An investigation into how teaching a latin course using the quadrant model fosters agentic learning in students

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Abstract

The research aim of the project is to use task design to foster a greater sense of agency in Key Stage Three Latin students by introducing more open-ended tasks into the classroom, both for Latin language and Roman civilisation.

The methodology is based on a cyclical action research model comprising of two stages, the evaluation of each cycle informing the next stage. Group interviews or student focus groups were used to explore students' responses to more open-ended tasks, and this data was evaluated using a basic form of content analysis.

The results show the importance of building students' learning dispositions alongside their subject knowledge to help them manage quadrant three activities effectively. They have helped me to refine how the strands of teaching Latin (grammar, translation and the Ancient Roman World) interlink and to be clear on the link between the learning objective, the task and assessment, whatever the task style. Another result of the research is that I have increased trust in my students, having seen how positively the vast majority of them responded to more open tasks.

An investigation into how teaching a Latin course using the quadrant model fosters agentic learning in students.

Rationale for investigating agentic learning as an educational innovation

Due to its lack of obvious immediate utility, as a language which is no longer widely spoken, Latin is judged by some to be a futile subject (Morwood, 2003: 3). This leads to the undeniably politically charged question of the purpose of education. Schools Minister Nick Gibb addresses the Education Reform Summit (Department of Education, 2015) thus:

> We all have a responsibility to educate the next generation of informed citizens, introducing them to the best that has been thought and said, and instilling in them a love of knowledge and culture for their own sake. But education is also about the practical business of ensuring that young people receive the preparation they need to secure a good job and a fulfilling career and have the resilience and moral character to overcome challenges and succeed.

A teacher must therefore not only instil a love of knowledge for its own sake and prepare students for the workplace, they must also ensure that students are able to continue to use these skills in contexts other than school. Teaching in a way that explicitly demands agentic learning helps to prepare students for when they are no longer in a school context, which helps to provide them with the "resilience" of Nick Gibb MP's speech. Students are agents in their own learning, "interpreting goals and demands, appropriating resources, designing products, and negotiating accountability" (Doyle, 2015: xiv) and the term "agentic learning" acknowledges this complexity and the

active role that students play in their learning. It is every teacher's job to instil this capacity for agency into students, but for teachers of Latin, whose importance and utility, and consequently its place on the curriculum, is highly contested (Morwood, 2003: 3), it is of especial importance to be able to articulate clearly the advantages of studying Latin in the 21st century, and to develop a modern curriculum which enables this.

Rationale for investigating agentic learning within my context

The School in which the investigation takes place is a comprehensive mixed school in inner London, with high rates of students with English as a second language and in receipt of the Pupil Premium. It is evolving into an Academy as well as a multi-Academy Trust throughout 2016, and has Teaching School status. It was rated Outstanding by Ofsted in 2013, having been given notice to improve in 2009. Exam results have been steadily improving since 2009, but as a school we are looking at more long-term, sustainable ways of improving the quality of learning as well as exam results.

Agentic learning is important to the School because part of the School's personal development plan is to develop opportunities across the curriculum for deep learning, build opportunities across the curriculum for extended reading and writing, and build skills to increase time spent by students on independent study tasks. By researching this area, I aim to create a curriculum which gives these opportunities, and to work with colleagues on doing the same.

I hope to have the opportunity to disseminate these findings to a wider audience in the Classics teaching community. State schools are increasingly opting to make Latin a part of their curriculum, often training non-specialist teachers from other subjects (University of Cambridge Schools Classics Project, 2015; HC Deb 2014-15), and as there is no official guidance on Key Stage Three Latin, I hope that I will be able to help teachers who are also developing a Key Stage Three curriculum in their schools, through the Journal of Classics Teaching or a Classics INSET.

Latin was introduced to the school in 2013. Due to changes in the School's curriculum, all 'top-set' students in Years 7-9 currently study Latin for 50 minutes per week, which is time taken from their modern foreign language curriculum time. Due to Latin being a voluntary subject in previous years, the classes in Year 8 and 9 (there are two 'top set' classes per year group) each contain a number of students (between 6-12) who began to study Latin before the rest of the class. In Year 7, all students have begun to study Latin at the same time. As a result of Latin's changing place in the curriculum in the past two years, there has not been an opportunity to develop schemes of work which do not require big changes each year. In this academic year, Latin has been granted a permanent place in the curriculum and the school has hired a second Latin teacher.

Having researched agentic learning previously, my approach to teaching Latin language has evolved to foster more agentic learning in students, for example, using flipped learning so that students read about and practice grammatical concepts at home, and I

am pleased with the outcomes of these changes, and would like to develop these further. However, this has not been the case with my approach to teaching the Ancient Roman world aspect of the course: I have tended to teach this in an ad hoc way and as a respite from the grammatical aspects of Latin, often setting it as research for an independent learning task (homework) or as an end of term project. Students often enjoy this learning, but I am aware that I have not employed it for 'deeper' learning of skills related to Humanities. This has become more pronounced to me this year, as I am teaching a Year 7 Humanities class, and am more aware of the skills which students develop in this area. I therefore aim to develop my understanding of how Ancient Roman world can be taught in a meaningful way at this level, to encourage cross-curricular skills such as enquiry, research, and analysing sources, in order to apply this across the Key Stage Three curriculum. By aligning the Key Stage Three Ancient Roman world aspect of the curriculum more closely with the GCSE Latin content (the 'Sources' paper on Roman life uses primary sources (in translation)), this may motivate more students to choose Latin for their GCSE, or even Classics as an A-level option.

The aims of this study are therefore to develop my current practice in encouraging students to be agentic learners in the teaching of Latin language, and to develop meaningful Ancient Roman world modules which complement the teaching of the language, are aligned with the skills required for the new 'Sources' GCSE Latin paper and encourage students to be agentic learners. These will subsequently be used to inform curriculum design for all Key Stage Three Latin schemes of work.

Literature Review

Part One: What is to be learnt?

To consider what effective learning should consist of, first it is necessary to reflect upon the aims of education. The Schools Minister Nick Gibb outlined in his speech "The purpose of education" (Department of Education, 2015) how the purposes of education are economic ("the engine of our economy"), cultural ("the foundation of our culture"), and "preparation for adult life". "Breaking the cycle of social justice" is Gibbs' objective, so that "every child reaches their potential", and he continues by outlining how the government plans to achieve this. However, there is an antinomic counterpart to this: "the function of education is to reproduce the culture that supports it- not only reproduce it, but further its economic, political and cultural ends." (Bruner, 1996: 67). The process of the creation of a comprehensive education system, instigated in the United Kingdom in the 1940s, embodied changed values and objectives in society. This creation has been, and continues to be, a difficult process, because of the vested interests it disturbs (Simon, 2000: 147). Despite the positive connotations in the political rhetoric of social justice and reaching potential, in the 5th most unequal society in the developed world (The Scale of Economic Inequality in the UK), another key aim for education is to challenge the current culture, not reproduce it, taking on the challenge of wealth distribution (Bruner, 1996: 83). Gibbs' aims are laudable but the political importance of reproducing a society which is convinced that theirs is the "right, valid and only way of living" (Bruner, 1996: 67) means that vested interests continue, so that we can add to Gibbs' three purposes of education another: to question and challenge society, not merely reproduce it. As Barnes points out, "We educate children in order to

change their behaviour by changing their view of the world. We want to change the way they perceive the world they live in, not so that they will carry out our purposes, but so that they can formulate their own purposes, and estimate their value" (1975: 80). Effective learning must therefore aspire to achieve these aims.

Like the purpose of education, the issue of defining knowledge is also highly politicised. Knowledge has many forms: it can be empirical, presupposing that the world can be represented correctly, and presupposing the use of categories for representation. Empirical knowledge influences much of Western life and education (Hedegaard, 2007: 251) and is the most high status form of knowledge in the West (Ellis, 2007:167). It can be narrative: a concept developed by Bruner (1986: 16) created by transcending the situated descriptions and relating them to general themes of human life, characterising the communication of daily life (Hedegaard, 2007: 251). Knowledge can also be theoretical-dialectical, in which two forms of knowledge are complementary to each other, so that if a change takes place in one, both are affected. This type of knowledge is found in professional work, and in theories used to understand events and situations (Hedegaard, 2007: 251). Knowledge can therefore be either received: given and non-negotiable, or it can be reflexive: changing, negotiable and non-absolute, something created afresh by each individual's encounters with the world (Eggleston, 1977, 52). This detachment of knowledge into types has led to a highly politicised false dichotomy of "Progressives vs. Traditionalists" or "Knowledge vs. skills" (Bennett, 2014), which Eggleston dates back to a reaction of the 'progressive' viewpoint "where the longstanding view of the curriculum has been steadily 'eroded' by strategies of child-

centred education" (1977: 54), all of which obscures what is recommended by evidence (Bruner, 1996: 60; Vygotsky, 1988, 183; Barnes, 1975: 81), that received and reflexive knowledge are mutually reliant upon each other, with reflexive learning necessary in order for students to learn as well as engage with the received knowledge. Rather than as polar opposites, it could be more useful to picture forms of knowledge as a spectrum from the received to the reflexive, from the highly empirical to the highly reflexive, taking into account the theoretical-dialectical forms of knowledge as received knowledge which is subject to change.

Received and reflexive knowledge must be intertwined in order for the learning which takes place to be remembered. Mirroring the forms of received and reflexive knowledge, Vygotsky characterised these two types of knowledge as everyday (or spontaneous) concepts, which derive from reflections on everyday experience and are characterised by unconscious understanding and spontaneous application (Vygotsky, 1988: 183) , and scientific concepts, which are introduced at school via academic instruction (Vygotsky, 1988: 167). A dialectical third part also features: with cooperation between teacher and student, spontaneous concepts become more abstract, whilst scientific concepts become more concrete (Vygotsky, 1988: 169). Similarly, Barnes divides knowledge into action knowledge, "the knowledge on which our actions in the everyday world are based" (1975: 30) and school knowledge, "knowledge which someone else presents to us" (1975: 80). As with Vygotsky, Barnes posits that the two are intertwined, that unless school knowledge is incorporated into action knowledge, it

will be forgotten (1975: 81), and that to understand school knowledge, students must represent it to themselves and use it to recode former experiences (1975: 30).

Vygotsky and Barnes focused on early years development, and Schwab's focus on education at a later developmental stage is reflected in his focus on scientific concepts, or school knowledge. Schwab describes the two ways of approaching an academic discipline, the syntactic and substantive approaches, which ensure that "*some* knowledge would be imparted, not as truths out of the nowhere but as conclusions from evidence, or decisions from thought about alternatives and their consequences" (1973: 270). The substantive approach focuses on conceptual devices used for defining, bounding and analysing subject matter, so that received knowledge can be questioned. The syntactic approach focuses on the logical structures which the discipline exhibits, so that skills can be applied: those by which one applies the truths learned by a discipline; and those by which secondary enquiry is conducted- the inductive approach to learning, in which the structure of a discipline is learned by studying instances of it (Schwab, 1973: 236-237). Schwab therefore agrees with Vygotsky and Barnes that received knowledge must not be abstract and unrelated to reflexive knowledge, but that at a higher developmental level: "at about the high school level or a little sooner" (Schwab, 1973: 270) students need the tools to advance their reflexive thinking and to process received knowledge meaningfully, which the syntactic approach offers.

Part Two: What teaching approaches foster effective learning?

Bruner (1996: 53-63) posits four models of pedagogy, which provide a more practical model for how the dialectical model of reflexive and received knowledge can be put into practice. He recommends that the four models are "fused into some congruent unity (1996: 64). The models are: the imitative model, in which students learn through modelling; didactic exposure, in which knowledge is received and cumulative; children as thinkers, in which understanding is developed through discussion and collaboration, and is the product of evidence, argument and construction, not authority; and children as knowledgeable, in which students distinguish between personal knowledge and 'culture' (received and reflexive knowledge), and use this distinction to engage in a dialogue with the past, using evidence to check their beliefs. The first two models rely on the assumption that a student's mind is passive, and that teaching is blankly one-way (Bruner, 1996: 56). The third model is dialectical, more concerned with interpretation and understanding, and builds an exchange of understanding with the teacher (Bruner, 1996: 57). The fourth model posits that teaching should "help children grasp the distinction between personal knowledge, on the one side, and "what is taken to be known" by the culture, on the other…they must not only grasp this distinction, but also understand its basis, as it were, in the history of knowledge" (Bruner, 1996: 61). This model reflects best the importance of both received and reflexive knowledge, the dialectic nature between them, and the importance of appropriating received knowledge in order to internalise it, although Bruner emphasises that all four models should co-exist, "recognised as part of a common continent" (1996: 65). The awareness of thought processes and a theory of mind are key to Bruner's fourth pedagogical

model. As with Schwab's syntactical approach and its importance in helping a student to make sense of the structures of a discipline in order for them to make enquiries into the discipline and add new knowledge, making students aware of their thought processes and theory of mind (metacognition) helps students to make sense of their own learning, to reflect upon how they learn, and seek to improve.

