Development and enactment of an EAL policy: Improving provision at an international sixth form

Latoya Van Der Meer

A Research & Development Project

Submitted for the MSc Learning & Teaching 2021

DEPOSIT AND CONSULTATION OF THESIS

One copy of your dissertation will be deposited in the Department of Education Library via Oxford Research Archives where it is intended to be available for consultation by all Library users. In order to facilitate this, the following form should be inserted in the library copy of the dissertation.

Note that some graphs/tables may be removed in order to comply with copyright restrictions.

Surname	Van Der Meer
First Name	Latoya
Faculty Board	Education
Title of Dissertation	Development and enactment of an EAL policy: Improving provision at an international sixth form

Declaration by the candidate as author of the dissertation

1. I understand that I am the owner of this dissertation and that the copyright rests with me unless I specifically transfer it to another person.

2. I understand that the Department requires that I shall deposit a copy of my dissertation in the Department of Education Library via Oxford Research Archives where it shall be available for consultation, and that reproductions of it may be made for other Libraries so that it can be available to those who to consult it elsewhere. I understand that the Library, before allowing my dissertation to be consulted either in the original or in reproduced form, will require each person wishing to consult it to sign a declaration that he or she recognises that the copyright of this thesis belongs to me. I permit limited copying of my dissertation by individuals (no more than 5% or one chapter) for personal research use. No quotation from it and no information derived from it may be published without my prior written consent and I undertake to supply a current address to the Library so this consent can be sought.

3. I agree that my dissertation shall be available for consultation in accordance with paragraph 2 above.

Contents:

Introduction 5
Policy development and enactment 7
EAL policy and guidance in England 11
Second Language Acquisition Processes 13
Methodology 17
Results & Discussion 26
Conclusion & Implications 45
Appendices 48
References 58

List of Figures and Tables:

Table 1: EAL themes from the literature upon which the classroom strategies used in this thesis are based. *17*

Figure 1: Timeline of research activities, data collection methods and who was collaborated with during each phase of the project. *18*

Table 2: A summary of the questionnaires conducted in this study. *20*

Figure 2: Teacher criteria for effective EAL policy and how to achieve each. *26*

Figure 3: Teacher reflections on the latest draft of the policy text highlight providing department-specific strategies and memorability as areas for improvement. *29*

Figure 4: Across the three criteria to enable effective implementation teachers illustrate that they feel the latest draft of the policy mostly meets them. *29*

Figure 5: Teachers experiences with consultation to develop the EAL policy seem positive overall. . *31*

Figure 6: Are collaborative experiences valuable to teachers? *33*

Figure 7: Teachers' experiences with training they've received to be able to meet the policy objectives. *34*

Table 3: Wilcoxon matched pairs ranked test results investigating teachers' attitudes and understanding of first language as a fund of knowledge. *35*

Figure 8: Distribution of responses to statements to determine teachers' attitudes and understanding towards a pupils' first language as a fund of knowledge. Please note that statement 2 is a reverse statement. *35*

Table 4: Wilcoxon test results pertaining to teachers' understanding of SLA processes. *36*

Figure 9: Teachers' changes in understanding of SLA processes. Please note that statements 6, 8 and 10 are reverse statements and hence disagreement is sought to indicate positive outcomes. *37*

Figure 10: Teachers engagement with trialling EAL strategies in the classroom. *38*

Table 5: Wilcoxon test results investigating changes in teacher attitudes towards language planning. Please note that statement 13 is a reverse statement. *39*

Figure 11: Changes in teacher attitudes towards language planning. Statement 13 is a reverse statement. *40*

Figure 12: Percentage number of EAL strategies departments considered applicable to their local contexts. *41*

Table 6: Mathematics teachers offered six additional strategies for EAL provision that fit with the categories determined from the literature review. *41*

Table 7: A summary of the number of strategies chosen from the available total by each department for each category. Mathematics includes the six strategies they added. *42*

Table 8: Summary of the most common EAL strategies used by teachers in the peer observations. ... *43*

List of Abbreviations:

CPD:	Continued Professional Development
EAL:	English as an Additional Language
HODs:	Heads of Department
IELTS:	International English Language Testing System
INSET:	In Service Training
RQ:	Research Question
SLT:	Senior Leadership Team
SOW:	Scheme of Work
UK:	United Kingdom
USA:	United States of America

Development and enactment of an EAL policy: improving provision at an international sixth form.

Abstract:

This study investigates the development and enactment of an English as an additional language (EAL) policy at an international sixth form that was motivated by the lack of local and national guidance on how to provide for EAL pupils. The policy development process included training teachers on second language acquisition (SLA) processes, organising collaborative experiences with peers to share expertise, encouraging teachers to trial new EAL strategies, and having teachers consult on policy texts and strategies in workshops and meetings. Data from five different surveys and eight 45-minute peer observations were collected to investigate teachers' criteria for effective implementation of an EAL policy, their experiences with the policy development process, and how the EAL strategies advocated in the policy were enacted in classrooms. Emergent themes from the survey data measuring teachers' criteria revealed that clear communication, formal implementation, and ensuring policy is applicable to the local context are required for effective implementation of EAL policy. Furthermore, teachers' experiences with the policy development process were predominantly positive, cooperative, educational, and illustrated a small improvement in their underlying understanding of SLA processes. Peer observations demonstrated that the key EAL themes of planning for language input, planning for language output, and treating first language as a fund of knowledge were all actively employed in the classroom. The promotion of reading however was lacking. Recommendations for school leadership include encouraging wider participation with EAL strategies, formal implementation of EAL provision into schemes of work, appraisals, and observations, and to consider reading interventions. Furthermore, the wider educational community should consider integrating the EAL strategies used in this study into their own practice, and to address the paucity of research into teachers' criteria for effective policy.

Introduction

Teaching physics to pupils with EAL poses its own challenges. At times, brilliant pupils who comprehend concepts, and can perform the necessary mathematical operations, are stumped due to the language used in exam questions. In my own practice, I have observed that pupils are particularly hindered by the contextual language they come across, instead of subject-specific vocabulary. This hinders their performance and attainment, reduces access to the curriculum, and is one of my personal reasons for being interested in how to provide for EAL pupils in an academic setting. The independent sixth form where this study took place, caters exclusively to pupils with EAL. While all these pupils receive bespoke English language lessons either in the form of English for academic purposes or as communication and study skills, there has been no policy or guidance on how to provide for EAL in academic classrooms.

Furthermore, while conducting my part two research, which investigated teachers' orientations towards the schools' 'English-only' rule, it was revealed that teachers favoured English majority practices, that English cultural hegemony may persist, and that teachers' understanding of the cognitive and academic benefits of plurilingual proficiency is lacking (Author, 2020). Such orientations result in variable provision for EAL as it reflects teachers' attitudes towards, and understanding of, second language acquisition processes (Dina Mehmedbegović, 2008). In addition, literacy development in academic classrooms in this school is lacking as outlined in its latest Ofsted report which states that:

> 'The school needs to improve the quality of teaching so that it is consistently good or better by ensuring that all lessons in the academic section give a focus to developing students' literacy skills and subject-specific vocabulary (Ofsted, 2019, p.2).'

Based on all these findings, it was concluded that the school should invest time into developing an EAL policy that aims to tackle these issues. Such a policy would need to ensure that it is translated into practice and leads to improvements of EAL provision in the classroom. Thus, the development and enactment of an EAL policy is presented here as a school-wide intervention.

Since teachers are both policy actors and policy makers as they apply their understanding of policy to the local contexts of their classrooms, it follows that collaborating with teachers in the policy development process should help reduce mismatches between the aims of a policy and enactments by teachers (Braun, Ball, & Maguire, 2011; Van den Berg, 2002). Such mismatches often occur in 'top-down' implementations of new policy initiatives due to the interpretations and reinterpretations of policy, which cause it to be 'iteratively refracted' (Supovitz & Weinbaum, 2008). Thus, to narrow the range of creative responses that teachers could have to the EAL policy developed here, both collaboration and consultation have actively been used as strategies throughout this thesis.

