance of challenge and new learning
F So she should try something harder.	
* So does that mean she has been a good teacher if she's taught them it and they knew it? They remembered it didn't they?	
F Sort of.	Remembering: supported by learning over time
F Well I think they learnt it, learnt about this like recently, they've learnt about the thing recently but I think like there should be, like in a month's time, they'll do it again, because I don't think like, so after a day or two come and do it again, I think you'll do it all in one go.	MEMO: The importance of repetition is significant here: Distinguishing between superficial rote learning (recent) versus deeper-level learning demonstrated (over time). Repetition over time is viewed positively; recent repetition is not (seen as a lack of challenge/no new learning).
* So it's back to that practice point you were making.	
F Yes, drop-in clauses and all them --	
M It's so easy now.	
M Once you're learnt them you can't really forget them because it's, in Year 4 they said it's a comma sandwich and if you just remember that it's easy.	Nature of GT: semantic mnemonic devices ('comma sandwich' and 'drop in clause') helpful to remembering.
* You like things like that that help you remembering?	
M The drop-in clauses.	
F Yes, sometimes I do it without even knowing I'm doing it.	Application: Aware of own implicit application through explicit knowledge
M Yes.	

Appendix 16: Data analysis example: Summary of multicase findings

Summary of multicase findings shows thematic similarities and differences between pupils and teachers across both cases

(NB Code numbering relates only to the data analysis process, not to the sections within Chapter 5.)

Summary of multicase findings					GT = grammatical terminology
Final template top-level themes / sub themes + codes		Multicase findings reflecting a similarity in pupil and teacher perspectives / practice	Multicase findings reflecting a difference in pupil and teacher perspectives / practice	Multicase findings not reflected in pupil and teacher perspectives but inferred in practice	
1. Declarative	Code 1.1: Definitions	Teachers' and pupils' use of verbal definitions embedded in spoken and written forms.	Verbal definitions potentially masking pupils' lack of deep-level conceptual understanding.	Conceptual links or triggers (incl. visual, sound) may be more useful than verbal ones.	
	Code 1.2: Nature	Teachers and pupils perceived GT to be challenging in nature (though hard to articulate why); some GT seemed to be harder than others.	Teachers' modelling of semantic clues and connections to work out meanings of new words. Pupils find semantic connections useful mnemonically.	Lack of evidence of teachers using other word learning strategies; semantic clues not always linguistically reliable for pupil use.	
	Code 1.3: Pupils differences	Differences in pupils' GT knowledge and understanding, particularly higher attaining writers.	Teacher' concerns about the negative implications on pupils' self-esteem and motivation of lower attaining writers.	Importance of assessment and differentiation; the significance of pupils' metacognition as a 'window' on thinking.	
2. Procedural	Code 2.1: Application	The challenging nature of applying GT to texts (leading to/revealing misconceptions and misunderstandings).	Barriers to pupils' learning e.g. verbal definitions; processing speed; cognitive overload of multiple tasks. Pupils have awareness of implicit application.	Lack of evidence of meaning and effect infers GT is prioritised as a technical (rather than communicative) device.	
	Code 2.2: Modelling in talk	Teachers and pupils positive about pupils' being able to use more grammatical terms in talk.	Lack of evidence of pupils' ability to apply GT at the point of use in spoken discourse.	Pupils' hesitancy suggests a reluctance to engage in spoken discourse with adults using explicit GT.	
	Code 2.3.: Punctuation	Teachers and pupils very positive about pedagogic approaches; tendency to cite punctuation terminology in preference to GT.	Pupils demonstrated automaticity of physical punctuation approaches at the point of application.	Automaticity and enthusiasm for punctuation terminology not paralleled for word classes or sentence construction.	
3. Purpose	Code 3.1: Writing proficiency	Teachers and pupils perceived the value of GT as improve writing.	Writing improvements defined by pupils in terms of assessment/test scores (versus teachers' emphasis on confident language use).	Lack of detail: pupils unable to articulate much beyond 'to improve my writing'.	
	Code 3.2 Life prospects	Teachers and pupils perceived the value of GT as improving life chances.	Pupils lack of perceived relevance to <i>their</i> intended jobs.	Lack of detail: seems to reflect social status of grammar.	

4. Value	Code 4.1: Attitudes	A mixed picture, though teachers and pupils more positive about reading than writing.	Teachers more positive about grammar (not GT) and writing; Pupils more positive about GT ("easy") but not writing ("hate it").	Mixed feelings for individual pupils which seems to reflect complexity of GT.
	Code 4.2: Conflicts	Teachers and pupils ambivalent about GT (though for different reasons).	Pupils' positive dispositions about SPaG and skills ("easy") versus teachers' more tentative ones.	Impact of SPaG test as the driver of Basic skills/Key skills approaches within Teach-Practise-Apply.
5. Teaching	Code 5.1: Teach-Practise-Apply (incl. repetition)	Teachers and pupils positive about focus and repetition within discrete skills sessions: deemed to be effective.	Pupils like the single focus but dislike (recent) repetition if activity is similar in pitch; pupil preference for variety and challenge.	Teachers tend towards traditional, prescriptive approaches during 'Basic/Key Skills' sessions.
	Code 5.2: Explanations	Teachers and pupils positive about the value of teacher exposition and explanations in whole class teaching.	Pupils' preference for co-construction of meaning in teacher explanations.	The limitations of language (verbal explanations vs language patterns).
	Code 5.3: Contextualised in writing	Teachers and pupils value GT taught in the context of quality children's literature: motivation and meaning.	Pupils' preference for focusing on isolated learning tasks when GT is being taught in the context of a text. Pupils negative about writing.	Cognitive complexity of multi-layered tasks can be too difficult; potential cognitive overload. Implications for pupil ownership, choice and control. Practising writing more than actual writing?
	Code 5.4: Resources	Teachers and pupils positive about resources / learning environment to support learning of GT.	Working wall as a consistent resource but not always effective for pupils ("too small" / "changed too quickly").	Triggers to verbal definitions or arbitrary signs (e.g. colour) seem less useful as an aid to recall.
6. Learning	Code 6.1: Learning over time (incl. repetition)	Teachers and pupils positive that procedural automaticity will be achieved over time (e.g. spiral curriculum) through practice and repetition.	Pupils aware of own learning processes (e.g. "hard to easy"); Pupil perception of "easy" related to familiarity ("because we learned it in Y3"). Learning over time is viewed positively.	The validity and value of verbal repetition and practice to maximise access and support application to GT (i.e. some word classes, taught for many years, are still not automatic).
	Code 6.2: Creative challenges	Teachers and pupils valued puzzles and challenges to re-construct or co-construct meaning; the importance of fun.	Creativity and challenge as central to pupils' intrinsic motivation; preference for autonomy, choice and collaboration; fun as the key priority for pupils.	Importance of pupils learning GT per se through applying it in multi-sensory problem-solving ways'; avoid over-teaching. Difficulty of intrinsic motivation.
	Code 6.3: Recall	Teachers and pupils in high level agreement that recall of GT is "the hardest thing" and a significant barrier to pupil learning.	Pupils sensing the familiarity of a word but unable to recall it verbally; higher attaining pupils also finding recall difficult.	Pupils seem to experience cognitive overload and slow processing speed (working memory demands) when recall is unsupported