Academic success is usually defined by mastery of two aspects of learning: the grasp of an area of knowledge, and the capacity to be in control of one's learning (Edwards, 2015: 29). As well as different types of knowledge, to achieve full mastery students must also use metacognition: the process of understanding one's own understandings in order to be able to regulate one's actions as a learner (Edwards, 2014: 31). To be in control of their learning, learners require a third type of knowledge, to add to the received and the reflexive. Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986: 28) put together a list of the key learning strategies to be used in order for students to self-regulate:

a. Asking questions: defining hypotheses, establishing aims and parameters of a task, relating task to previous work etc.
b. Planning: deciding on tactics and timetables; what physical/ mental skills are necessary?
c. Monitoring: continuous attempt to match efforts; answers and discoveries to initial questions or purposes.
d. Checking: preliminary assessment of performance and results.
e. Revising: re-drafting or re-calculation or setting of revised goals.
f. Self-testing: final assessment both of results and performance on task.

There is debate over whether metacognition is separate from cognition that is about other aspects of the world (Meadows, 2004: 153), and there has been a movement away from intervention targeting general cognitive processes (with its potential for long-

term transfer described by Adey and Shayer as the “holy grail” of cognitive intervention programmes (1994: 16)). Concluding her review of intervention strategies, McGuinness provides a list of features of successful intervention programmes which can be profitably transferred to general pedagogical practice without the need for an intervention programme (1999: 29). Claxton concurs, advocating a move away from teaching ‘thinking skills’ and towards cultivating dispositions (2007: 120), recognising that expanding this is a gradual, long-term, cumulative process which infuses the life of a school (2007: 128). Claxton explains how this approach differs to other metacognitive approaches: it is an infusion rather than an intervention; it describes learning and not thinking, in order to incorporate less rational aspects of learning; skills are replaced with dispositions, to encompass the development of inclinations as well as the sophistication of a skill. According to Claxton, in order to expand students’ learning capacities, an epistemic culture must be fostered in the classroom, where “the various constituent elements of learning capacity are acknowledged, discussed, understood and systematically strengthened” (Claxton, 2007: 121). Claxton’s summary of what an epistemic culture attends to can be summarised thus:

- Language: Change to shift attention towards the process of learning, and how learning dispositions are growing.
- Activities: Deliberately focus on stretching each aspect of learning capacity, ensuring this goal is not eclipsed by the acquisition of knowledge.
- Split-screen thinking: Maintaining the dual-focus on knowledge and an aspect of learning dispositions.
- Wild topics: Genuinely engaging and challenging topics.
- Transparency: Intention to expand students’ learning capacity will be transparent to students.

- Involvement: Students will be involved in thinking about how to make the epistemic culture more effective.
- Transfer thinking: Look for applications and modifications of the learning dispositions.
- Progression: Dispositions get broader, stronger and richer.
- Modelling: of learning dispositions by teacher.

Metacognition is fundamental to the epistemic culture, in the language, activities, involvement and deliberate transfer thinking in the class. Claxton focuses on the learning environment, specifically the concept of the potentiating environment, in which "there are plenty of hard, interesting things to do, and it is accepted as normal that everyone regularly gets confused, frustrated and stuck" (Claxton, 2007: 125). The two strands of subject knowledge and metacognition are co-dependent in the epistemic classroom, as metacognition helps students to manage task demands. Where past research into 'thinking skills' sought to separate them from subject knowledge (McGuinness, 1999: 29), Claxton's infusion approach weaves them together.

Schunk and Zimmerman emphasise the interdependence of metacognition and collaboration (2011: 15). In the same way as active participation and self-representation are required in order to incorporate received and reflexive knowledge into our own world (Barnes, 1975: 81), collaboration and discussion on metacognition gives students the opportunity to explicate and revise their beliefs (Bruner, 1996: 58), helping them to achieve mastery. Collaboration is therefore not only essential to metacognition, but to all aspects of learning. This section has explored what is to be learnt in a discipline more generally. The next section will relate this more specifically to the discipline of Latin, in the context of Key Stage Three students.

Part Three: What are the aims of a Key Stage Three Latin course?

To return to what Vygotsky terms 'scientific' concepts (1988: 183) and Barnes terms 'school knowledge' (1975: 80), and more specifically, to the enquiry on what the aims of a Key Stage Three Latin course should be, this section will outline what are seen as the key concepts in Latin, according to the literature. Because it is not a part of the National Curriculum, the teacher of Latin is not burdened by a set of objectives received from above. But, with stiff competition for curriculum time, a lack of time is a burden for many Latin teachers. Vygotsky describes the German and Russian classical gymnasia as preoccupied with formal disciplines, predominantly Latin and Greek, subjects which were seen as providing something more than the knowledge and skills which constitute the subject, and were facilitators of a child's general development, going into demise with the more practical demands of the new bourgeois pedagogy (Vygotsky, 1988: 198-199). This association with the old systems, representative of high culture and as a mark of class distinction continue to shape Latin's reputation (Bulwer, 2006: 8). The prospect of the abolition of grammar schools, and the removal of Latin as a general entry requirement for Oxford and Cambridge in the 1960s, prompted widespread questioning of the future place of Classics in the school curriculum (Forrest, 1996: 23). In this political climate, the Joint Association of Classical Teachers (JACT) was formed, and at their first conference in 1964, on the need for a new middle school Latin course, the following points, quoted by Forrest (1996: 32-33) from JACT's archives, were recorded:

1. Developing Latin reading should be central to the course, as opposed to traditional English to Latin composition, which was seen as being of marginal value.
2. Students should read more widely and in greater depth, with the emphasis on comprehension rather than formal translation.
3. Grammar would be taught inductively rather than formally.

4. Studies of life in classical Rome, its history and social structure and values, should develop out of the reading.

These aims correspond with the ideological move away from received knowledge and the highly formal discipline as described by Vygotsky (1988: 198-199), and towards a foregrounding of reflexive knowledge. The emphasis on reading Latin for comprehension and life in classical Rome, and the inductive nature of grammar teaching presupposed a more dialectical model of pedagogy, where students would have the opportunity to incorporate the knowledge into their own world (Barnes, 1975: 81). In reference to Latin, comprehension most commonly refers to questions or an activity designed to show understanding of a Latin text, without the need for a formal translation. A series of conferences and meetings by the research arm of JACT resulted in the formation of the Cambridge Schools Classics Project (CSCP) in 1966 (Forrest, 1996: 46). Forrest quotes from the CSCP's archive that the Project's aims, in line with the points made at the 1960 conference, were:

1. To investigate ways of improving the teaching of Latin at the early stage, i.e. up to 'O' level, with special reference to the task of improving reading fluency.
2. To investigate courses of a non-linguistic kind for pupils who lack the ability or opportunity to take a linguistic course. We shall also devise non linguistical foundation courses to precede, in some cases, the language based course. (1996: 50).

Despite having undergone the cosmetic changes that would be expected since the 1960s (full-colour textbooks, e-learning resources, an accompanying website with all texts available online), the current volume of the Cambridge Latin Course is ideologically true to these original aims. The reading for sense versus explicit analysis of language issue continues to be controversial, over emphasis of the former leading to inaccuracy, over emphasis of the latter leading to incomprehension and boredom (Story, 2003: 90).

Sharwood-Smith clarifies that learning Latin should be "in order to read Latin authors with understanding, not in order to study and practice the forms of language" (1975: 2). Morwood adds to this the capacity of Latin for promoting an awareness of a shared global cultural heritage (2003: 33), which Bulwer points out gives students whose automatic cultural inheritance is not Western a stake in Western culture (2006: 14). The stated aims of the CSCP show how Latin has moved from the highly formative subject of Vygotsky's Russian and German gymansia (1988: 198-199) to incorporate more reflexive forms of knowledge, through the centrality of reading Latin, and the inclusion of non linguistical material on ancient Roman culture. The Cambridge Latin Course is designed to teach Latin at Key Stage Three. Although it does not follow the GCSE syllabus, some teachers use parts of it to teach Key Stage Four.

Introducing source-based work into the Key Stage Three Latin course, supported by the non-linguistical material in the Cambridge Latin Course will give students more opportunities to connect with the ancient Roman world, giving opportunities for more reflexive learning, and would bring closer alignment to the GCSE Latin course. The new GCSE Latin course consists of three exams: one is on Latin Language, one Latin literature, and one on Latin sources in translation (there is the option to do two literature papers, one on prose and one on poetry, rather than the sources paper. Our school currently teaches the sources paper). The sources paper is interpreted by some as the option for those "who may not be as able and have only two or three years to study Latin" (Story, 2003: 91), an echo of the CSCP in 1964 (Forrester, 1996: 50). My reason for choosing this module was more pragmatic: many students find intrinsic enjoyment in studying the

classical world of Rome, and the promise of this at GCSE level may motivate them to choose Latin as an option. The paper was first set in the mid-2000s, and no alternative accounts of why the paper was introduced seem to be available. Alignment towards an exam is often viewed with suspicion, encouraging "narrowing of the curriculum…shaving off of higher order and critical thinking and a lowering of cognitive demand" (Luke, 2006: 123), but alignment towards the GCSE course will expand the curriculum to give non-linguistical material more space, and by reviewing the literature on teaching sources, taken from literature on the History curriculum, will be designed to promote skills associated with source work, such as critical thinking, not exam skills.

Teaching life in classical Rome, its history and social structure and values, through sources enables students to learn about the syntactic aspect of history: "without them (sources), the way that history is created remains a mystery and the status and worth of the knowledge…cannot be evaluated" (Kitson et al, 2011: 55). In the context of a specific enquiry, rooted in some basic factual information on which there is common agreement, sources can be mined for evidence to answer a particular question, and proper use of disciplinary history is made (Kitson et al, 2011: 60). Using these skills in the classroom helps students to judge when something is worth serious consideration, and "to do other than take things at face value" (Kitson et al, 2011: 60). Kitson et al lament the often formulaic source questions in Key Stage Four History exams (2011: 61), where superficial judgements of reliability and utility focus on what sources cannot tell us, rather than opportunities to use evidence properly in order to extract what they can,

resulting in students becoming cynical (Byrom, 1998: 32). Kitson et al (2011: 62-64) provide the following criteria for using sources successfully:

1. Sources are used to answer meaningful questions about the past: an overall enquiry question.
2. Sources are placed (carefully) into context: too much contextual information limits the possibility of sources being 'squeezed' for evidence as students feel they already know what there is to know, and too little contextual information provides an insufficient basis for making judgements about sources' value.
3. Evidence is used to construct accounts of the past. Students construct the past, and regard sources as a solution rather than a problem (McAleavy, 1998: 12).
4. Evidence is used to challenge, engage and delight: a rich variety of sources is used fully.

Teaching sources, along with reading Latin for understanding (as opposed to for analysing the language) is one of the key ways in which the study of Latin allows for reflexive knowledge, and where dialectical learning takes place, as in Bruner's third pedagogical model, concerned with interpretation and understanding, and building an exchange of understanding with the teacher (Bruner, 1996: 57).

Having surveyed the changes in Latin teaching, reflecting a move away from received knowledge and towards a more dialectical relationship with received knowledge, and referring back to what effective learning consists of, I conclude that the aims of a Key Stage Three Latin course ought to include the following:

1. To create a learning culture where received knowledge (Latin grammar and vocabulary, factual knowledge on ancient Rome) is discovered inductively by students, where there are opportunities for students to do so.

2. To use a syntactic approach to allow students to organise their knowledge and understand how it developed, using these structures to conduct secondary enquiry where possible.
3. To use Latin comprehension and sources to give students the opportunity to have a dialectical relationship with the discipline, learning through enquiry.
4. To use metacognition to help students to self-regulate their learning.

This section has explored what is to be learnt in Latin. The next section will focus on how these theories of what is to be learnt in the classroom have been translated into a more practical approach, first reflecting on the importance of talk in learning.

Part Four: What is the role of talk and collaboration in effective learning?

Talk underlies many of the ideas discussed so far: reflexive knowledge; collaboration; Bruner's model of students as knowledgeable and as thinkers. It is therefore important to consider the role of talk in effective learning.

The teacher is the principal mediator between what is to be learnt and what students learn: not in the traditional role of instructor, but as the creator of a community of enquiry (Mercer, 2000: 161). For Mercer, effective teachers display the following three characteristics:

1. They used question and answer sequences not just to test knowledge, but also to guide the development of understanding.
2. They taught not just 'subject knowledge' but also procedures for solving problems and making sense of experience.
3. They treated learning as a social, communicative process.

(Mercer, 2000: 160).

The second characteristic reflects the importance of metacognition as well as 'subject knowledge', but the overall effect is to show that good teaching is as much to do with, if not more to do with, the processes of learning as the outcomes (Thompson, 2015: 4). As with the division of knowledge into the received and reflective in theory, and the dismissal of their dialectical relationship in favour of a false dichotomy this can result in (Eggleston, 1977: 54), processes and outcomes are mutually reliant and both essential for good teaching, and like received and reflective knowledge, can be indistinguishable: the process itself can be the outcome. If education is the process of enabling new minds to bring old knowledge back to a new life and meaning (Egan, 2005: 97), and this process is achieved by making this knowledge part of a student's 'action knowledge', which involves them using the knowledge and incorporating it into their own world (Barnes, 1975: 81), then talk is the tool by which these processes happen: the most pervasive and powerful tool in pedagogy, mediating cognitive and cultural space, and manifesting and structuring thinking (Alexander, 2008: 92).