Details of collaboration and a timeline of activities to help develop and enact this new policy are outlined in the research methodology. The discourse for this dissertation, however, begins by exploring the work of renowned sociologists Stephen Ball, Meg Maguire and Annette Braun who highlight the relationship between policy and context in schools, and its relationship to enactment. Subsequently, national policy in England is reflected upon highlighting the current lack of guidance on EAL provision. Because of this, theories by notable linguists Stephen Krashen, James Cummins, and Merril Swain are consulted to develop an understanding of second language acquisition processes. Consequently, the literature review allows for the development of key themes, rooted in empirical evidence, that lead to an understanding of policy and its enactment, and best practice for providing for EAL pupils in the classroom.

Policy development and enactment

Policy development is a complex process rooted in social interactions that draws on teachers' passion, originality, and judgement while being tempered by the nature of the whole school response (Ball, Maguire, Braun, & Hoskins, 2011b). There is neither a true start nor end to policy, nor are the steps in 'doing' policy distinct or occur in an orderly fashion (Ball, 2015; Scott, 1996). Policy, then, can be thought of as a compounded human endeavour that comprises *'jumbled, messy, contested, creative, and mundane social interactions'* (Ball et al., 2012, p. 2). Ball et al. further offer a definition of what policy is when all these facets are considered:

> '…what is meant by policy will be taken as texts and 'things' (legislation and national strategies) but also as discursive processes that are complexly configured, contextually mediated and institutionally rendered.' (Ball et al., 2012, p. 3)

While there is no empirical reflection in this thesis on what policy comprises, the process of developing an EAL policy text, collaboration with teachers, and reflection upon their experiences of policy development and enactment, will be taken to constitute what policy is.

Furthermore, 'enactment' as for the purpose of this thesis is defined in accordance with Braun, Maguire, & Ball, who argue that:

> 'Enactment refers to an understanding that policies are interpreted and translated by diverse policy actors in the school environment, rather than simply implemented.' (Braun et al., 2010, p. 547)

Policy texts relate to this in how they encode meaning that is decoded by policy actors, and are subsequently recoded by them, causing iterative refractions of the meaning of policy that see schools change over time (Maguire, Hoskins, Ball, & Braun, 2011). The expectations outlined by these also impose changes to the working environment that are frequently at odds with teachers' conceptions of 'good teaching' (Van den Berg, 2002). Thus, as policy is shaped through the process of development, enactment, and implementation, its aims, as set out by policy makers, may not align with actual classroom practice. This is due to the creative responses by policy actors that seek to apply their understanding of the policy to their local context or even the microcultures of their classrooms. Such enactments lead to disagreements, negotiations, and formation of coalitions, which result in various, coexisting iterations of the policy.

Since policy is rooted in social interactions, we must consider how teachers are not just objects of policy but also policy subjects, comprising varying roles as policy actors. Ball, Maguire, Braun, & Hoskins (2011), outline seven different positions that teachers can hold in relation to policy. These are *narrators*, those who interpret, select and reinforce meaning of policy, *entrepreneurs*, those who advocate, create and integrate policy into their context, *transactors,* those who account, report and monitor aspects of policy, *enthusiasts,* those who are invested, satisfied and feel how the policy positively affects their career, *translators*, those who produce texts, artifacts or events in their local context, *critics,* those who maintain counter discourses, and *receivers,* those who are dependent on policy interpretations and understandings by others. They further outline the position of *outsiders*, those who in partnership with the school may monitor a schools' enactment of policy and argue that:

> 'The policy roles and positions outlined above combine to make policies happen. The policy process is iterative and additive, made up of interpretations and translations, which are inflected by existing values and interests (teachers have a multiplicity of interests and values), personal and institutional, by context, and by necessity.'(Ball et al., 2011, p. 635)

This complex interwoven set of roles impacts how policy translates into practice and whether it meets the goals of policy makers. Practically then, it is imperative that policy initiatives consider the values, interests, beliefs, and attitudes of its policy actors towards the issue the policy is attempting to address. In this, teachers must be considered as professional partners rather than simple implementers of policy (Ozga, 2000). Thus, members of leadership should invest resources into developing an understanding of teachers' perspectives on new initiatives, educate them through professional development, and regularly consult them to determine how further to develop the policy.

Varying resource environments that policies enter further impact how they are enacted. Schools have differing histories, buildings, infrastructures, leadership experiences, budgets, pupil populations, teaching and learning challenges, and staffing profiles. Maguire et al. argue that policy makers and researchers should be:

> '…contextually sensitive' towards some of the more 'nuanced distinctions among schools' contextual positionings' (Maguire, Gewirtz, Towers, & Neumann, 2020, p. 488).

In their book 'How do schools do policy: policy enactments in secondary schools', 2012, Ball, Maguire and Braun identify four such dimensions for how policy is enacted (Ball et al., 2012; Braun, Ball, Maguire, & Hoskins, 2011). These are situated contexts, professional cultures, material contexts, and external contexts. These are further explored below in their relation to the specific context of the international sixth form where this study took place.

Situated contexts

Factors such as pupil intake, school history, and its locale, influence decision making processes by senior leadership on policy implementation. A building body of research now advocates that policy makers and researchers can no longer assume that schools are 'equally able to address reforms' or policy 'demands' in the same way due to the variation in these factors (Ball et al., 2012; Gewirtz, 1998; Maguire et al., 2020; Thrupp & Lupton, 2006). Furthermore, a school's intake is often what schools are defined by in terms of their identity, outlook on teaching and learning practices, and the setting of priorities.

In my own school, it must be considered that all pupils are classified as EAL, are reasonably well off given they can afford to study overseas, and that it tends to be their first time away from their families. The international nature of the school defines its approach in terms of welfare provision, behaviour management, and teaching and learning. In my experience, teacher discourses pertaining to 'pupils like ours' often reflect different pupil cultures and linguistic repertoires, but at times also stereotypical comments about expectations of pupil behaviour based on their nationality. The school's history is also relevant. Now a conglomerate of schools, it first began as an English language school before branching out and offering academic courses. This has resulted in the schools' English as a foreign language course being situated in the city centre whereas academic courses, such as A-levels and English for IELTs, are offered at a campus set inside a suburban area that is twenty minutes away by bus. While senior leadership oversees both, this poses challenges as at times contrasting viewpoints emerge on how to implement new initiatives due to the differences at each site.

Thus, situated contexts, even within schools can be non-uniform. Braun et al., illustrate that situated contexts result in 'dynamic' policy processes and that it is an 'active force' within school environments that influence choices on how to enact policy imperatives and expectations (Braun, Ball, Maguire, et al., 2011). For this study, its impact has had implications

on its design as the senior leadership team (SLT) decided that the initial development and enactment of the policy would only take place at the schools' academic site.

Professional Cultures

This includes formulating an understanding of the effect on policy enactment due to a schools' ethos, its culture, and teachers' individual values. While Ball et al., outline a broad view of professional cultures, researchers like Spillane emphasise the role of leadership on a schools' culture and its influence on policy enactment (Ball et al., 2012; Spillane, 2004). Policy responses will thus depend on teachers' and leaderships' 'distinct set of professional outlooks and attitudes' (Braun, Ball, Maguire, et al., 2011). In this study, this particularly pertains to, teachers' current perspectives regarding treating first language as a fund of knowledge, whether they have the required pedagogical language knowledge such as an understanding of second language acquisition processes, and whether they consider planning for language an important part of their professional responsibilities.

Thrupp argues that professional cultures should not be part of the contextual dimensions' framework. He regards contextual factors *'as those that are clearly not created by existing staff or reflective of their agency because they cannot be easily changed'* (Thrupp, 2018, p. 93). While he acknowledges that professional cultures will affect policy enactment, he holds the view that this must be distinct from contextual factors so that it is clear what leadership has control over and what it does not. He argues that such a distinction will help school leaders recognise what they cannot be blamed for:

> 'A view of context as the things school leaders cannot easily change speaks back to the way policymakers around the globe have often sought to downplay context. They often want to put most responsibility for student achievement on teachers and school leaders, in a discursive move I refer to as the 'politics of blame'' (Thrupp, 2018, p. 93).

While I agree with Thrupp's perspective, this study focuses on actively changing EAL provision by developing a policy which relies on the input and collaborative efforts of teachers. Thus, teachers' professional cultures are relevant and must be taken into consideration.

Material Contexts

This includes aspects of the physical school environment, such as the state of its buildings, available technology, infrastructures, staffing and a schools' budget. It can be argued that much of this depends on the financial state of a school (Maguire et al., 2020). For example, attracting the best teachers will depend on the physical means that a school can offer. Gewirtz concurs with this as she highlights how material contexts are reflected in the amount a school spends per pupil, and how a school chooses what to spend its money on (Gewirtz, 1998). The latter could be considered the influence of a professional culture, as choices reflect values, illustrating how these contexts may overlap.

As the school in this study is an independent sixth form, its budget is not readily available, nor am I privileged to the details of this information. It is however clear that the school has been operating under financial constraints due to the negative impact the COVID-19 pandemic has had on pupil numbers. As such, the narrative from senior leadership has been that there is no money for bringing in external experts on EAL as is pertinent to this study. Financial concerns are also reflected in staffing as while it has been constant for the duration of this project, the end of the previous year saw many redundancies of both teaching and administrative staff. This

has resulted in an increased pressure on teachers during this academic year, due to greater workloads, which could certainly affect their attitudes towards engaging with a new policy initiative. Thus, reflecting on teacher experiences with developing and enacting an EAL policy is paramount, which is reflected in the research questions of in this study.

External Contexts

Aspects such as local and national policy frameworks that include Ofsted ratings, relationships with local authority, wider legal requirements, and league table positions, all constitute external contexts. These bodies set expectations that create immense pressures on teachers and senior leaders alike. While it is not possible to quantify these effects on policy enactment and implementation, it is likely that these are significant as they tend to provide reasons as to 'why' new policy initiatives have begun. Braun et al. (2010), demonstrate two different examples of how schools engage with external policy demands such as those outlined in Ofsted reports. In their research, one school views policy demands as something that must be '*acted upon to avoid negative repercussions for the school*' (p. 558). Whereas the other emphasises 'continuity of practice' to their staff while only changing their language and presentation to outside bodies to meet the demands. The latter they argue, while more economical and perhaps less stressful, risks not seeing any real changes in the classroom (Braun et al., 2010).

My own school is certainly driven by Ofsted reports as its international nature means that it must be rated as 'good' for the Home Office to grant future pupils their visas. The implication is that without a minimum 'good' rating the school would close due to lack of pupil numbers. This extreme scenario creates immense pressures on senior leadership and teachers alike, resulting in all Ofsted reports being picked apart and every negative comment receiving due attention. Thus, choices on policy and their enactment are fuelled by the motivation to appease Ofsted which is also the main motivator for this study given their negative comments regarding a lack of literacy provision in academic classrooms.

While other external factors such as expectations from parents and local authorities are discussed by researchers it's not applicable to this study (Ball et al., 2012). This is because the school does not interact with its local authority and only rarely with parents. Instead, the school communicates with parents through their agents due to the need for translation. These agents also market the school to potential new clients. Hence, the schools' reputation with them is the other main external factor that drives the way policy is engaged with. This further reflects the need for maintaining healthy pupil numbers which directly translates into the financial resources available to the school.

EAL policy and guidance in England

Now that the impact of various roles for policy actors and their contextual factors on policy development and enactment have been explored, it is vital to consider the background understanding of EAL provision that teachers and members of leadership may possess. It stands to reason that this is predominantly rooted in national policy and guidance which is considered here.

The Department for Education (DfE) in 'Schools, pupils and their characteristics' report that the number of pupils with EAL in secondary education has risen from 16.6% in January 2018 to 19.3% in January 2021 (DfE, 2019a, 2021). This number however cannot be taken to mean how many pupils have EAL *needs*, since the DfE records a pupil with EAL if they are:

> '…exposed to a language at home that is known or believed to be other than English. This measure is not a measure of English language proficiency or a good proxy for recent immigration.' (DfE, 2021, p.1)

Using this definition for EAL, the pupil population in England can be described as heterogeneous as it includes British citizens, migrants, and pupils with refugee status. Hutchinson (2018) reports that such increases are similar to trends seen in the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. Because of this, she calls for the need to 'deepen our understanding' of the struggles these pupils face, and to further develop and implement research-based strategies for EAL pupils within the classroom. However, without knowledge of the language proficiency of these pupils, it is difficult to know what range of provision is required and to what scale.

During 2017 and 2018 the DfE insisted on recording pupil English language proficiency to shed light on this. The purpose of this data collection was initially outlined as follows:

> 'The data on the English proficiency of EAL pupils is used to inform policy on this high needs group with the basic rationale being that current data on EAL pupils does not distinguish between pupils who lack a basic command of the English language versus those who are bilingual and have mastered English sufficiently to access the curriculum. This information will help the department understand how effective the education sector is for EAL pupils. It will provide valuable statistical information on the characteristics of these children and, together with their attainment and destinations, will allow us to measure whether the individual pupils, or the schools they attend, face additional educational challenges.' *(DfE, 2018, p. 65)*

At the time the School Census required schools to not only record the number of pupils with EAL, but also indicate where these pupils lie on the DfE's 'Proficiency in English' scale. This five-point scale consisted of codes A to E; New to English (A); Early acquisition (B); Developing competence (C); Competent (D); And fluent (E). Using a 'best fit judgement' approach, it asked schools to assess pupils with EAL in their reading, writing and oral language proficiency and assign them a code. The data collected from this assessment had the potential to link proficiency in English to pupil attainment. However, to the 'disappointment' of educational researchers the DfE omitted this data when publishing their reports (Strand & Hessel, 2018). It is unclear why this is, or why they scrapped this proficiency assessment for the 2019 census by reverting to only asking schools to record whether a pupil is classified with EAL or not (Section 1.4.3.1, DfE, 2019b). It is worth noting that the definition of EAL was changed at this time by adding the final sentence about English language proficiency to their definition of EAL above. Thus, the DfE simultaneously scrapped formal proficiency testing

requirements for the census but equally noted that a pupils' EAL classification is not a measure of a pupils' proficiency creating confusion as to how the DfE views formal proficiency testing.

The lack of clarity in these examples further add to the turbulent history of national policies and guidance in relation to EAL provision in England. Flynn and Curdt-Christiansen report a shift by policymakers in viewing pupils first language as a fund of knowledge pre-2010 to viewing it as a problem post-2010 (Flynn & Curdt-Christiansen, 2018). The DfE, has not commented nor clarified their position towards first language maintenance or language planning. Furthermore, there is a lack of guidance and moderation in terms of how schools should provide for pupils with EAL. This has resulted in strong critique by researchers, particularly in comparison with that offered globally such as in New Zealand, Australia and Canada (Hutchinson, 2018). Despite recognition by the DfE that provision for pupils with EAL is important, dedicated resources and specialist support for pupils with EAL were abolished in 2011. The Education Policy Institute in conjunction with the Bell Foundation has hence concluded that:

> 'The most potentially damaging feature of EAL policy in England is the absence of any national oversight or provision of professional qualifications, staff development and specialist roles for teachers and other school staff working with children with EAL.' *(Hutchinson, 2018, p.9)*

Furthermore, the national teaching standards only mention provision for pupils with EAL once indicating that teachers should:

> 'have a clear understanding of the needs of all pupils, … including those with English as an additional language…' *(DfE, 2011, p.12)*.