If talk is the most pervasive and powerful tool in pedagogy (Alexander, 2008: 92), this is not to characterise all talk in this way. Bakhtin describes language as internally stratified and differentiated, reflecting various socio-ideological positions (1981: 262-3). The contrasting term Bakhtin gives for this is monologism (quoted in Skidmore, 2010: 284), which Skidmore describes as the tendency in discourse to "portray the speaker's position as the 'last word' to be said on the matter, the attempt in practice to effect a closure upon dialogue." (2010: 284). Bakhtin also distinguishes between authoritative discourse and internally persuasive discourse (1981: 342), authoritative discourse being

presented as not open to debate (received or school knowledge), and internally persuasive discourse as open and acknowledging the primacy of discourse. Skidmore (2010: 285) refers to the studies of classroom discourse by Nystrand et al and Lyle, which found that the prevalent discursive norm was monological, but that a different pattern of interaction, characterised by the use of authentic questions, uptake, cumulation and evaluation, offered an alternative to traditional power relationships which tend towards transmission.

Alexander's principles of dialogic (rather than transmissive) teaching, which he describes as being Vygotskian, Brunerian and Bakhtinian, and based upon a catalogue of research on dialogic learning and sociocultural theory (Alexander, 2008: 108), and as providing the best chance for children to develop diverse learning talk repertoire, can be summarised thus:

1. Collective: teachers and children address learning tasks together, whether as a group or as a class.
2. Reciprocal: teachers and children listen to each other, share ideas and consider alternative viewpoints;
3. Supportive: children articulate their ideas freely, without fear or embarrassment over 'wrong' answers; and they help each other to reach common understandings.
4. Cumulative: teachers and children build upon their own and others' ideas and chain them into coherent lines of thinking and enquiry.
5. Purposeful: teachers plan and steer classroom talk with specific educational goals in view.

(Alexander, 2008: 112-113)

In conjunction with the three pedagogical repertoires offered (organising interaction; teaching talk; learning talk) (Alexander, 2008: 109-112) Alexander provides a practical approach for creating opportunities for such mediation.

Mercer brings the focus to interaction between learners, moving further away from the concept of transmission of knowledge by the teacher, and towards cognitive restructuring through interaction (Mercer, 1995: 90). Mercer identified three ways of thinking and talking: disputational talk, characterised by disagreement and decision making; cumulative talk, where speakers build positively but uncritically, using repetition, confirmation and elaboration; and exploratory talk, in which knowledge is made publicly accountable and reasoning is visible (Mercer, 1995: 104). Mercer explains that to achieve exploratory talk, the teacher first did awareness raising activities with students, and discussed aspects of discussion and rules, before giving the collaborative activity (1995: 109). Surveys of talk-based research showed that group based tasks were not intrinsically of value (Mercer, 1995: 91), and needed to meet certain conditions in order to be successful. These criteria are: that students must have to talk to do the task; the activity must encourage co-operation, not competition; participants must have a shared understanding of the point of the activity; rules should encourage the free exchange of ideas; an established and friendly relationship will help (Mercer, 1995: 98). As well as engineering opportunities for talk, the talk itself must be discussed, so that the ground rules for discussion, rarely taught in school (Mercer, 2000: 154) are explicitly understood.

Advocates of dialogic teaching admit that there are many problems putting it into practice. Wells (1999: 112) argues that it does not happen because of the pervasive belief both by teachers and students that knowledge is found principally in books and in the mind, and because teachers distrust the value of encouraging students to express their own beliefs in open dialogue with unknown outcomes. For Edwards and Mercer, the problems come from the conflicting demands of the educational system and the ideals of dialogic teaching, and the fact that the rules necessary for classroom talk are not made explicit (1987: 169). Alexander noted that although classroom talk can look different, where more thinking time is given, the message being given, that the teacher expects a correct answer, is still being given through subtle signals, as well as a lack of exploitation of students' answers in order to further understanding, but glossing over incorrect answers in the search for the 'correct' answer (Alexander, 2008: 117). These habits have been labelled recitation and pseudo-enquiry, and Alexander sees them as a feature of English classrooms, where participation is key, and result in brief answers which preclude time for exploration (2008: 106). With fifty minutes per week to teach Key Stage Three Latin, setting up more exploratory, discussion-based tasks takes time away from the coverage of curriculum topics.

A last point is from a comment by Skidmore, on how 'internally persuasive discourse' is suitable for talk about literary texts because it is a "non-algorithmic form of knowledge" (2000: 283). The corollary to this is that algorithmic forms of knowledge (which language to some extent is, where an input produces a defined output, especially so in Latin, where opportunities for personal output through the language is, as is often the case in

modern foreign language teaching, not the aim) are more suited to recitative pedagogical approaches. This brings us back to the centrality of comprehension of texts in Latin for meaning, and interpretation of sources, the key areas where non-algorithmic forms of knowledge in the discipline can be used for dialogic discussion.

Part Five: How can theories of task design assist with putting the theories of effective teaching and learning into practice?

Bruner wrote that "a theory of development must be linked to both a theory of knowledge and to a theory of instruction, or be doomed to triviality" (1966: 21). Having reviewed various theories of knowledge and, reviewed to a lesser extent but which are implicit in what has preceded and what follows, social-constructivist theories of development, the question of how the aims of a Key Stage three Latin course can be achieved through task design is here reviewed. For Thompson, the focus in UK educational policy on the imposition of curriculum has led to restrictive teaching which focuses on external examinations and the product taught through transmission and assessed through recall, rather than process and student development, ignoring active participation and knowledge transformation (2015: 3). Although Latin is not a National Curriculum subject and is therefore not subject to such impositions, this is the wider culture of schooling for teachers and students. A focus on tasks will help to bring back the focus to process and student development, with the emphasis on enhancing students' learning.

First is to consider what is meant by a task. Task design relates to the ways teachers translate the curriculum into activities they ask students to do in order to facilitate understanding of curriculum content (Thompson, 2015: 3). Doyle and Carter state that the task is defined by: the assessment/ final product to be handed in; the resources available to complete the task; the operations used to generate the product (Doyle and Carter, 1978: 131). Doyle also states that a task has two consequences: to acquire information, and to practice operations (1983: 161). According to Thompson (2015: 6), a task must address the development of students' grasp and use of higher order theoretical concepts, as well as a focus on the design of activities and classroom organisation in which the task demands are played out in order to create an environment conducive to dialogic and social learning, in which students are active agents in their own learning through social collaboration with their teacher and peers. The focus on operations, higher order concepts, and dialogic and social learning suggest that an effective task includes direct instruction of these cognitive processes, as well as of the task itself. Direct instruction of these cognitive processes for accomplishing a task will produce immediate effects, but Doyle warns that even using direct instruction repeatedly will not necessarily engender the higher level knowledge structures required for the flexible use of these operations (1983: 175).

Thompson gives the following questions which teachers should attend to in setting activities for classroom tasks, in order to cover the above definitions:

- How are students' everyday understandings used in the learning?
- What part does talk and language play and what is the role of the teacher in relation to this classroom talk?
- What areas of substantive and syntactic knowledge are learners engaged with?
- What kinds of support are built into different activities in the task sequence?
- What are the different support demands on the teacher, peers, or other adults?

- What are the different assessment demands?
- Do the activities allow opportunities for formative assessment so that support can be adjusted?
- Does the assessment of outcome allow assessment of the teaching objective?

(Thompson, 2015: 6)

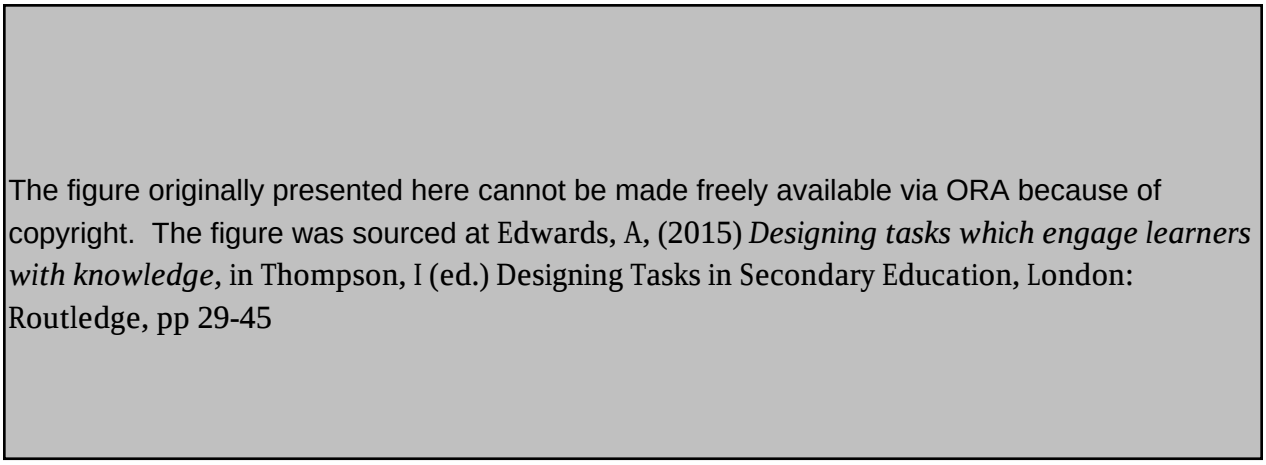
Shulman summarises the knowledge that a teacher needs as content, pedagogical and curricular, and that these correspond to three major sources of knowledge about teaching: principles; maxims and norms (1986: 11). For Shulman, the representation of knowledge can be difficult to remember, as it tends to take the form of long lists. Economical in form, they simplify a great deal of complexity, both a weakness and a strength, making it easier to digest for the teacher, but precisely because they have been "decontextualised, stripped down to their essentials, devoid of detail, emotion or ambience" (Shulman, 1986: 11). Shulman in this article argues primarily for the importance of the case method, but he also argues the importance of coherent theoretical frameworks more generally to help teachers to develop their practice, in order to provide coherence and a rationale to the lists which can characterise transmission of teacher knowledge (Shulman, 1986: 11).

The Quadrant Model was developed by Anne Edwards:

> It is a heuristic that points to the need for us to see learning as the learners' increasing control over the subject matter while also developing as learners; and to help teachers identify: the different kinds of task demand required in each quadrant, how their roles as teachers change in each quadrant and how formative assessment can guide students' engagement.

(Edwards, 2015: 21)

The model gives a potential way to sequence tasks in order to promote learning.



Edwards' rationale for the model was as a starting point for discussing how learners are supported in

> …their increasingly agentic engagement with the substantive and syntactic knowledge that is carried in the curriculum, including engagement with some tasks that are high in ambiguity and risk and lead to understanding.
>
> (Edwards, 2015: 20)

The first quadrant involves revisiting students' existing knowledge in order to introduce new substantive concepts in a way which fits in to their syntactic knowledge on the subject. Here the teacher uses modelling, one of Bruner's pedagogical models (1996: 56), to induct the learners into how the gap in their knowledge can be filled. In the second quadrant, activities are highly structured, and the focus is not only on how students undertake the task, but also on how the task makes demands on them as thinkers (Edwards, 2015: 22), exemplifying Claxton's split-screen thinking (Claxton, 2007: 121). Students need to think metacognitively, using the self-regulating strategies described by Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986: 28). The teacher's role here is to assist students by giving formative feedback on their learning and the organisation of their

learning (Edwards, 2015: 22). The activities in this quadrant may involve collaboration and dialogic learning. The 'courteous conversation' (Bruner, 1996, 112) which characterises quadrant one and the focus on the metacognitive strategies in quadrant two allow students to understand the meaning and purpose of the tasks, where attention in the classroom is traditionally dominated by concerns for maintaining order and finishing tasks (Doyle and Carter, 1983: 129).Edwards describes the third quadrant as "perhaps the most challenging" and "transformative" for teachers (2015: 23). Here students use their newly acquired knowledge in open ended problem-solving activities, helping them to appropriate the knowledge in order to internalise it. Here teacher effort goes into planning the activity and the resources students will need to support them when "confronting the twin terrors of ambiguity and risk" (Edwards, 2015: 23). In this quadrant, there is great capacity for students to use metacognitive strategies and dialogic learning, as the emphasis is on student agency and control of themselves as learners. The fourth quadrant focuses on summative assessment of the learning, as well as the jumping off point for a new cycle (Edwards, 2015: 24).

As Edwards points out, there are challenging aspects to teaching this way, most obviously in quadrant three, where teachers take on the unfamiliar role of knowledgeable resource rather than curriculum deliverer (Edwards, 2015: 23). In a study of tasks characterised by greater ambiguity and risk, Doyle and Carter found that in a bid to maintain the social order of the classroom and sustain work involvement, teachers would drift towards greater specificity and soften the accountability of tasks by giving deadline extensions and the generous awarding of credit (Doyle and Carter, 1984: 145).

The rationale behind the focus on dialogic learning and metacognitive strategies must also be discussed with students, so that the ground rules for discussion are explicitly understood, and so that students have success criteria for metacognitive strategies, in order to self-assess their own achievements (Edwards, 2015: 24). Lastly, the activities, especially in quadrant three, must be linked explicitly to the assessment in quadrant four, or students may not engage in activities. These challenges must be attended to and planned for, in order to give the best chance for a potentiating environment for student agency to thrive.

Research Questions, Hypotheses and Evaluation Criteria

Arising from the Literature Review, the research will be broken down into five research questions. Each research question is stated then followed below by a hypothesis of the findings and the criteria which will be used to evaluate the findings.