The wording here acknowledges that language needs may exist but rather than emphasising 'working with children with EAL' this focuses heavily on the required awareness of the teacher. This is further illustrated in the National Curriculum which requires teachers to:

> '…take account of the needs of pupils whose first language is not English. Monitoring of progress should take account of the pupil's age, length of time in this country, previous educational experience and ability in other languages' *(DfE, 2014, p.9)*.

It is not clear what is meant by *'taking account of the needs of pupils'* in practice. Beyond this, the current position of the DfE is to give full freedom to schools to implement their own local policies addressing teachers' development of pedagogical language knowledge and enactment of EAL strategies in the classroom (Safford & Costley, 2008). As such there is no national oversight on policy for EAL provision, and schools are left to their own devices which results in variable understandings of what constitutes good practice.

Thus, teachers in my school experience a dichotomy: on the one hand external pressures from Ofsted indicate that improving literacy in academic classrooms is paramount, yet on the other there is no government guidance available detailing how to do this in practice. In terms of professional cultures, this further illustrates that varied practices for EAL provision will exist within the school, reflecting teachers' understanding of second language acquisition (SLA) processes. Hence, establishing what the key themes of SLA are, as detailed in the subsequent section, will provide the foundation upon which to develop best practices for EAL provision.

Second Language Acquisition Processes

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a developing field of research in applied linguistics that links closely with psychology, neuroscience, and education. It concerns itself with determining the processes involved in acquiring a second language (Ryding, 2013). Broadly speaking SLA can be divided into three categories namely: linguistic, psychological, and sociocultural (D. Liu, 2015). The notable linguists James Cummins and Stephen Krashen have contributed most to this field over the past 30+ years and their work is explored in more detail below. Other notable theories of SLA include Wallace Lambert's psychological theory of 'additive and subtractive bilingualism', which Cummins further draws upon in his own work, and sociocultural perspectives such as those by researchers Long and Pica that focus on how interactions lead to language acquisition (Myles, 2010).

Since SLA is a large and expanding field of study, the literature focus here is to explore how long it takes for a pupil to acquire academic English, what practices may help them with their acquisition, and which would hinder it. This then provides teachers with the pedagogical language knowledge required to understand what expectations of English language output to have, how to adapt their teaching to assist pupils' rate of language acquisition, and hence help elevate their attainment. I thus seek to develop a pragmatic practitioners' perspective, applicable to my local context with regards to SLA that can be communicated to teachers during continued professional development (CPD) sessions to help them improve EAL provision in the classroom.

Developing academic English

Cummins has distinguished between the time it takes to acquire 'social language' and 'academic language' in his theory of developing Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and developing Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1979, 2000, 2013). He has further provided empirical evidence for this distinction and has illustrated that BICS is acquired quickly over the course of one to two years meaning that pupils can comfortably interact with their peers on a social level after this time (Cummins, 1981, 2008). This can be deceiving to a teacher when such a student appears lively in the classroom, as it has the potential to lead a teacher into a false sense of security thinking that the pupil is coping with the target language and the lesson material taught in it (Baker & Jones, 1988). The same goes for pupils, as those with the confidence to speak with their peers socially may not consider their language proficiency to be the reason why they may not be performing academically.

While social language is acquired quite quickly, it takes significantly longer to develop academic proficiency. The time it takes for pupils to 'catch up' with their native speaking peers, where academic language – or the language of textbooks and teacher talk – is concerned, can take between five and seven years (Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2000). Collier has demonstrated this same time frame, illustrating that pupils take 5-7 years to reach competency to be able to engage in academic tasks such as attending a university course (Collier, 1989). Pupils may thus require support in building their academic repertoires for much longer than is apparent. It is thus advisable for schools to maintain records not just of which pupils are EAL but also of the amount of time they have spent learning in an academic English context. Adopting a way to track a pupils' academic English proficiency, such as by the A-E proficiency scale outlined earlier, may also help schools target their support more effectively.

Additive and subtractive bilingualism

When EAL pupils with low academic English proficiency first join a school, they may mistakenly be regarded as academically weak, not knowing very much, or that the education system they were previously exposed to is relatively poor (Briggs, Dearden, & Macaro, 2018). It has further been reported that in many Anglophone countries English hegemony persists which negatively impacts English language learners (Borden, 2014). Some practices, while perhaps well intended, such as English immersion strategies, segregation of pupils from mainstream academic classes for half of the school day until their English is 'strong' enough, and restrictive language practices where only English can be spoken at all times, are damaging to pupils' self-esteem, attainment, linguistic repertoires and sense of identity (Corson, 1992; Cummins, 2000; Kenner, 2000; Wei, 2018). It has been shown that these types of 'strategies' can result in subtractive bilingualism where a pupil focuses so much on target language development that their abilities in their home language become diminished (Cummins, 2000).

In contrast to this, pupils whose linguistic repertoires are treated as a fund of knowledge, by offering opportunities to draw upon these as well as expand them, tend to flourish (de Zarobe & de Zarobe, 2015; Martinez, 2018). Researchers Strand and Hessel have further highlighted how pupils who are fluent in English and their home language attain higher on average in their GCSEs in comparison to their monolingual English-speaking peers (Strand & Hessel, 2018). This is echoed in the empirical work of Feyisa Demie who in her work concluded that:

> 'The achievement of EAL pupils who were fully fluent in English far outstripped that of pupils for whom English was their only language' (Demie, 2018, p. 641).

This could be explained by the additive effect of bilingualism, where in essence pupils have multiple linguistic and cultural resources to draw upon in their learning (Khatib & Taie, 2016). The key take-away from this research is thus to foster plurilingualism where possible in the classroom.

Strategies such as translanguaging and content and language integrated learning aim to develop academic proficiency in at least two languages (Lin, 2019). These strategies are often used in countries where multiple languages are spoken such as Wales, the USA, Belgium and South Africa (Cenoz, 2017; Cenoz & Gorter, 2013; Moreno, 2014; Probyn, 2019). In these contexts, teachers generally have access to the same linguistic repertoires as their pupils. This allows them to freely switch between languages and plan which linguistic repertoires to draw upon or extend in the classroom. While these strategies report success, they are unrealistic in this school setting where classroom repertoires are so diverse that teachers, even when bilingual, could not possibly utilise these strategies in the same manner. It is thus key to develop EAL strategies for mainstream classrooms where the teacher only teaches in English, but pupils are still afforded the opportunity to draw upon their home languages. In addition, to enable the success of such strategies, teachers must first view home languages as funds of knowledge rather than a problem, burden, or barrier to learning (Alisaari, Vigren, & Mäkelä, 2019).

The optimal input hypothesis

Stephen Krashen first introduced his acquisition-learning hypothesis in 1981 where he argued that there is a distinction between the acquisition of English and the learning of English (S. D. Krashen, 1981). He reasoned that the acquisition of English is the product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children undergo when they acquire their first language, which requires meaningful interaction in English. Whereas the learning of English is the

product of formal instruction that comprises a conscious process resulting in conscious knowledge 'about' the language, for example the knowledge of grammar rules. Using this distinction, Krashen emphasised the importance of language input by putting forward his 'comprehensible input' hypothesis and argued that language acquisition can occur without any output at all (S. D. Krashen, 2013). Krashen has recently updated this hypothesis and argues that pupils must be exposed to 'optimal input' which he deems to have four main characteristics. Optimal input must be comprehensible, compelling, rich and abundant (S. D. Krashen & Mason, 2020). That is, it must be mostly understandable but not fully transparent so that there are new words that pupils need to construct meaning for and thus acquire. It must be interesting for the pupil so that they 'temporarily forget' they are studying in another language. It must contain 'rich' language that *'contributes to the message and flow of the story or text'* (Krashen & Mason, 2020, p. 1). And it should be abundant, so that pupils encounter language multiple times in a variety of contexts allowing pupils to acquire its full meaning.

Beniko Mason has conducted a number of research studies that demonstrate that stories and reading, particularly that of fictional works, fit the criteria of 'optimal input' (Mason, 2019). Her work emphasises that compelling reading material is key, and that it is more effective for second language acquisition that pupils can self-select reading materials. This is in agreement with McQuillan whose research compared the efficacy of direct instruction of academic vocabulary with free reading, where pupils can choose what to read, and found that free reading is two to six times more efficient for acquisition than explicit teaching of academic vocabulary (McQuillan, 2019). Additional benefits from promoting a culture of free reading include increases in pupils vocabularies and their academic attainment (A Sullivan & Brown, 2015; Alice Sullivan, 2015; Alice Sullivan & Brown, 2015).

Mason and Krashen further argue that strategies such as comprehension aiding supplementation, which asks a pupil to draw pictures of the scenes that have been read, translates a few words, and uses context to make meaning, can further assist with the acquisition of unknown language (S. D. Krashen, Mason, & Smith, 2018). Other researchers agree that scaffolding the input pupils receive, through for example paraphrasing, is paramount to their linguistic development (Afitska, 2016; Gibbons, 2015). Thus, through actively planning for diverse language input and the promotion of free reading, pupils will be supported with their language acquisition and literacy development.

The comprehensible output hypothesis

Krashen in his discourse identifies optimal input as the key factor for language acquisition and diminishes the value of output for second language acquisition deeming it *'too scarce to make a real contribution to linguistic competence'* (S. Krashen, 1998, p. 180). This has received critique in the literature from several researchers who regard output crucial for having pupils notice their gaps in understanding and achieve fluency (Gass, 2018; Lai & Wei, 2019; Skehan, 1998; Swain, 2005).

While there is little, to no, disagreement that output is necessary for the development of fluency, the contrasting perspectives illustrate different focuses of the language acquisition process. Whereas input looks at the acquisition of new knowledge, output helps pupils restructure their knowledge and develop a deeper understanding of the underlying language structures needed to communicate effectively (Philp & Iwashita, 2013).

Merril Swain's comprehensible output hypothesis particularly emphasises that pupils acquire language when they attempt to transmit a message but fail and must try again:

> *'…output pushes learners to process language more deeply – with more mental effort – than does input. With output, the learner is in control'* (Swain in Lantolf, 2000, p. 99).

> *'One role for output in second language learning is that it may promote 'noticing' [of gaps in their understanding of how to produce in the target language]'* (Swain in Lantolf, 2000, p. 100).

She posits that the role of output in language acquisition serves three main functions, namely: noticing, hypothesis testing and developing metalinguistic awareness (Swain, 2005). This has been investigated empirically resulting in this hypothesis becoming more widely accepted (Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Uggen, 2012). Practically, this means that pupils should be provided with tasks, where improving the precision of their academic speaking or writing in English, is also an objective.

Just as input must have optimal qualities to be effective, output demands on pupils must be pitched at the right level to avoid inducing anxiety. The literature clearly warns against the cognitive demands of output and has illustrated that speaking and writing anxiety can be a negative by-product when output is forced. For example, making pupils speak before they are ready correlates with a great increase in anxiety surrounding writing and speaking (Pappamihiel, 2002). It has also been shown to affect a pupils' self-esteem and self-efficacy as pupils with low English proficiency are especially wary of being made fun of in front of their peers (Alrabai, 2015). Furthermore, there is a universally silent period when pupils first acquire a new language, with reports of pupils in mainstream classrooms not speaking for up to a year (Safford & Costley, 2008). During this silent period, it is advised for teachers to allow such pupils to focus on constructing meaning of the input they receive rather than pushing them to speak or write too soon.

Thus, strategies that help pupils with developing their academic output begin with knowing what level of output to expect from them. This should be reflected in task design with teachers ensuring that tasks are accessible to pupils with EAL, yet still stretch them so that the noticing function of output can be drawn upon. Correctly 'pitching' the language demand to avoid inducing anxiety is difficult for subject teachers who are not likely to have experience with assessing proficiency levels. Thus, collaborative efforts between English language teachers and academic teachers are recommended (Harper & de Jong, 2009).

Within my local school context pupils are required to have a minimum English proficiency as measured by IELTS scores before they are allowed to commence academic courses. This means that teachers in this school are unlikely to encounter the issue of complete silence and no output from pupils. Furthermore, all pupils must attend English language classes for the duration of their course, and those identified as particularly struggling are offered additional support classes. This schools' uniqueness, in the sense that all pupils have EAL needs, is a blessing as the question of segregation, or when pupils can join mainstream classes, does not apply. English language is simply a normal class on the academic timetable. Beyond this, however, there has been no further guidance on how to provide for the language demands these pupils face in academic classrooms, or how to prevent the speaking and writing anxieties they could experience.

Methodology

Intervention and research questions

To address this lack of guidance on EAL provision both nationally and within the school where this study took place, it was decided that an EAL policy should be developed. This should be rooted in educational and linguistic research and aim to improve EAL provision in every classroom. To achieve this, the above literature pertaining second language acquisition has been summarised into four key themes:

Theme:	**Description:**
Treating first language as a fund of knowledge	Any actions that consider how first language may be used to help learning.
Planning for language input	Any actions that plan for, and scaffold, the language demands of listening and reading tasks.
The promotion of reading	Any actions that promote reading in the classroom and beyond.
Planning for language output	Any actions that plan for, and scaffold, the language demands of speaking and writing tasks.

Table 1: EAL themes from the literature upon which the classroom strategies used in this thesis are based.

These themes are regularly referred to throughout this thesis and form the underlying theoretical basis of the EAL policy. This includes the development of thirty classroom strategies for EAL provision, see Appendix A, which were either adopted directly from the literature or were inspired by these four themes according to which they are also categorised.

The development and enactment of an EAL policy is presented as the intervention for this dissertation. The outcomes of this practitioner research should enable:

- Senior leaders to make informed decisions on how to successfully implement the EAL policy in the subsequent academic year.
- Teachers to develop their pedagogical language knowledge and understanding of second language acquisition processes.
- Teachers to confidently apply EAL strategies to the microcultures of their classrooms.

To this end, and to guide this work, the following three research questions were formulated:

> **RQ1:** How does the newly developed EAL policy meet teachers' criteria for effective implementation?
>
> **RQ2:** What are teachers' experiences of the policy intervention?
>
> **RQ3:** How have teachers engaged with the strategies for EAL provision advocated in the policy?

These research questions allow for the exploration of what makes policy effective and teachers' experiences with: collaborative efforts, consultation on the policy development process, training on SLA processes, and trialling of policy components. It further explores how

departments have engaged with the EAL strategies and how teachers have integrated these into their classroom practice.

Timeline and Collaboration

To be able to answer these research questions a mixed-methods approach was used consisting of surveys and peer observations (E. D. de Leeuw, 2008). Figure 1 below summarises the various activities that took place to develop the policy which involved training teachers on SLA processes, drafting the policy, iterating upon it after consultation, and trialling components of it. It further illustrates the various data collection methods used throughout the year and which collaborators, if any, were involved at various stages.