Checklists were used to organise the findings into pertinent categories, which were decided using the findings from the Literature Review on what agentic learning looks like, and were used to support the planning of the research

The categories used to categorise the data were:

- Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at substantiated conclusions
- Role of the teacher and teacher questioning
- Assessment of understanding
- Students use own knowledge- dialectical relationship
- Use of learning strategies

The sources used for evaluating for these categories were Bruner's pedagogical models (1996: 53-63); Claxton's epistemic culture (2007: 121); Nisbet and Shucksmith's learning strategies (1986: 28); Thompson's teacher checklist for task design (2015: 6) Alexander's dialogic principles (2008 109-112); JACT's objectives for a successful Latin course (Forrest, 1996: 32-33); and Kitson et al's criteria for working successfully with sources (2011: 62-64).

1. *What are the effects of different pedagogical approaches to grammatical learning (encouraging a received or reflexive approach to the learning)?*

   I hypothesise for question one that students will enjoy a more student-centered approach to grammatical learning, and that the majority of students will react positively to the trust placed in them that this implies, and that a minority of students will interpret the increased freedom to discuss the learning as an opportunity to avoid the learning. Some students might find the collaboration part challenging, as they will be used to understanding things quickly and wanting to move on to the next task: representing the learning to their peers, helping them to recode their knowledge and assisting their peers might seem counterproductive and unfair to these students, and being explicit about the benefits for both students in this situation will be key for success and creating a positive learning atmosphere. To collect and evaluate the findings, a checklist of features indicative of agentic learning in the classroom was used, drawn from findings in the literature review, specifically Bruner's pedagogical models (1996: 53-63); Claxton's epistemic culture (2007: 121), and Thompson's teacher checklist for task design (2015: 6). These features are:

Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at substantiated conclusions; the role of the teacher and teacher questioning; assessment of understanding; and a miscellaneous category to allow for findings which did not fit into these preconceived categories.

2. *What are the effects of shifting the focus when translating Latin stories from language learning (a received form of knowledge) to comprehension of texts (a reflexive form of knowledge), making Latin translation tasks more akin to quadrant three than quadrant two activities?*

For question two, I hypothesise that students will find comprehension activities more challenging, as they still have to translate the Latin text, as well as show understanding of it through another activity. Again, there will be those that thrive and those that really struggle and/ or try to avoid the work, and especially for those who find it challenging to translate from Latin, it could potentially add another layer of difficulty. However, I think that in the long-term students generally will feel more motivated to translate if they feel more invested in the stories, especially if they enjoy the ancient Roman world activities, which will give more context to the stories. I anticipate that it will take time, perhaps 3-4 times translating in this way, for students to adjust to these changes. I think that the majority of students will react positively to the trust placed in them when doing quadrant three tasks (which the comprehension activities will be) and will enjoy these activities, with varying degrees of support needed from the teacher. The challenge with comprehension activities will be to support students to break down the task to make it manageable without

reverting to a more teacher-centered approach, and to incorporate understanding of how the activity will be assessed and individual accountability. When evaluating the findings, the same checklist will be used as in question one, with the added categories: 'students negotiate open-ended task' (Edwards, 2015: 23); and 'use of learning strategies' (Nisbet and Shucksmith, 1986: 28).

3. *What opportunities are there for fostering agentic learning when teaching about the ancient Roman world using sources?*

I hypothesise for question three that students will enjoy learning about the ancient Roman world, but that it will be challenging to present this as a meaningful learning activity, because of its previous status as an end of term activity after the main assessment, and that the presentation and delivery of this will be key for students' attitudes. The challenge discussed in the hypotheses for question two regarding assessment and accountability will apply equally to quadrant three activities on the ancient Roman world, and success criteria will need to be shared with students. When evaluating the findings, the same checklist will be used as in question two, as this will also be a quadrant three activity.

4. *In what ways does metacognition help support students succeed when performing quadrant three tasks?*
5. *How does the quality of classroom talk affect student agency?*

I hypothesise for questions four and five that implementing metacognition and high-quality talk will be challenging judging from the literature, because of the time for exploration needed to employ them meaningfully, which will be challenging in a short space of time with competing claims of curriculum coverage and task completion. However, I am confident that there will be positives taken from experimenting with both these practices that I can continue to develop in my practice in order to enhance student agency. When evaluating the findings for question four on metacognition, students' planning and monitoring of their work on quadrant three activities will be analysed, using Nisbet and Shucksmith's (1986: 28) list of key strategies (on page 12) for guidance. When evaluating the findings for question five on classroom talk, Alexander's principles of dialogic teaching (2008: 108) were used as criteria to analyse the findings. These features will be embedded into the findings for each lesson observation.

Study Design

The study involved Key Stage Three Latin students. There are six classes of Key Stage Three Latin in the school, three of which I teach, and three which my colleague teaches. Each class has between 26-29 students. In total, 65 students from Years 7-9 were involved in the study. Key Stage Three students were chosen because I wanted to improve the Key Stage Three Latin course, giving more opportunities for students to develop as agentic learners through quadrant three style activities, with the long-term aim of improving uptake for Latin at Key Stage Four. A more comprehensive rationale for choosing Key Stage Three students and a description of the school context are given on pages 4-5. Year 7 students were used for the first cycle on grammatical learning and

comprehension tasks, and Year 8 students were used for the learning on the Ancient Roman World. A weakness in this design is that work done across the two cycles was not cumulative because different classes were used, and differences in outcomes could also be attributable to age differences as well as different sample groups in general. The rationale for switching to a Year 9 class in the second cycle was that their GCSE prep class had more classes on the timetable, giving time for students to feedback, which had proved impractical in the first cycle due to time constraints.

The following page shows an overview of the study design in table form.

Cycle and lessons per cycle	**Class activities (with relevant research question in brackets)**	**Number of students per group**	**Data Collection**	**Data Analysis**	**Interview details (number of interviews and interviewees)**
Cycle One (Four weeks between February-March 2016)	(3) Year 8 Ancient Rome script writing project. (1) Years 7 grammatical learning observations. (2) Year 7 comprehension tasks.	Year 7: 29 students. Year 8: 28 students.	Observational checklists. Interviews with Year 8 students.	Content analysis using predetermined categories.	Three interviews and six interviewees (Year 8).
(Six weeks between April-May 2016)	(1) Years 7 grammatical learning observations (continued). (2) Year 7 comprehension tasks (continued).	Year 7: 29 students. Year 8: 28 students.	Observational checklists.	Content analysis using predetermined categories.	N/A.
Cycle Two (Seven weeks between June-July 2016)	(2-3-4-5) New GCSE class (Year 9 students preparing for their Latin GCSE next year), comprehension and Roman Deities project.	GCSE prep class: 8 students.	Observational checklists. Focus group interviews with Year 9 students.	Content analysis using predetermined categories.	Three focus group sessions and eight interviewees.

Research Methodology

The style of research used is Action Research, characterised by a desire to improve practice, based on a rigorous evidence trail of data and research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 563). It is designed to overcome the gap between research and practice (Somekh, 1995: 340), focusing on practical issues identified by the participants which are problematic but capable of being changed (McNiff, 2002: 6). Kemmis and McTaggart (1992: 22-5) summarise the key principles of action research: there are seventeen principles in total, four of which are particularly relevant to the discussion of the methodology of this project: keeping a personal journal; small cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting; open-mindedness regarding data collection; and collaboration;.

The research diary is one of the most important and common research methods in action research (Altrichter, Posch and Somekh, 1993: 10) because of the following characteristics:

1. It builds upon the everyday skill of many teachers, and is easier to organise than other research methods, such as interviewing.
2. It can contain data collected by other research methods, such as notes from unstructured classroom observations.
3. Ideas can be recorded frequently and the diary provides continuity, of the research itself, as well as the researcher's personal development through research.
4. They draw upon a tradition of increasing self-understanding.
5. Observational diaries hold a central position in many disciplines.

(Altrichter, Posch and Somekh, 1993: 10)

Two research cycles were done over three half-terms. The cycles evolved according to the findings of the previous cycle. Schemes of work were adapted from the previous year at the start of each cycle, taking into account the findings of the previous cycle.

The starting point for investigating the findings of the literature review was in the planning of the first cycle, adapting the schemes of work from last year to create more opportunities for quadrant three style activities, and making space on the curriculum for learning about the Ancient Roman world, and planning how students would be inducted into more open activities, such as time to discuss cultivating dispositions and communicating clear success criteria.

When the first cycle had been planned, after each Latin lesson a diary entry was made, as soon as possible after the lesson, at worst, at the end of the school day. Distinction was made between descriptive and interpretative sequences, so that accounts were described chronologically, and relevant data was transferred to the pre-determined categories in the checklists (see Appendix One for an example checklist). Where interviews were done, this was straight after the lesson. After each interview, I listened to the recording, making notes on what students said, using the same observational checklist which was used when making my own notes on the lesson. This allowed me to compare my own conclusions and observations with the students'. Group interviews were also used for data collection. Data from the cycle was then analysed, and used to inform the planning of the second cycle.

In the second research cycle the focus on quadrant-three style activities continued. For the data collection, the opportunity arose to try something similar to the group interview, but without the limitations experienced (detailed in the 'Nature of Research Instruments' section on pages 39-40). The school's academic year starts in June after the summer half-term, and so my Year 7 and 8 classes became my Year 8 and 9 classes (I kept the same classes), and my Year 9 class became my GCSE class (with a different cohort of students). These students were still in Key Stage Three, but had started the GCSE course. As the GCSE group is small (eight students), and as there was increased lesson time (from 50 to 150 minutes per week), it was possible to use class time to use the student cohort as a focus group. After each focus group session, I followed the same process as with the interviews, listened to the recording, making notes on what students said using the observational checklist.

Nature of Research Instruments and Limitations

Research instruments are the tools used to collect data and in this research a balance of practitioner and student data was used, taking the form of observational checklists, interviews, student feedback and a focus group. Practitioner research often aims at changing classroom practice, of both the teacher (practitioner) and students, and observational checklists help the practitioner to check this in a systematic way (Edwards and Talbot, 1999: 91). Observational Checklists record aspects of a situation which might appear to relate to the research question, using lists of behaviours which might be expected to be observed. Checklists are useful when reviewing practice against a set of agreed criteria, are quick, and are useful for checking outcomes. However, this data is

relatively simplistic, as the event is not viewed in context and the antecedents and effects are not seen. In addition, useful information could also be missed out through only focusing on the preselected events (Edwards and Talbot, 1999: 92). Observation situations also carry the risk of bias. Some examples of this are the selective attention of the observer, related to where and when the observer is looking, the observer's own interests and experiences, and what the observer thinks they see; selective memory, as notes are written up after the event, in some cases not until the end of the school day; expectancy effects, where the observer knows the hypotheses to be tested and has expectations of certain behaviours; and reactivity of the students, who might change their behaviour if they know that they are being observed (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 563). To lessen the effects of reactivity, students were informed of the study and data collection and its relation to teaching and learning, but not the specific subject of the study. The various observational checklists used in this research were created using the findings from the Literature Review (see page 31 for a full list of references), with a free column to record any observations which do not fit into the preselected categories.

The interview is a flexible tool, using multi-sensory channels and with a balance of control and space for spontaneity, and the interviewer can press for complete answers on complex issues (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 665). Patton (1980: 206) outlines four types of interviews, and the interview type used for this research was the guided approach, where topics and issues to be covered are specified in advance, in outline form, and the interviewer decides the sequence and working of questions in the

course of the interview. The strengths of this approach are that the outline increases the comprehensiveness of the data and makes data systematic for each respondent. Logical gaps can be anticipated and closed. However, important topics may be inadvertently omitted. When interviewing groups, discussions are more likely to develop, yielding a wider range of responses, and it is time-saving, as they are often quicker than individual interviews (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 702). Having more than one interviewee present can provide two versions of events, leading to a more complete record, but on the other hand, antagonisms may be stirred up at interviews, which can lead to individuals being reticent in front of one another, and a 'public line' may be offered instead of a more honest, personal response (Arksey and Knight, 1999: 76). Issues of conduct during a group interview arise, on issues of how to handle turn-taking, giving everyone a chance to speak, and a different range of responses to a question. (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 703-4).

The students who were interviewed were between the ages of 12-13. Children differ from adults in cognitive and linguistic development, attention and concentration span, ability to recall, life experiences, what they consider to be important, status and power, all of which have a bearing on the interview (Arksey and Knight, 1999:116). It is important to establish trust and put them at ease, and to use straightforward language, allow time to think, and combine methods and activities, to make the interview non-threatening and enjoyable (Arksey and Knight, 1999:116-8). Group interviewing with children enables them to challenge each other and participate in a way that may not happen in a one-to-one, adult-child interview (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 704).

Group interviews require skillful attention to the physical layout of the room so that everyone can see everyone else, and group size is also an issue: the optimum number is six or seven, as too few can put pressure on individuals, and too large and the group fragments and loses focus (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 707).

Interviewing students was difficult to reconcile with the practicalities of a busy school. My colleague very kindly allowed me to keep the students behind after their lesson, making them twenty minutes late for their next lesson with her. On the second occasion, we spent half of the time finding a room to sit in as the room we were using was being used for a meeting. Such stressful time and location issues were not conducive to a relaxed atmosphere. In addition students were noticeably worried about saying the 'right thing'. They tended to agree with each other when questioned, two students tended to dominate the interviews, and their answers seemed like they were more concerned with pleasing the interviewer, their teacher.