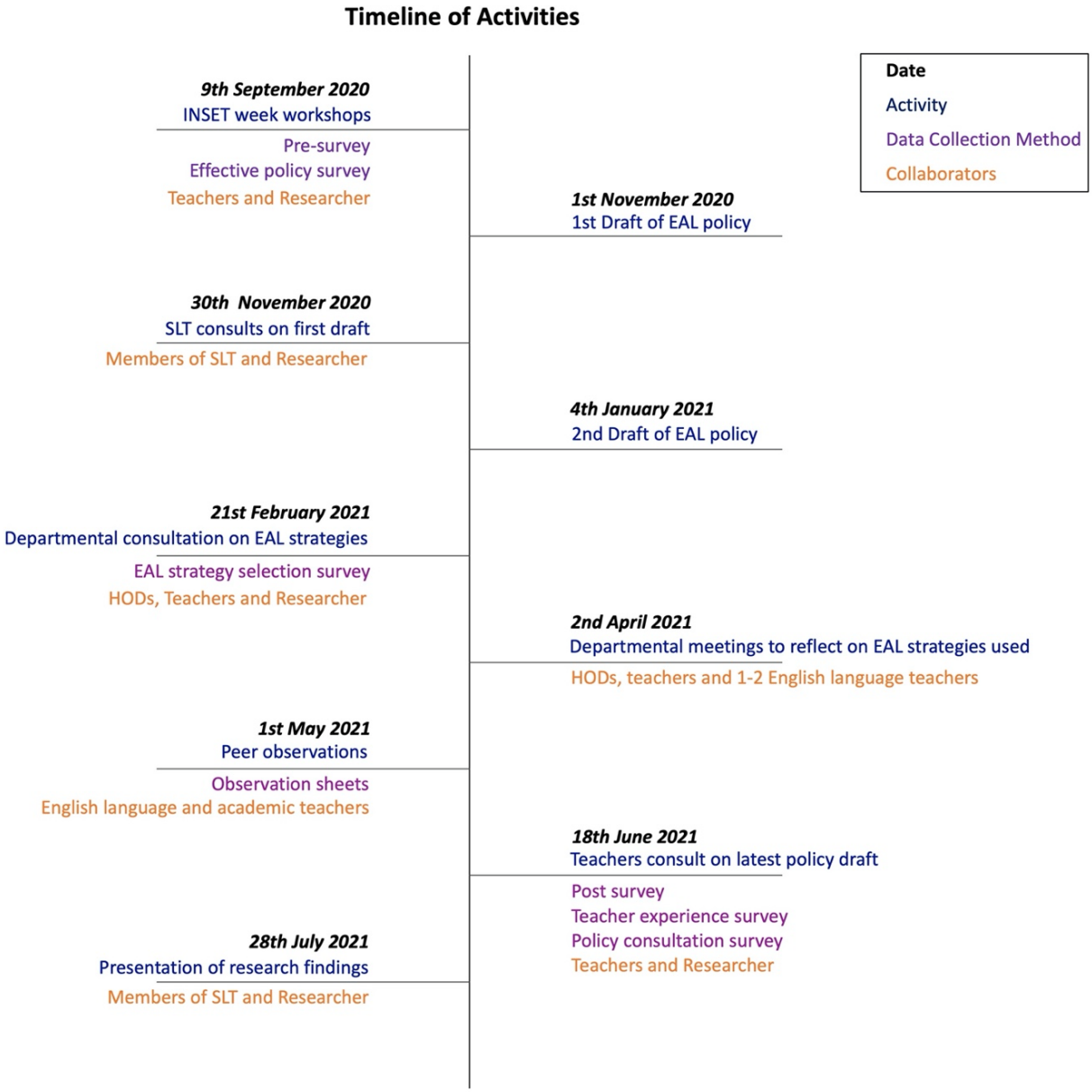


Figure 1: Timeline of research activities, data collection methods and who was collaborated with during each phase of the project.

The collaborators in this project all took on a consulting role by offering feedback on the policy drafts, by piloting survey questions, or by partaking in discussions on practical implementation

of policy components. Such collaboration formed an integral part in this study as it is crucial to draw on teachers' and SLTs' professional expertise to narrow the range of creative responses to the newly introduced policy (Ball et al., 2012). The workshops and various meetings organised throughout the year further encouraged collaboration by asking teachers to work together in small groups. These collaborative efforts were investigated in the teacher experience survey to determine their effectiveness. Furthermore, at the end of the academic year, I presented the findings from this thesis to SLT and discussed future courses of action to enable the effective implementation of this policy in the subsequent academic year.

The data collection methods began with asking teachers to complete a pre-survey at the beginning of the In-Service Training (INSET) week in September. This determined teachers baseline understanding of second language acquisition processes and their stances towards first language as a fund of knowledge and planning for language in the classroom. Teachers then participated in two workshops addressing the EAL provision themes and a third that asked teachers to collaborate in groups to discuss what makes effective policy. During this workshop they completed the effective policy survey that allowed for the determination of teachers' criteria for effective EAL policy as related to RQ1.

The data from this effective policy survey informed the first draft of the EAL policy that was discussed with SLT in the consultation meeting in December. This led to decisions on how to further update the policy, resulting in the 2nd draft, and how to proceed with trialling policy components. SLT decided to start with trialling the thirty EAL strategies for the classroom listed in Appendix A. These strategies were subsequently disseminated to heads of department (HODs) who discussed them in departmental meetings with their teams. HODs were further asked to complete the EAL strategy selection survey where they indicated which strategies had been chosen by their teams for their departmental contexts. This offered teachers the experience of consulting on practical strategies for the classroom which were to be integrated into the policy which links to RQ2. The selection of these also provided an insight into how teachers from different subject areas engaged with the strategies and EAL provision themes linking to RQ3.

Teachers were subsequently encouraged by HODs to trial these strategies in their classrooms. Thereafter, departmental meetings were conducted to allow academic teachers to reflect on their effectiveness and discuss any issues arising from them. At these meetings English language teachers were also in attendance so they could collaborate by lending their professional expertise on how these strategies could be integrated into various classroom scenarios. They further used this time to organise peer observations. This led to five English language teachers completing a total of eight observations lasting 45 minutes each. The data from this was recorded on the observation sheets provided (see Appendix B for an example of science) that measured which strategies the teachers in each department engaged with to help answer RQ3.

During the final INSET day in June the teachers were offered the second iteration of the policy draft to consult upon, see Appendix D. At this workshop they completed the policy consultation survey in which teachers offered their thoughts on whether the latest draft met their criteria as determined from the effective policy survey earlier in the year. The data from this survey was used to further answer RQ1. At the same workshop teachers also completed the policy experience survey. The purpose of this was to investigate what teachers' experiences were with consultation on policy development, collaboration in improving EAL provision with their

peers, training on SLA processes, and trialling of EAL strategies in the classroom. The resulting dataset from this survey was subsequently used to answer RQ2.
Furthermore, teachers who were present at the beginning of the year for the pre-survey were at this time also invited to complete the post-survey. The datasets from both these surveys were used to investigate whether the various activities pertaining to improving EAL provision throughout the year have had a positive impact on teachers' understanding of second language acquisition processes and views towards both first language as a fund of knowledge and planning for the language demands on pupils, which provided further insights into answering RQ2 and RQ3.

Surveys

As indicated above various surveys were used to collect data in this study. Table 2 below, summarises the nature of each survey, their purpose, the sample size, when the data was collected, and which research question they relate to. These surveys were all in the form of questionnaires with either Likert scales or open-ended response options. These were chosen as the main data collection tool in this research study due to their self-administrative nature, which makes them less intrusive and reduces time pressure in comparison to other data collection methods such as interviews (E. de Leeuw, 2012). This was deemed appropriate given the time pressures on teachers throughout the year, and the wide variety of topics investigated in this study. Another advantage of such surveys is the ability to ask complex questions (Lietz, 2010). The questions and statements used in each survey have been collated in Appendix C.

Survey name:	**Nature of survey:**	**Purpose of survey:**	**Sample size:**	**When:**	**RQ:**
Pre/post policy intervention	15 statements on a 7-point Likert scale	Investigate the changes in teachers' understanding of 3 themes: SLA, first language as a fund of knowledge and planning for language in the classroom	Pre 18, Post 15, Final used 15	September and June INSET weeks	RQ2 and RQ3
Effective policy	6 open-ended questions	To determine what teachers' criteria for effective EAL policy are	11	September INSET week	RQ1
EAL strategy selection	30 strategies to choose from, with space for additional strategies and comments	To investigate which EAL provision themes departments engaged with most.	5	February Departmental meetings	RQ3
Teacher experience	12 statements on a 7-point Likert scale	Investigates teachers' experiences with collaboration with peers, consultation on policy development, training on EAL provision received, and trialling of EAL strategies.	15	June INSET week	RQ2
Policy consultation	13 statements on a 3-point Likert scale with space for comments	To find out whether the latest policy draft meets teachers' criteria for effective policy	15	June INSET week	RQ1

Table 2: A summary of the questionnaires conducted in this study.

Ordinarily, such questionnaires when mailed or conducted online have suffered from decreasing, and generally lower, response rates in comparison to face-to-face interviews and telephone interviews (Keeter, 2018; Potthoff & Eller, 2000). To mitigate for this, questionnaires were conducted during workshops where dedicated time was set aside to

complete them. Thus, the researcher could still encourage participation in person, and no personal time was required by the participant. To maintain their self-administrative nature, I ensured that I remained at the front of the room, at least five metres away from participants, while questionnaires were completed.

Seven points were used as the number of response categories for the Likert scales in the pre/post policy intervention and teacher experience surveys. While the greater the number of response categories ensures that the data collected will approach its underlying distribution, long scales such as those advocated by Wu & Leung (2017) of eleven-points, suffer from ambiguity as they cannot offer easily understood qualifiers. The most reliable and valid results have been shown with seven-point scales as these offer the greatest number of options while maintaining clarity on what each response category means (Keeter, 2018). Seven-point scales where thus used with the qualifiers of 'strongly', 'somewhat', and 'undecided' chosen as the most appropriate terms given the nature of the statements that teachers were responding to.

Exploratory research requires open-ended questions that *'allows respondents to express their opinions in their own words'* (Oberemko, 2018, p. 97). To this end, teachers were asked to complete the first half of the effective policy survey to solicit their ideas as to what the purpose of policy is, what makes policy effective and how they feel policy translates into practice. Subsequently, they were offered three example EAL policies from schools in England. These were selected based on their differences in style, levels of practical guidance and whether they offered insights from educational or linguistic literature. The second half of the survey consisted of three open-ended questions asking to detail the strengths and weaknesses of these example policies and what teachers felt may have been lacking. To canvass teachers' opinions and ideas, it was felt that richer data would be obtained if teachers were offered the option to complete the survey in small groups or with a peer. This was to capture and utilise the 'group effect' that occurs in social settings where candour and spontaneity of participants enhances the details they provide (Carey & Smith, 1994; Tracy, 2013). It also ensured that the cognitive load of reading the example EAL policies could be reduced with teachers sharing the reading between them before comparing their findings and making final decisions as to the answers to these questions.

The EAL strategy selection and EAL policy consultation documents were designed for simplicity and to lower cognitive demands on staff (Keeter, 2018; Krosnick, 2018b). The strategy selection document was used by heads of department and their teams where they simply picked which strategies applied to their context of the thirty listed (see Appendix A). The process of outlining the purpose of the activity, discussing each strategy, and deciding which were appropriate for the department was already deemed to be intensive. Thus, designing a survey that is open-ended or required more detailed responses to statements about the strategies was not considered appropriate. Instead, a simple yes/no to each strategy was sought after. Additionally, there was space provided for comments and for departments to list any additional strategies that they use.

Similarly, the policy consultation survey required teachers to read the latest draft of the policy before deciding whether this met the criteria to enable effective implementation. To determine this, teachers answered yes/no/unsure to thirteen statements. These were based on teachers' responses to the policy criteria survey taken at the beginning of the year. If a respondent selected 'no' they were then asked to offer a reason in the comment box. Again, the cognitive load on teachers partaking in this survey was high but in this case this was due to the nature of the workshop in which it was taken. Due to COVID-19 teachers were unexpectedly being

furloughed for the summer term resulting in this INSET day being the last opportunity during which to collect data. This meant that three surveys had to be completed in one session. Thus, the mental capacity to consider their responses to more in-depth questions would likely have resulted in less valid data (Lietz, 2010).

In all questionnaires, the construction of questions must be carefully considered (Dickson, Fowler, & Mangione, 1997). Questions must be understandable, avoid unknown terminology, be singular, and tested before their use (Fowler Jr., 1995; Fowler Jr. & Cosenza, 2008). Questionnaires should also include both forward and reverse statements to ensure participants read them carefully. These principles were adhered to for all the questionnaires used in this study. Piloting of each survey was completed by a member of SLT and by one of my MLT peers whose feedback resulted in adaptations to the questions. With the small number of available teachers in this study, piloting beyond a single teacher was deemed to overly impact the sample size (Campanelli, 2008).

Peer Observations

Lesson observations were chosen as a data collection technique to offer insights into how teachers engage with the EAL strategies advocated in the policy. To draw on teachers' expertise, deepen collaborative efforts and the sharing of knowledge, it was decided that lesson observations of academic classrooms would be conducted by English language teachers. They can thus be considered the researchers for this component of the study as I received data in accordance with their interpretations of what occurred in each classroom (Noblit et al., 2020). While uniformity of measurement and approach to observations are not completely possible with multiple observers, this was mitigated for by holding a meeting that outlined the aims of the observations and the observation sheet to be used. This allowed for the setting of expectations, having observers ask questions, and using their feedback to adjust the observation sheet (Angrosino & Rosenberg, 2011).

To further help English language teachers prepare, they were invited to attend the academic departmental meetings as outlined above to become familiar with the chosen EAL strategies of the departments they were working with, and to organise when these observations would take place and with whom. Teachers had the autonomy to volunteer to be an observer or to be observed, to choose which lessons and hence classes were seen, and decide how feedback on observations would be provided. Liu et al., state that their first principle for excellent EAL provision in a school is to ensure that teachers have the autonomy and flexibility to draw on their professional expertise so that they can make informed professional judgements (Y. Liu et al., 2017). Conducting this component of the study in this manner thus encouraged collaboration between the English and academic departments which was hoped to foster closer ties and result in the sharing of that expertise.

An example observation sheet for science can be found in Appendix B. These sheets consisted of the list of observable EAL strategies with a simple seen/not seen or not applicable tick box and offered room for additional comments. Each observation lasted 45 minutes with two observations completed per department resulting in eight different teachers being observed. The classes that were seen were: maths (core), maths (mechanics), biology, chemistry, politics, economics, and art (twice). These were all taught at A-level standard and each class was taught by a different teacher. There were five English language teachers involved in completing these observations with one assigned to each department except for humanities who had two English language teachers join them. This meant that in maths, science, and art, one English language

teacher conducted two observations whereas in humanities the teachers conducted one each. All observations took place in a three-week period in May, and the filled-out observation sheets were returned to me for analysis.

Limitations

The reliability and validity of responses to questionnaires throughout this study are impacted by the limitations in the samples obtained and how these reflect the teacher population (Lohr, 2008). While the population varied greatly within the school in terms of subjects taught, experience, gender, and other characteristics, these variations were not measured. Due to the small number of teachers in this school, only twenty in total, and the inability to ensure the same teachers partake in all questionnaires, it was felt that the collection of such additional data would not result in meaningful analysis. Thus, one clear limitation is the assumption that the samples used throughout this study reflect the entire teacher population within the school and that variations within it may have resulted in diversification of perspectives. The latter, however, is considered to be a positive by-product given the exploratory nature of this study.