The difference between a focus group and a group interview is that in the former, the reliance is on the interaction within the group who discuss a topic supplied by the researcher, and the researcher becomes more of a facilitator who can prompt people to speak and promote thinking and reflection (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 711). The strengths and weaknesses of the focus group are similar to those of the guided approach interview, the rationale behind the possible change being that a focus group empowers participants to take more control of the conversation, which was the issue

with the first cycle of classes. The age of the students (fourteen) meant that they were more able to confidently express themselves, and as the group consists of the whole class, they were more comfortable talking in a small group.

Ethics

An overall helpful ethical rule is not to allow research to become covert, by telling students and colleagues about the research, and clearing any data before it is made public (Altrichter, Posch and Somekh, 1993: 24). Students in all classes were aware of the research and the fact that I would be making notes on the lessons which would be made public, and that this data would be anonymous. Clearance was obtained from the school to undertake the project, collect data and make this public, and the school deemed that it was not necessary to gain parental permission.

The three main ethical issues regarding interviews are informed consent, confidentiality and the consequences of interviews (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 721). The principle of informed consent arises from the subject's right to freedom and self-determination. The subject has the right to refuse or take part, or to withdraw once the research has begun (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 154). When children are involved in research, it is important to keep in mind at all stages that they are not on equal terms with the researcher, and to try to lessen the power differential between the adult researcher and children, without eliminating the differential, which is also ethically inadvisable (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 155). Students were chosen to take part in an interview based on their current assessment level in Latin, gender and

ethnicity, in order to represent the class, and were given a briefing. It was made clear that there would be no negative consequences for students not wishing to take part in the interviews, and other students would be chosen in the places of any who chose not to take part, although this was not necessary. Students were guaranteed confidentiality: not disclosing information from a participant in any way that might identify that individual or that might enable the individual to be traced, as well as not discussing an individual with anybody else (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 179). However, this confidentiality is in relation to the research project, and the school's safeguarding practices override all such considerations. Interviews and focus group sessions were audio-recorded, and kept in a locked place and deleted at the end of the research. Students were informed of this during the initial briefing before the interview/ focus group.

Data sets

To analyse the data content analysis was used, which is based on the assumption that analysis of language can reveal meanings (Edwards and Talbot, 1999: 121). Categories can emerge from the data, but is more manageably done when categories are predetermined and derived from the research questions. By using these categories when observing and when organising interview/ focus group data, analysis is more straightforward and reduces what could potentially be large quantities of data (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 563). In order to remain open to any surprises in the data, an empty row was added to the checklist categories, where any data which was relevant

but not easily categorised could be recorded, allowing for unforeseen themes to emerge (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 564).

Collaboration

Collaboration for this research was undertaken with a colleague, a Classics NQT. We met on a weekly basis for our mentor meetings. My colleague taught the same lessons which I planned to her classes, based on the principles of the quadrant model, and we discussed the lessons each week. In this way we both reflected upon our practice, and used what we learned to develop the Key Stage Three schemes of work. After each meeting, I noted down what was discussed in the action research diary, and used this to inform planning. As my colleague was an NQT I did not wish to put undue pressure on her or to make her feel that she had to follow my teaching methods. We both agreed that the Ancient Roman world tasks were key for enthusing our students, and I made it clear that there was no expectation for her to teach in a particular way, but she was happy to follow the tasks I had set, which worked well for me too, as it gave me the chance to discuss and collaborate on lesson planning. In April I ran a CPD session at the school on the quadrant model, and my findings so far for this project. As part of this session used the information to plan activities based on the model, and informally fed back to me how this worked in their respective subjects. Collaboration for the second cycle was with the students, who knew about the project, and with whom I discussed the tasks as part of the focus group during the lesson.

Results

The data is recorded in table form in the Appendices 2-5. This consists of data organised into key predetermined categories for observations, interviews and the focus group.

Appendix 2: Categorised observation notes from a series of three lessons on approaches to grammatical learning (research question one).

Appendix 3: Categorised observation notes from a series of three lessons on teaching comprehension activities (research question two).

Appendix 4: Categorised observation and interview notes from a series of three lessons on teaching the Ancient Roman World.

Appendix 5: Categorised observation and focus group notes from a series of three lessons on comprehension activities and the Ancient Roman World.

Evaluation

The evaluation is organised into Cycles One and Two. Cycle One is organised into research questions 1-3, which each cover a different aspect of teaching Latin (grammar/ translation and comprehension/ Ancient Roman World). Each of the three research questions are then broken down again into sub-categories using the pre-determined categories decided using the literature (see page 31 for these categories). Research questions four and five (on metacognition and quality student talk) are explored within these three sections, as they are inseparable from the subject knowledge (Claxton, 2007: 190).

Cycle Two is evaluated separately and broken down into the two research questions. As it is much smaller than Cycle One, the predetermined categories are not used to break down the evaluation.

Cycle One: Year 7 and Year 8

Research Question One: What are the effects of different pedagogical approaches to grammatical learning (encouraging a received or reflexive approach to the learning)?

Overview of four lessons: each lesson introduced a new grammatical concept, and a quadrant two style focused task to practise the new concept. These four lessons were concurrent with the four lessons in research question two of this cycle, with one lesson on grammar, and then the following lesson doing a comprehension activity embedding the new grammar.

(See Appendix Two for lesson details).

The four lessons taught on grammatical learning developed on the spectrum from being very teacher-led to a more inductive approach. The learning of grammatical concepts is the aspect of Latin which is most formalised, with little space for students' own action knowledge (Barnes, 1975: 30).

Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at substantiated conclusions: In Lesson One students' talk was directed by the teacher, often with short amounts of time (30 seconds- 1 minute) to prepare an explanation or discuss with a partner. Time to

represent the previous learning to themselves helped them to remember and to embed the previous learning (Barnes, 1975: 30) as well as scaffold the new learning on the accusative plural, delivered by the teacher and then practised in practice sentences. This process was reversed in Lesson Two when students translated first and then were asked to identify the new grammatical concept. Students were able to translate the new concept easily (the sentences were designed so that the context and accompanying picture made the meaning clear) but could not identify what was new in the sentence, and in Lessons Two and Three the grammar was presented in a mini plenary when deemed necessary in the lesson, although pointed out to some individual students if they had worked it out beforehand. Vygotsky argues that co-operation between the teacher and student is needed in order to make scientific concepts more concrete (1988:169). Students were most successful at arriving at substantiated conclusions without teacher help when the grammatical concept was not wholly new but made up of parts which they were familiar with, and had the opportunity to revise these familiar parts explicitly building on existing work. Giving students key words to describe the grammatical concept improved the focus of student talk and motivation of students' discussion when negotiating and sharing explanations. The Student Experts in Lesson Three, a concept which I thought would not work and would lead to unfocused discussion, took their role seriously, and disproved my fear stated in the hypothesis that students who worked faster would not want to help other students, visibly enjoying the chance to help other students, taking seriously the briefing I gave them on how to help draw out the answer through questioning and never to simply give away the answer. Students receiving help from the Student Experts responded positively to their questioning and using the Grammar Help Sheet. My colleague found that the Student

Experts did not work with her Year 7 class, whom she finds talkative, but that it worked well with her Years 8s- it is not something I would feel comfortable doing with every class, though it is my aim for it to be so, not only to make the most of this untapped resource but because of the trusting relationship with the class that is built from doing so. Although it is not possible to tell from single lesson observations which method worked best for long-term remembering of grammar, Lessons Three and Four focused on the process of learning as much as the acquisition of knowledge, one of Claxton's features of an epistemic culture (2007: 121) being students drawing upon resources, with less recourse to the teacher. Different levels of scaffolding and teacher explanation are needed for wholly new grammatical concepts (e.g. the dative case) and those that combine different aspects from previous learning (e.g. the imperfect tense in the plural, where plural verb person endings for the present tense and the imperfect tense with singular verb person endings have been learned). Allowing students to see and translate the new grammatical concept first, then using Bruner's courteous conversation (1996: 112) at an appropriate time in the lesson to be judged by the teacher, then giving students key words and time to collaborate with their partners to arrive at an explanation of the new concept encourages students to develop their understanding and to be the thinkers of Bruner's third pedagogical model, rather than the passive imitators of the second model (Bruner, 1996: 56).

Role of the teacher and teacher questioning: The role of the teacher changed from the centre of the grammatical learning for the whole class to the role of prompt to individual students and guide to structure understanding. Lesson One's teacher talk was

characterised by question and answer sequences which tested not just knowledge, but also guided the development of understanding, one of Mercer's features of an effective teacher as mediator (2000: 160), but this sequence also displayed what Alexander describes as pseudo-enquiry (2008: 106), where participation precedes exploration as a result of time pressure. Despite planning for the grammatical concept (the dative case) in Lesson Two to be learned more inductively, the teacher role remained the same in this lesson, as although students translated the dative case before it was discussed as a concept, they did not identify it as a new concept, a process of identification of which I had underestimated the complexity. The role of the teacher changed drastically in Lessons Three and Four because of the Grammar Help Sheet and Student Experts. Here teacher questioning was one to one and directed to those who needed it, and in Lesson Four often took the form of non-verbal prompting such as underlining the word in pencil which needed checking in a student's book. These lessons felt closer to the community of enquiry envisaged by Mercer (2000: 161), with learning as a social and communicative process with the teacher taking an increasingly guiding role. Student experts working with other students gave both the chance to represent their school knowledge, making it more memorable (Barnes, 1975: 81). The learning was collective, focused and supportive, giving students new opportunities to develop a diverse talking repertoire (Alexander, 2008: 112-3). The Grammar Help Sheet transformed the questioning for students who found the work challenging: questioning moved away from the acquisition of subject knowledge and focused more on procedures for solving problems and making sense of experience (Mercer, 2000: 160). My colleague said that there were far fewer misunderstandings when it came to explaining the grammar when teaching in inductively, and other students could clarify misunderstandings more easily

in these lessons as they understood the concepts at their own pace, although this student to student explanation does require teacher guidance (when a student asks for help, the teacher asking who on the table can help to explain it and asking them to do so, which you would later come to check).

Assessment of understanding: By allowing students to understand grammatical concepts first through prompting and translation and using this time to circulate the class, I was able to judge when to intervene with a whole class discussion and the level of scaffolding required, and students had the chance to try out translation of the new concepts as well as refresh their knowledge of previously learned concepts, as opposed to starting off with a one size fits all explanation. The method of assessing understanding through question and answer sequences in front of the class can potentially embarrass lower ability students if they are not confident of their understanding, as in Lesson One and Two, but when the students had discussed the concept with a Student Expert or the teacher beforehand, these lower ability students were keen to participate in the question and answer sequence, which became more cumulative, with students building on each other's' ideas with the teacher as the conductor of this process, an indicator of dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2008: 113).

Miscellaneous: The importance of ability pairings became clear when looking at collaboration- a boy with a middle ability next to a girl with a high ability physically distanced himself from her so that he could focus on his work at his own pace, and a boy

with a high ability read out his answers for students to copy. Another boy copied the answers directly from his partner's work. However, as Student Experts these same two boys who allowed their work to be copied followed the questioning sequence I briefed them in. This prompted me to rearrange the seating plan so that those students copying were next to someone with a similar ability in Latin, which improved the situation as they worked together but also continued to seek the answers from others on their table.

What are the effects of shifting the focus when translating Latin stories from language learning (a received form of knowledge) to comprehension of texts (a reflexive form of knowledge), making Latin translation tasks more akin to quadrant three than quadrant two activities?

Overview of the four lessons: Each lesson included a different activity using a Latin story observations (drawing the Latin translation; comprehension questions on a Latin text; acting out the Latin in freeze frames) requiring translation of the story and comprehension of its contents. The story would include the grammar learned the previous week (in the lessons described in research question one of this cycle).

(See Appendix Three for lesson details)

The range of activities in these felt less tightly focused than a translation activity, but they were not quadrant three activities because they were neither ambiguous, risky nor open ended. Planning open-ended comprehension activities to fit the criteria of quadrant three, where assessment demands are clear, was challenging, and ultimately

failed. At the end of the section I will discuss whether any Latin translation activity at this level can be made into a quadrant three style activity. The section 'Students negotiate open ended task' included in the observation checklist did not apply in practice because activities were not open, so was not included in the Evaluation.

Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at substantiated conclusions: The activity in Lesson One involved translation, and the drawing aspect of the task did not work how I had hypothesised (as a motivator to translate and to make the translation incidental rather than central to the activity) because the drawing did not add to their knowledge and did not form part of the assessment. It did not therefore fulfil the criteria of a more flexible form of knowledge and the task was still focused on received knowledge rather than reflexive (Eggleston, 1977: 52). This affected the discussion and collaboration, which was focused on received grammatical knowledge and was often cumulative, where speakers build positively but uncritically, using repetition, confirmation and elaboration (Mercer, 1995: 104). In Lesson Two students referred less to grammatical concepts and focused on vocabulary, reflecting the task (drawing a representation of the text). Here the task involved more complex comprehension of the text, as it was transformed directly into an image. The question 'Would you rather be Roman or Greek and why?' did not add to students' learning as knowledge of the text needed only to be regurgitated from the translation, and not appropriated by the student. In the first two lessons, discussion and collaboration was similar to that observed when practising grammatical concepts translating sentences (research question one). In Lesson Three, an independent learning task on the Ancient Roman World (based on a video about the

eruption of Vesuvius in Pompeii) was used to prepare students for this task, a set of comprehension questions to answer on a text. Students were guided to find clues on the page (e.g. glossed vocabulary, the title of the story) which might help to understand what a story is about, and based on the independent learning task and these clues, to hypothesise what the story was about. This allowed students to use their reflexive knowledge (Eggleston, 1977: 52) and inference skills. Answering comprehension questions on Latin stories is challenging because the translation is not the outcome but the first step towards formulating a coherent answer, and requires practical problem solving skills too, such as finding line references and deciding what to extract from the text which is relevant to the question. Students tended to follow the same procedure of collaboration and discussion as with the drawings (cumulative talk giving translations for vocabulary and reordering words in a sentence, again with little regard for grammar because it is not explicitly required), but this did not result in high quality work (see Assessment of Understanding section below). The comprehension activities were overall characterised by cumulative but unfocused talk between students, and ambiguity between the objective of the task and what was being assessed in Lessons Two- Three, a clear link between these two things being key to a successful task (Thompson, 2015: 6).

Role of the teacher and teacher questioning: In a quadrant three activity the role of the teacher is to plan the resources for students to confront ambiguity and risk in the task (Edwards, 2015: 23), of which there was a degree of both in the lessons, but not enough for them to be categorised as quadrant three activities. Modelling by the teacher was key to helping students understand what was required of them from the task, and using

split-screen thinking (Claxton, 2007: 125) to focus on both the translation and the planning and monitoring of the group work, a metacognitive technique (Nisbet and Shucksmith, 1986: 28). In Lesson One, two tables found the group work challenging and required teacher intervention to plan this, and two individuals, students of high ability, stated that they wanted to work alone, and I had to be clear that it was not an option, although they could clearly do the work more efficiently alone. On reflection this task was not intrinsically of more value because it was done in a group (Mercer, 1995: 91) and there were some individuals who could do the activity more easily alone. In Lessons One and Two the teacher role was answering grammar related questions, and in the case of Lesson One, sorting the practicalities of group work, encouraging students to translate different sentences, and in two cases appointing someone in charge of the table to assign sentences. Again for Lesson Three, another new type of activity for the students, the teacher role was explaining the practicalities of how to do comprehension questions, using line numbers and the marks for the question to find the correct Latin and write correct amount. For Lesson Four the activity was teacher-centred as the activity was tightly timed and involved teacher questioning to individuals at the end of each part. The teacher role in these lessons was not the quadrant three teacher role, which was a result of the task design (see the Miscellaneous section below).

Assessment of understanding: This was straightforward in Lesson One because students were writing translations, in Lesson Two questioning was used to check understanding, such as pointing at vocabulary and asking how they can incorporate it into their picture to show knowledge of it. In Lesson Three, answers to the comprehension questions

were often inaccurate and based on predictions of the translation of a few words in a sentence, despite modelling of how to answer, and a mini plenary to repeat this. Assessment was therefore based on one to one questioning with students. In Lesson Four students were asked comprehension questions about the Latin whilst performing their freeze frames. The expectation was made clear at the start of the activity that if an individual could not answer a question related to the vocabulary of the Latin, their team would lose a point, fulfilling some of the criteria of Mercer's features of a valuable group-based task: that students have to talk to do the task, and that the activity encourages co-operation not competition (1995: 91). Consequently students made sure that they knew the answers one student did not know the answer, and had made less effort in the activity, he did not seem to mind but his group did.

Use of learning strategies: Split-screen thinking (Claxton, 2007: 125) was used with some success to plan the group work apart from some higher ability students opting out (see above in the Discussion and Collaboration section). However, in all three of the lessons the majority of students did not finish the task because it was too long- this is an issue with translation related activities in a fifty minute lesson, with time needed for a starter, plenary and time to record the independent learning, and undermines students' efforts when they are unable to finish the task.

Miscellaneous: The Grammar Help Sheet resource was used by students without prompting- the most grammatical mistakes were for the most recent topics studied,

which is positive because it suggested that the grammar taught furthest back was embedded rather than forgotten, and that practising of the newer concepts will embed the newer grammar too. A good understanding of how to use the Grammar Help Sheet, which students' use of the resource suggested, and of how grammar is set out, enables students to assimilate newer grammar more easily and place it within the context of previous learning (Schwab, 1973: 230).

Reflecting upon the four lessons in this cycle, I conclude that Latin comprehension activities are not quadrant three activities. By incorporating learning of the Ancient Roman World and using the Latin story for further enquiry on a topic or further investigation into the narrative of the storyline, a student's reflexive knowledge can be incorporated into the translation. Getting the pace right for these activities was also challenging- without the motivation of a time limit, many students were translating at a slower pace (Lesson Two) than when there was a clear time limit (Lesson Four). Formulating meaningful learning objectives for the activities was challenging too- the enquiries were different each week (would you prefer to be Roman or Greek? What will happen to Pompeii?). But an alternative could be to focus on one enquiry over a course of stories- this would be possible because the chapters in the Cambridge Latin Course are organised by topics (Baths; Gladiators etc.) and use each story to extract knowledge about the subject, leading to a quadrant three style activity on sources using this information. I hypothesised that comprehension activities would be difficult because they add another layer of understanding to a translation, and I underestimated how challenging it was, with the need to make it clear that translation, even if not formally

written out, was an essential part of the activity, and model doing this. Discussing these lessons with my colleague it became clear that we had adopted the concept that translation alone is boring and doesn't require many skills apart from the subject knowledge itself, but that students told us that they actually enjoying translating, and our focus should be on how to maximise the skills and learning strategies involved in the process and focus on the narrative of the stories, which provides the opportunity for discussing more reflexive, less algorithmic forms of knowledge (Skidmore, 2000: 283).

What opportunities are there for fostering agentic learning when teaching about the ancient Roman world using sources?

Overview of the lessons: This task was based on a competition run by a British university for school children to write a script on the everyday life of a Roman citizen. Over the three lessons students worked in groups of three to plan, research, write and check their script: each student was in charge of one third of the script and had a scenario they had to research and write about (home life/ work or the town/ entertainment) in the context of the character they had chosen.

Students use own knowledge- dialectical relationship: In the interview a student said that she knew about her topic from primary school which is why she chose it, and used this to help her research. Another student said that the Ancient Roman World work on Pompeii we did in Year 7 was sometimes applicable but he had to check in the book in case it didn't apply to Britain, but gave a good starting point for the topic. Some

students were therefore bringing knowledge from outside of the Latin classroom for the task- all students used their research skills, which they told me that they learned in library lessons, when checking that students were confident using an index and making notes. In Lesson One there was therefore a dialectical relationship (Bruner, 1996: 65) between both skills and knowledge. Aspects of Lesson Two, where scripts were planned out using the research and humour was added, was more complicated than it sounds, as the inclusion of humour required students to grasp the distinction between their reflexive knowledge on what jokes they think would work, and received knowledge on Roman Britain- the dialectical relationship between the two types of knowledge reflecting Bruner's fourth pedagogical model (1996: 61) although this was not rooted in an understanding of this dialectical relationship as the history of knowledge (Bruner, 1996: 61). Anachronisms were allowed if they were deliberately used for comic effect, and led to discussions on alternatives for a mobile phone/ clock, which led to students checking each other (one student reported in the interview that a group member had included a TV). For the writing of the introduction in Lesson Three, students used their existing knowledge to make educated guesses at an appropriate name and age and to summarise their character, drawing on their collective research. In Interview Three a student pointed out that they felt unable to check their partner's script for knowledge as they had not researched that area and there was discussion over what counted as a 'fact' in the script, for example, was an incidental detail such as 'Salvius drank his wine' a fact? (That Romans drank wine at dinner).

Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at substantiated conclusions: In Lesson Two students shared their research and discussed a rough outline for each scenario to be written, using a checklist of what needed to be included. Because the scenarios would be combined to create one script, each group member had a stake in each other's work. In the interview all six students said that they enjoyed discussing the scripts, especially the opportunities for humour, and one student said that she would have preferred more writing time so that she could complete the task in class to type up at home. One group struggled with the discussion exercise and planning their script because of an absent member, and one group had less research to draw upon and lacked motivation, needing more guidance and coaxing by the teacher. Students used the sources studied in previous lessons with their research to construct an account of the past, fictional but based in fact, and the sources were used as a solution rather than a problem (McAleavy, 1998: 12). Apart from the two groups whose work and discussion were hindered by absence/ lack of motivation/ less preparation work, the talk was collective and purposeful, as all students had the same aim and the success criteria was clear, and in nature it was more reciprocal and supportive than in other lessons- characterised by explaining why something needed adjusting, e.g. a problem solving exchange on how to show a naked man in the baths in an animation. Students were less likely to unquestioningly accept what students of more higher ability said, because there was no 'right' and 'wrong' answers, giving the talk more resemblance to dialogic talk (Alexander, 2008: 112-113). In Lesson Three the talk was less purposeful when students checked their group member's scripts, in Interview Three a student said that she did not want to criticise a friend's work. There was a sense in Lesson Three that the main work was now completed, and the Introduction was less focused for some groups, where in

two cases discussions on the name of the character or what he looked like, the talk became disputational (Mercer, 1995: 90) losing its purpose and leaving less time for writing the Introduction.

Use of learning strategies: Planning and monitoring were built into this activity using split screen thinking (Claxton, 2007: 121). In Lesson One this was on research skills and the acquisition of knowledge, and for Lesson Two this was to collaborate with group members to create a coherent overall plan, so that individuals could work on their scenario. Making subject knowledge and metacognition co-dependable helped the students to manage the task demands, especially for the collaboration and planning, and I concur with Claxton that this would not be useful outside the context of the learning, and that a disposition is more appropriate word to describe this than a skill (2007: 120). In Interview Two a student said that the success criteria helped most with the initial planning because written activities can be vague, showing the importance of a focus on assessment demands in an open task (Thompson, 2015: 6). Checking and revising of each other's scripts in Lesson Three was not treated as a meaningful activity by students, whose focus was completion, reflected in comments in the classroom and in Interview Three ("I checked it myself/ We don't need to make changes"), compounded by students' reluctance to criticise each other's work. Teacher modelling of this process, with a more explicit explanation of its use with reference to its practice in Further Education and in professions might encourage students to treat the metacognitive strategy of checking work (Nisbet and Shucksmith, 1986: 28) as more meaningful.

Students negotiate open-ended task: The task was overall open-ended, but in practice the lessons were tightly controlled by the teacher through timers. In Interview Two a student commented that Lesson Two would have been hard without the timings because they increased the pace- this was reflected in Lesson Three, where students had a task list to complete and no timer, and the introductions were incomplete apart from for one group. Here on reflection I had not truly taught a quadrant three activity, not like for the lessons discussed in research question two because I found it impossible with the subject knowledge, but because I did not trust that the students would cope with such an open activity incorporating metacognitive strategies and collaboration (though I trusted the intentions of most of them to try their best). I planned an open-ended task, but in fifty minutes, after discussing the success criteria and the relevant learning strategy/ disposition, time was tight. As Claxton points out, cultivating dispositions is a long-term cumulative process which infuses the life of a school (2007: 128). A regular space for such projects on the curriculum, with more resources to help students organise their learning, to move away from the teacher as central to the process, will give students who can do it more independence, leaving more time to support those who need it.

Miscellaneous: The external nature of the competition motivated many of the students, for a few students it suggested to them that it was not part of the curriculum, which was a concern in the hypothesis, as this has been the case in the past, but a very clear success criteria, with some parts written in collaboration with the students and some

given by the University, meant that most students took the activity seriously, with a few exceptions mentioned above.

The sources used to introduce the project (a piece of Independent Learning work done before Lesson One) were less central to the Ancient Roman World work than I had anticipated. The literature discussing sources in the Literature Review (pages 18-19) refers principally to literary sources, whereas I used archaeological sources. There is less literature on interpreting these and there is less to question regarding reliability of the source. The sources were used in the way Kitson et al (2011: 62-64) envisage in a successful way: to build a picture about the past and ask questions, but this process was much shorter than and straightforward than with literary sources, because of the added dimension of reliability and bias of the author. My colleague found this set of lessons the most transformative of those taught in this cycle, with the class being loud but focused, with lots of questions asked by the students about the subject knowledge, putting her in the role of "knowledgeable resource" as envisaged in a quadrant three activity (Edwards, 2015: 23). My colleague was less regimented with her timings than I was in this activity, reflecting a quadrant three style activity more accurately- two groups of students did not hand in any work, but the rest of the class had the chance to self-regulate.

Reflections on Cycle One and planning for Cycle Two

Teaching grammar in a more inductive way with the chance for students to construct meaning and to help each other helped with working towards creating a community of self-regulating learners, and other classes responded well to this teaching.

Reflecting upon research question two and efforts to make Latin translation more akin to a quadrant three style exercise, I realised after teaching other lessons that many students really enjoy translating from Latin into English, and that they were using a range of skills to do so, liked the clarity of what they needed to achieve in comparison to the comprehension activities, which had less accountability and less clear learning objectives, and worked better in a group than in the activities I had planned specifically for group work. Taught in a curriculum of interesting and challenging Ancient Roman World tasks, not every lesson needs to or should be in the quadrant three style, and comprehension can be interwoven more subtly into translation, which will be tried in Cycle Two. Teaching an Ancient Roman World topic in Cycle Two using sources, the focus will be on supporting students to regulate their own learning rather than this being teacher-led.

Collaborating with my colleague on this cycle helped to lead the learning and teaching aspect of our discussion in NQT mentor meetings, and made the discussion more reciprocal than it had previously been, when the dynamic had been more about us working to solve a perceived 'shortfall' in my colleague's teaching as a newly qualified

teacher. Here we were working together to problem solve, offering an alternative to traditional power relationships which tend towards transmission (Skidmore, 2010: 285).

Cycle Two: Year 9

Overview of the three lessons: The first lesson was a translation and comprehension activity, the second and third lessons comprised of an open ended quadrant three style activity on the Ancient Roman World, in which students made a video to show their learning, using learning strategies to self-regulate.

What are the effects of shifting the focus when translating Latin stories from language learning (a received form of knowledge) to comprehension of texts (a reflexive form of knowledge), making Latin translation tasks more akin to quadrant three than quadrant two activities?

The focus of this research question altered in Cycle Two to look at ways of developing dispositions (Claxton, 2007: 121) and self-regulation when translating, and to develop and scaffold comprehension skills more gradually. Students in this lesson used the translation rules which they had formulated with the teacher in an ongoing process, focusing not just on subject knowledge but also procedures for solving problems (Mercer, 2000: 160) such as using knowledge like English derivations to help with unfamiliar vocabulary and knowledge of learning strategies such as checking their work (Nisbet and Shucksmith, 1986: 28) to improve their translations. They used these rules to translate together and discuss potential translations of the same sentence, arriving at the most appropriate translation through cumulative and purposeful discussion

(Alexander, 2008. 112-113) and using their Grammar Booklets (a reference grammar) to check their answers. Although the students did not use action knowledge (Barnes, 1975: 30) to translate, there was a dialectical relationship between their knowledge of the learning strategies practised to help with translating, and their school knowledge (Latin). One comprehension question was given at the end of the translation, which was the first comprehension question the students had been given for months. The support required from the teacher on the steps for how to answer and the length of the discussion and disagreements before agreeing on an answer underlined the difficulty in comprehension questions, and led me to believe that fostering skills for translation and comprehension must be done in the context of also fostering students' learning capacities in the classroom through explicit discussion of these strategies so that the two are infused as in Claxton's epistemic culture (2007: 120). As students become more agentic in their learning, the role of the teacher becomes more peripheral in the classroom, and in this lesson I gave feedback to students who had checked their work, prompting them to check incorrect parts of their translation and to explain to me why it needed changing, using one student as a Student Expert to play the same part as the teacher, as in Cycle One lessons, with the same positive effect, moving away from transmission by the teacher and towards cognitive restructuring through interaction (Mercer, 1995: 90).

What opportunities are there for fostering agentic learning when teaching about the Ancient Roman world using sources?

The open ended task on the Ancient Roman World was a project on Roman Deities, part of the Latin Sources GCSE module. Inspired by the open ended task on the Ancient

Roman World in Cycle One, students had to make a video in groups of four answering an enquiry question: “Who and how did the Romans worship?”, using their learning on the set sources for the module and knowledge about the Roman deities. Students researched the topic for an Independent Learning task before Lesson Two, explaining that they were familiar with many of the facts through previous learning and reading (fiction too, e.g. Percy Jackson books) and built upon this existing knowledge for the task. The students were given instructions for the task, a checklist and the learning strategies they would need to use. Before embarking on the task, they had to formulate a plan and write it down. I stressed the link between learning strategies and their transferability (Claxton, 2007: 121) for higher education and work, which students said made them more aware that they were learning about skills they would use later in life, not just subject knowledge, and that this was important and interesting to them. Students said that it was easy to make the plan and the timings but difficult to stick to it, but that knowing that it was their responsibility and that any incomplete work would need to be completed outside of the lesson motivated them. The students used action knowledge (Barnes, 1975: 30) planning their scripts, citing techniques learned in Drama and English lessons, as well as problem solving discussion regarding props and costumes. Students noted that two students tended to take charge of the work but that it was okay because everyone could speak and it helped get things done. Discussion was mostly cumulative and supportive, on occasions becoming more transmissive, with the students who were taking charge dominating the talk. During this task the role of the teacher was as a knowledgeable resource (Edwards, 2015: 23), checking that plans were on track and answering questions about using the sources, though these were minimal ad they had been studied the lesson before. Lesson Three was a test of students’ ability to complete

an open ended task without teacher help, as they filmed their planned videos in an area outside of the classroom whilst I taught the other students. Reflecting on the task, the first group of students said that they felt they understood the topic better having made the video, which could be because they had represented their school knowledge to themselves and use it to recode former experiences (Barnes, 1975: 30). The second group found the activity more challenging and had to carry on filming at a later time, which they felt was not an issue with their planning but their practical skills of filming. I was surprised at how well students responded to the checklist and learning strategies, although like in Cycle One the checking was not meaningful and students were keen to get started. This activity structured the learning strategies but not the learning, which was left to the students.

Collaborating with the Year 9 students with the Student Focus Group in this Cycle required transparency, one of the features of Claxton's epistemic culture (Claxton, 2007: 121). Involving students in this was effective because it extended the concept of learning as a social, communicative process (Mercer, 2000: 161), where the process of learning itself becomes the object of enquiry, not just the subject knowledge, and they said that they enjoyed reflecting on their learning. For me as a practitioner the trust that was built with the class, this time through the focus group, transformed my relationship with them.

Implications

The research has wide implications for how we teach Latin at the School. Grammar is now taught inductively wherever possible, which was often the case beforehand but is now done with more consideration regarding student and teacher discussion. Translations are taught with a focus on the narrative of the story and what it tells us about the Romans, with a focus on building up the narrative rather than accumulating grammatical knowledge. Ancient Roman World topics are interwoven into Key Stage Three schemes of work, with independent learning tasks on sources building up to an open ended quadrant three task. A consequence of these changes is that we move more slowly through the Cambridge Latin Course with more focus on learning strategies and building dispositions. Learning strategies and problem solving are key, and linking these to higher education and the workplace show students the transferable skills learned in Latin, showing them its relevance and application in the world. More widely, I will submit a shortened version of my findings to JACT, the Classic Teachers Journal.

I have presented the findings at a CPD (continuing professional development) event for teachers at the school, and have arranged to do the same at an NQT (newly qualified teacher) and an ITT (initial teacher training) session. Within the International Communications Faculty I have supported colleagues with the planning of end of term projects. The focus has been/ will be on how to scaffold and plan for open ended tasks, and convince teachers to put their trust in their students.

As our school builds on its success to create a sustainable model for learning, I will continue to explore the implications of open ended tasks and broadening the learning dispositions of the students. In my new role as an Aspiring Lead Practitioner, I am leading on a project of Student Learning Leaders, students who will work with teachers to help plan their teaching. This process will require sensitivity, but one of the aims is to encourage colleagues to trust their students, and show the dividends that this can bring to the learning.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Example of an observation checklist pro-forma

Appendix 2: Categorised observation notes from a series of three lessons on approaches to grammatical learning (research question one).

Appendix 3: Categorised observation notes from a series of three lessons on teaching comprehension activities (research question two).

Appendix 4: Categorised observation and interview notes from a series of three lessons on teaching the Ancient Roman World.

Appendix 5: Categorised observation and focus group notes from a series of three lessons on comprehension activities and the Ancient Roman World.

Appendix One

Observation checklist: What are the effects of different pedagogical approaches to grammatical learning?

Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at substantiated conclusions	
Role of the teacher and teacher questioning	
Assessment of understanding	

Appendix Two Checklist Observations for research question one: What are the effects of different pedagogical approaches to grammatical learning (encouraging a received or reflexive approach to the learning)?				
Lesson and brief description	**Lesson One** Starter recaps nominative and accusative singular and nominative plural. Accusative plural endings taught in teacher-led style, with presentation of the grammar at the front and short focused sentences translation activity to practise.	**Lesson Two** Dative case taught inductively with students given time to translate and discuss the grammar, then discuss new learning through teacher led question and answering.	**Lesson Three** All six person endings of the imperfect tense ('we' and 'you all' previously unseen). Students need to use their knowledge of 'we' and 'you all' endings in the present tense (-mus and –tis) and put this together with their knowledge of the imperfect tense (-ba- stem). Students given Grammar Help Sheet to help them to organise their grammatical learning syntactically. Grammar learned inductively through translation and one to one questioning,	**Lesson Four** All six person endings of the perfect tense, ('we' and 'you all' new to the students). Students need to use their knowledge of 'we' and 'you all' endings in the present tense (-mus and –tis) and put this together with their knowledge of the perfect tense (-v- stem). Plenary gets students to explain this.
Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at	-Most translate starter sentences correctly in the singular, a few students recognised the plural and corrected others on their table, when prompted	-Students are given sentence with picture and asked to translate from the context, as a challenge can work out what grammatical concept is new.	-Used concept discussed at CPD session that week- expert learners who completed their work to circulate and help other students. Explained to	--most talk centred around vocabulary, sharing meanings looking in dictionary or own knowledge.

substantiated conclusions	majority of students recognise it, got more confident student to explain it as a recap. - Translating sentences talk around vocabulary and when it was accusative plural or singular. In discussion together one student tells other it is plural but doesn't say why, other student writes down answer.	-Translate sentence correctly (clear from context- picture) but students cannot identify new concept (suggestions revolve around vocabulary).	students that they were not allowed to give the answer but had to help make students aware if not translating imperfect tense correctly, use Grammar Help Sheet. -One student expert explains to a student that the verb is missing something, shows her the imperfect tense conjugated on the Grammar Help Sheet, asks what it is missing and how she knew. Student experts using Grammar Help Sheet to guide other students, only saw one student out of six misused this time to chat with a friend. - Mini plenary to explain why dormiebamus= we were sleeping, explanation challenging for one student to separate parts of verb and explain, required	- you all run/ no it's you all were running, it has ba in it. When differing answers to a translation, if student disagrees then will posit their version. In one example this was incorrect but other student used it unquestioningly. -pairs of similar ability more collaboration and discussion of translation. - Mini plenary activity when given perfect tense verb in Latin and two options for the English, majority of students able to identify and explain which is correct with confidence. -One student needed help from other student to recognise role of –v- as indicator of perfect tense. - For explanation gave key words on board, had to use all as part of explanation, more students able to

			questioning and structuring by teacher.	explain than last week and more fluent explanations.
Role of the teacher and teacher questioning	-Questioning for starter to draw out and recap understanding of nominative/ accusative/ plural. -Explanation of accusative plural and recognising endings in the three declensions- show on board. - Model translation of sentence on the board, then put up sentence and ask students to translate with partner and be ready to explain their answer. -Starter activity recap of nominative and accusative singular and nominative plural, putting two concepts previously learned together (accusative and plural). -Teacher: How can you tell it is accusative plural? Student answers 'the	-Using examples so that students encounter the grammatical concept before explaining it. The dative case is the only example in the four lessons of a concept which has not been encountered in any form, so inevitably some teacher-led work is necessary. -Examples on board of dative case and time for students to prepare in pairs an explanation of how it is translated into English. -Going over previous case learning in starter took time, got students to practise explanations by giving each table something to explain to the rest of the class when noticed it was challenging for them to	Students guided towards focusing on their verb persons and tenses (they were given the clue of a picture of a sheep on the IWB, to remind them of the –ba- imperfect verb ending) whilst translating a short story into English, with no initial checking.	-Circulate classroom, underlining on their work in pencil where students should refer to the Grammar Help Sheet but not tell them why, need to work it out. -Making sure all students have Grammar Help Sheet in front of them and know how to use it. -For lower ability students use questioning to check understanding of how to use Grammar Help Sheet. -Encouraging students to find out the problem rather than tell them, guide them to use of resources. Questioning for lower ability also guided to how to use resources. Plenary questioning (how can you tell the tense/ person?) used other students to

	picture shows more than one'. Teacher: what if there was no picture? Student: I wouldn't know. Other student explains the '-s' ending for the accusative plural.	explain concepts they were familiar with. -Easy to translate for students at first but in Q&A focusing on dative endings (crossover with other case endings) reliant on pictures for answers.		explain answers to each other when incorrect.
Assessment of understanding	-Through questioning at front of the class. Did not speak to all students. Question and answer back and forth with teacher. Chance for individual questions when doing translation task.		Individual conversations with students, allowed to spend time with those that found more challenging, model using Grammar Help Sheet. Some students just point at the –ba- stem and they realised.	Skipped quadrant one and straight to translation activity with grammatical learning part of it. No student consistently translated the perfect tense and verb person correctly, in plenary activity with focus on this, majority understood without problem.

Miscellaneous			-Students organise resources (dictionary and grammar help sheet) and share out tasks like looking up vocab. -one pair girl translating faster than the boy able to, rather than copy her he does it at his own pace and moves down the table to separate himself from her. -one table a boy translates and three others copy down as he reads it out, one looks up words. Other two seem to be following text but clearly copying as first boy reads out loud, boy becomes silent when I approach the table and students on this table in silence.	Most students translate imperfect tenses correctly (learned last week) and point it out to others on the table. Three students recorded translating all tenses as present. -Rearranged seating is improvement, more collaboration but some pairs looking to other students for answers- without making punitive how to train students to help each other showing how to find the answer, not giving it.

Appendix Three

Research Question Two: What are the effects of shifting the focus when translating Latin stories from language learning (a received form of knowledge) to comprehension of texts (a reflexive form of knowledge), making Latin translation tasks more akin to quadrant three than quadrant two activities?

Lesson and brief description	**Lesson One** Starter a recap of the dative case. Translate a short play ('in apodyterio') and draw the scenario after each section, using the detail from the text.	**Lesson Two** Why I would rather be a Roman/ Greek. Need to draw a picture for each Latin section (no written translation), have to justify your decision then have a vote.	**Lesson Three** Answer comprehension questions on the story 'tremores'.	**Lesson Four** Act out the stories 'ad urbem' and 'ad villam' as a class. Each section is up on the board and students in the groups (five groups of five) had four minutes to translate as a group and create a freeze frame which shows full understanding. A point for each group for the best freeze frame, with overall winning group.
Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at substantiated conclusions	-Cumulative talk, each looking up vocabulary/ grammar and putting it together. -Recap last week's work on the dative case (see Appendix One, Lesson Two) using key words from board.	-Discussion focused on vocabulary, some grammar identified as un-necessary ('it's we build, not we built'/ 'it doesn't matter it's a picture') but singular/ plural and nominative/ accusative/ dative- point out to some students that this affects the picture. -Roman/ Greek discussion as plenary- simplistic- I'd be	-Using learning from independent learning and pictures on the board, students predict what will happen in last lesson (Pompeii destroyed/ everyone dies etc.). -Skill of inference from clues on the page- specifically from the story, what do you predict: students look at title, glossed vocabulary,	-Language the focus but incidental to the activity- 'show that there are lots of people around you like you are pushing' (to show Pompeiani vias complebant- the Pompeiani were filling the streets). -

		a Greek because I am creative/ Roman because they were strong.	and the picture provided- inference skills taught at GCSE to help with translations.	
Role of the teacher and teacher questioning	-Modelled first section and drawing using document camera with student input. -Split screen learning- group work and comprehension. Impossible to complete individually (too much to translate) so discuss effective ways to use group (assigned jobs/ sentence each in pairs and share). -have to work in groups (2 students don't want to, h.a).	-Teacher modelling of annotating Latin text without writing out a formal translation- (one between two). - Teacher-student questions still based on grammar (how will you represent this ending through drawing (e.g. 'we' verb person)?	-Role principally practical on answering comprehension questions- pointing out line references and marks for each question. -Modelling of first question.	-Scaffold first time get students to translate on scrap paper then create freeze frame- questioning- how could you have shown that you translated the word 'festinaverunt' more clearly? Encourage students to focus on every word.
Assessment of understanding	-Focus on language of translation, grammar. Picture was addition to translation, not seen an part of assessment (which is true). My feedback also focused on the language (check the case of this	- Focus here was on the pictures as no text was translated. Limited opportunities to assess grammatical understanding, focus more on vocabulary and sense-making.	-Individual conversations on what students needed to do (translate the full story out loud answering questions as go along).	-On each freeze frame individual students were questioned with reference to Latin words- knowing that they could be asked and their team's point relies on them knowing helped motivate students to make

	noun/ what tense is this?/ where is this word?).			sure they understood the sentence.
Use of learning strategies	3/5 tables used group work as discussed, advanced further than other two tables in translation. Discussion- one successful table shared their method (assigning roles).	-Recap of last week and difference between groups collaborating and those not. Assign roles (look up words/ write notes for English translation/ look up endings) together.	-Students struggled to translate systematically without writing it down, teacher role should have modelled this process more explicitly.	-Stressed that no time for one person to translate and success depends on group work. Not at tables as they were pushed back to make space, but dictionaries and grammar help sheets essential. -Students dividing up text- weaker students often volunteer to look up words, low risk task but contributing.
Miscellaneous	-About half of class using Grammar Help Sheets without prompting, noticeably for nominative and accusative cases and verb persons more than verb tenses and the dative case- because learned before, others need more time to be embedded?	Hard to time the activity- want to keep a good pace but not dishearten students who are unable to translate in that time.	-Students negotiating task 'we could just translate the lines indicated in the question', explain that need understanding of story to answer later questions.	-Behaviour management was an issue, activity not completed, not much space (is very small room). -One student noticed subtly and opting out of the translation process, active in acting- during third translation I subtly said that I would be questioning him soon and to make sure his

				understanding of the vocabulary was thorough. Subsequently got involved looking words up and offered suggestions of whacognates meant.

Appendix Four

Research Question Three: What opportunities are there for fostering agentic learning when teaching about the ancient Roman world using sources?

Lesson and brief description	**Lesson One** Students have completed tasks on Roman Britain sources for independent learning (independent learning task). Explain script writing competition with overview of plan. Students can choose groups of three and need to assign a research topic each. Thirty minutes to research their area using books- discuss what successful research looks like.	**Lesson Two** Watch e.g. video and note down what the jokes are/ discuss why are funny. Choose character want to write about, in groups decide scenario relating to each researched topic. Plan script then share with group, feedback. Independent learning task is to write script on computer (750-1000 words).	**Lesson Three** Success criteria on board (five facts/ three jokes/ inclusion of a source/ correct English/ follows a character) and swap script with partner. Give feedback on how can improve to fulfil criteria. When done improvements, write introduction as a group. Then plan how will put script together (email each other) so have full script to give in next lesson.
Students use own knowledge- dialectical relationship	-add to research table first using knowledge from independent learning. -use own knowledge to make sense of activities: what food did Romans not have- places where they had not been to; why did Romans want to live in Britain. Answering each other using own knowledge.	-discuss humour in script- can use something historically inaccurate for humour. What anachronisms to use for humour? -Students ask if they can include an alarm clock, ask what the Roman alternative could be- sundial. Mobile phone could be a wax tablet.	-less knowledge based lesson. -write introduction together, use knowledge from the course to choose appropriate name and age. -use each other's fact lists to add extra information to scripts.

	-students use skills for research to learn different aspects of Roman Britain. -resources- library books, discuss skills needed (e.g. index) and note making.	-Ask about a rap, decide that humour comes from it being out of place.	
Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at substantiated conclusions	-talk focused on practicalities of which books to use. No built in reason for collaboration- type of group work where don't need to be in a group (at this point).	-Group planning of each scenario, people writing for each one takes notes. -7/10 groups invested in activity using variety of knowledge. 3 groups struggling (all boy groups) improve with more direct instruction from teacher. Two groups need prompting to questioned anachronisms. -e.g. you can't have him in swimming trunk they didn't have them/ how are we going to show him?!/ with a towel/ did they have towels?/ or with something in front of him!/ we can show his bum, they did that in the video we saw!	-problem solving for introduction, asking questions about typical ages marrying and names. -talking about each other's work uncritical and positive (it's good/ funny), no monitoring or questioning where there are not enough facts.
Use of learning strategies	-divide up research topics but uneven availability of research in books provided, some finish earlier/ struggle to find research and opt out.	-create success criteria for what a play has- compile the list on the board.	-task list on the board for students to work through, all at different stages.

		- assign part of the script, with time to feedback to each other and improve. What need to decide upon as a group.	- process of improving and monitoring not taken seriously, goal was completion of activity.
Students negotiate open-ended task	-quadrant two activity more focused and controlled, more open ended next lesson. -one student unable to find info in book waited passively until I noticed, little help needed but did not ask. -2 students- what If we don't do the work/ do we have to enter the competition?	-I negotiated the open task by breaking down the planning into timed parts- nervous of students having so much time (to do nothing?) or that they would do three separate pieces of work without collaborating.	- practical concerns of putting the text together, some needed to do so after the lesson.
Miscellaneous	-Students engaged in activity asking lots of questions to each other and teacher. Some topics (farming) less engaging and harder to research- students with this topic less engaged generally (ambivalence towards task resulted in them getting the least interesting topic?), needed support. -External focus of competition had effect of motivating student and focus with clear success criteria, for minority of students (four) they interpreted this as not a 'school' task, had to stress to them that it was too.		Two groups gave in very similar work suggesting work was copied and adapted.

Appendix Four

Research Question Three: What opportunities are there for fostering agentic learning when teaching about the ancient Roman world using sources?

This task was based on a competition run by a British university for school children to write a script on the everyday life of a Roman citizen. Over the three lessons students worked in groups of three to plan, research, write and check their script: each student was in charge of one third of the script and had a scenario they had to research and write about (home life/ work or the town/ entertainment) in the context of the character they had chosen.

Lesson and brief description	**Lesson One** Students plan their script in groups, choose their character and research their scenario.	**Lesson Two** Students write a plan of their scenario and add their facts and humour, in groups.	**Lesson Three** Having written up the script at home, students check each other's scripts and write an introduction together.
Students use own knowledge- dialectical relationship	-Knew some things from independent learning but needed the book as only knew basics. -knew some things from primary school. -learn research skills in library lessons, prefer to write full sentences and copy bits need from books, easier to understand. -More interesting than listening to someone but some bits were harder (heated flooring and how that worked).	-fun adding in the jokes and hard to take out things they didn't have think of alternatives. -too many jokes in ours probably need more Roman facts. -simple things like what was for breakfast didn't know and had to check. -someone in our group had included a TV and not as a joke.	-more about sorting everything in this lesson in our groups. -if you don't know about partner's topic don't want to make suggestion as don't know what they can add. Hard to decide what a fact is in script. -ask teacher about introduction if an age was realistic or a name fitted well for the character.

		-Harder because chose British slave character- less evidence about his life than Roman characters, had to guess.	
Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at substantiated conclusions	-Talked about who does what and if someone needed help. -Asked my partner when did not understand the different rooms in the baths.	-talking about each scenario first was better as everyone had funny ideas you could use. -prefer more time to write and less talking because I didn't finish working on my own.	-feel uncomfortable criticising people's work, especially a friend. -Introduction was easier together because needed to use all information, but one person had to write. - Spent too much time choosing the name, now have to finish the Introduction at home.
Use of learning strategies	-didn't need to plan just chose a topic each. -other student- argued over topics in group, two people wanted entertainment topic.	-would be harder if just given the whole lesson to do it would mess around more and do less work.	-was happy with my work and nobody said any improvements so I didn't have much to do. -we didn't want to make many changes so we didn't suggest improvements so then we were done. -a person in my group didn't do everything but I am not going to do his work for him. -two of us just did the introduction, complicated for all of us to do it.
Students negotiate	-annoying if someone does not do their bit in group.		

open-ended task			
Miscellaneous	-frustrating when some people kept best books for longer. -differing size of research available for topics meant some finish first. -someone in group did Celtic houses and confused about which we had to do.	-stressful when someone's research in the group was not good, we had to do it then which wasted time in the group for writing the jokes.	

Appendix Five

Cycle Two with Year 9 students: This cycle consists of two lessons, and two interviews.

Lesson one: Observation

Lesson two: Observation and student focus group

Lesson three: student focus group (the quadrant three activity happened in groups outside of the classroom, so no observation was possible.

Lesson and brief description	**Lesson One** **Translation and comprehension activity on Trojan War story (part of series of translations)**	**Lesson Two**	**Student focus group for Lesson Two**	**Student focus group for Lesson Three**
Students use own knowledge- dialectical relationship	-using own skills and prior knowledge- derivations/ interpretation skills. -syntactic skills- grammar booklet/ dictionary.	-Bring own deities research to lesson. -add humour and a narrative. -props/ costume.	-knew some of the research from primary school. -I know the gods from books already, Percy Jackson. -planning to use techniques from drama lessons for filming.	-Using the camera was so hard- we balanced it on some books, we think it worked okay.

Discussion and collaboration are used to arrive at substantiated conclusions	-discuss correct translation of word- girl or daughter, work out who the girl is using prompts in the text for most fluent translation. -'look at the English blurb it says girl'/'is it the daughter'?/ 'no in the last story they captured people she could be one of them.' -agree on comprehension answer as a group, range of answers then use one most closely related to text.	- creative decisions about narrative, deciding on order of topics/ sources.	-we didn't disagree but some people were more in charge, but it is okay they always are. But they let everyone talk. -You need someone like that sometimes. -It took ages to decide on the less important stuff like costumes and characters, how to make it funny/ but the learning bit is quite straightforward.	
Use of learning strategies	-go through process at start of translation, repeat at the start each time: glossed vocab/ title of the story/ English blurb- hypothesis? -after every sentence- does this make sense? -when complete check work and tick each Latin word when tense/ case/ number is double checked.	-use checklist on board to plan- how long will dedicate to each one, teacher's role to check this. -link to university skills.	-Really hard to stick to plan made, underestimate how long things take. -Then you realise you have twenty minutes and you will have to do it at home so you make sure it is done.	-we had to get it all done in the time/ which was impossible! -we had to take our checklist from last week to make sure we didn't forget anything.

	-using targets from last translation.			
Role of the teacher and teacher questioning	-oral feedback to individuals with gradual withdrawal- students to self-check and check with peers. -most common questions from students on fluency- guide students to make decision.	-check stick to schedule. -make link to assessment (essay question after the task) explicit. - answer questions on practical- how long to film/ practice time/ where.	- didn't really need the teacher much here because we knew what we needed to do. -wanted to check about one of the sources, didn't understand what the text meant about the gods being part of history. - also we needed to know some things like how long we would have and what props we would have access to.	-just to come out and tell us to hurry up really!
Miscellaneous				-enjoyed it and feels like I really understand the topic.