Secondly, the high respondent burden in certain aspects of the study have likely led to respondents using satisficing strategies (Lietz, 2010). The cognitive burden on respondents was particularly high in the last INSET day workshop where they completed the post-intervention, teacher experience, and policy consultation surveys. It is quite likely that teachers would have employed satisficing strategies when completing these, such as agreeing with assertions, asking a neighbour, stating they 'don't know' or using mental coin-flips to make decisions (Krosnick, 2018a). These strategies weaken the reliability and validity of the data. My own observations of teacher interactions during the workshop, how tired they were when completing these surveys, and feedback from heads of department HODs after the INSET day was completed, have further led me to conclude that this is a strong possibility.

Additionally, because one of the schools' aims of this project was to foster collaboration between teachers, this is reflected in much of the methodology such as collecting group data in the effective policy and EAL strategies surveys. While the 'group effect' is considered a positive, there may also be negative side-effects from groups containing dominant personalities or members of leadership such as the HODs (Carey & Smith, 1994). This may skew the data towards certain viewpoints and thus present an error in the data. Based on my observations of teacher interactions in the workshops I feel that while this could have occurred it is likely a minor factor.

In the peer observations, the observer effect may have resulted in pupils behaving slightly differently (Angrosino & Rosenberg, 2011; Richards, 2014). However, given that the focus was on how teachers engage with the EAL strategies rather than how pupils respond to them this is not considered to influence the data. The peer observations are predominantly influenced by the lack of uniformity of the observer resulting in different interpretations of what was seen and hence recorded. While this was mitigated for by holding pre-observation meetings to outline expectations as explained earlier, the full effects of this cannot be eliminated from this study.

Ethics

The key ethical considerations in this project were protecting the anonymity of participants in all aspects of the study, ensuring my position as a member of middle management did not coerce participation or outcomes, and safeguarding participating staff from unnecessary overload and stress.

Ensuring anonymity throughout this study was done in several ways. In the pre/post survey where it must be known that the same respondent has filled out both surveys, it was necessary to have participant codes. These codes were printed on a blank piece of paper that teachers put their names against in the pre-survey. This was then sealed in an A4 envelope by a volunteer and was stored securely in a locked room until needed for the post-survey. Here, teachers opened the envelope themselves to peer at what participant code they had thus allowing me to pair up these surveys without knowing who the respondent was. Participant codes were subsequently shredded in their envelope to reduce any risk of this information leaking. All other surveys were simply filled in anonymously with participants placing completed surveys upside down in a collection box. Furthermore, there was no personal data sought in any of the questions. Thus, these measures should suffice in protecting teachers' anonymity (Richards, 2014).

Holding a leadership position within the school creates ethical challenges when setting up workshops and asking for volunteer participants. It is paramount for both unbiased data collection and upholding ethical values that a non-coercive, understanding and respectful environment is established (Singer, 2008). To reduce any sense of teachers feeling they must participate, the INSET day timetables were organised by members of SLT and allowed for flexibility in attendance. My workshops thus became part of a 'normal' CPD day. Additionally, it was made clear that participation in surveys was optional and that any data that was collected would be anonymous and respected in its use. Certain meetings, such as the EAL strategy selection meeting, were deemed inappropriate for me to attend as I would have held too much influence over the selection process. For the same reason, I also did not attend the departmental meetings where teachers reflected on EAL strategies used and organised the peer observations.

The biggest concern throughout this project, however, was ensuring that excessive demands were not made of teachers participating in this research (BERA, 2018). It is important to acknowledge that it has been an unusual year with additional stresses placed upon teachers, due to the impact of COVID-19 on teacher workloads, before also asking them to partake in surveys and observations. This was tricky to navigate as on the one hand the school clearly wished to move forward with improving EAL provision, and yet on the other, it was evident that teachers suffered from burn-out more often and more quickly. It was thus decided to complete surveys only during INSET days where dedicated time had been set aside, so that teachers would not need to take additional time out of their already busy schedules. The peer observations were arranged to take place during weeks where teachers only taught about half their normal schedule due to mock exams for one cohort. This created additional time for the observations and feedback. In addition, three English language teachers from our city campus were also used to complement the two at our academic campus to help spread the load of observations across staff.

Data Analysis

Methods used for data analysis ranged from coding for emergent themes of the qualitative data to using SPSS and Excel to investigate distributions and frequencies of the quantitative data. Qualitative data from the effective policy survey and lesson observations, along with additional commentary offered by teachers in other surveys, were coded cyclically for emergent themes. This analytical approach is based on grounded theory which allows for the critical examination of these themes before categorisation of the data (Tracy, 2013). Substantive theories may thus emerge that reflect the particular substance of this local dataset (Richards, 2014; Silverman, 2013).To accompany this process memos were written so that each 'pass' through the data could be recorded and reflected upon with the aim of summarising the themes and how they address the research questions.

The quantitative data from the ordinal surveys were analysed either statistically in SPSS or through the means of frequency plots created in Excel. Statistical tests for ordinal data are non-parametric in nature due to the inability to judge what the numerical difference would be between for example 'strongly agree' and 'agree' (Corder & Foreman, 2014). In this study, the pre/post survey was designed to be used with a Wilcoxon signed rank test, sometimes referred to as a matched pairs test, which sets as its null hypothesis that the medians of the two related samples are equal. The conditions for this test are that the data should be paired and come from the same population, that pairs are chosen randomly and independently, and that the measurement scale can be ranked (Sheskin & Raton, 2003). Whereas these conditions are met, there is concern over the final sample size obtained and the underlying distribution of the data as these affect the reliability of the results. While the test doesn't require an underlying Gaussian distribution it does assume that it is symmetrical about the median. Voraprateep demonstrates that the Wilcoxon is not robust against the assumption of symmetry, and that its relative power decreases the more asymmetric the distribution becomes (Voraprateep, 2013). While levels of asymmetry can be measured for large sample sizes, this is not possible for small samples where distributions are much more variable. In this study, the final sample size was fifteen and symmetry of the underlying distributions can only be judged by eye. To do this box and whisker plots were created. These illustrate (see results and discussion below) some asymmetry which will affect the reliability of results. As such, the Wilcoxon is used in conjunction with the box and whisker plots to enable discussion of the trends in the data, rather than robustly claim any statistically significant changes that have occurred due to the policy intervention.

Frequency plots and bar charts were constructed for the Likert scale survey data to investigate trends across themes and visually represent them. In the pre/post survey three themes were tested with five statements for each, whereas in the experience survey there were four themes with 3 statements. Cronbach alpha scores, to establish whether these statements reliably measure the same theme, could not be computed due to the low sample size of 15. Bujang, Omar, & Baharum demonstrate that the minimum sample size required to reliably compute a Cronbach alpha score for five statements is 21 and for three statements it is 24 when the effect size is 0.7 with a power of 90% (Bujang et al., 2018). Even when reducing the power to 80% the minimum for five statements would still be 16 and hence, while this was considered, it could not offer any reliable insights.

Results & Discussion

RQ1: How does the newly developed EAL policy meet teachers' criteria for effective implementation?

To answer this question, teacher criteria were first determined by analysing the data from the policy criteria survey, which contained open ended questions answered by teachers in small groups. The first half of this survey asked for teachers' opinions on what they felt the purpose of policy is, what makes effective policy, and how they felt policy translates into practice. The second half saw teachers critique three example EAL policies from other schools in England. Teacher responses, analysed through coding, demonstrated three emergent themes for the criteria that would ensure effective implementation of an EAL policy. These are that an EAL policy needs to be *clearly communicated*, *applicable to the local context* and *formally implemented*. Figure 2 below, further summarises the data and illustrates how teachers think each of these criteria can be satisfied. Subsequent sections unpack each of these criteria in more detail before ascertaining through analysis of the policy consultation survey whether the newly developed EAL policy meets these for effective implementation.

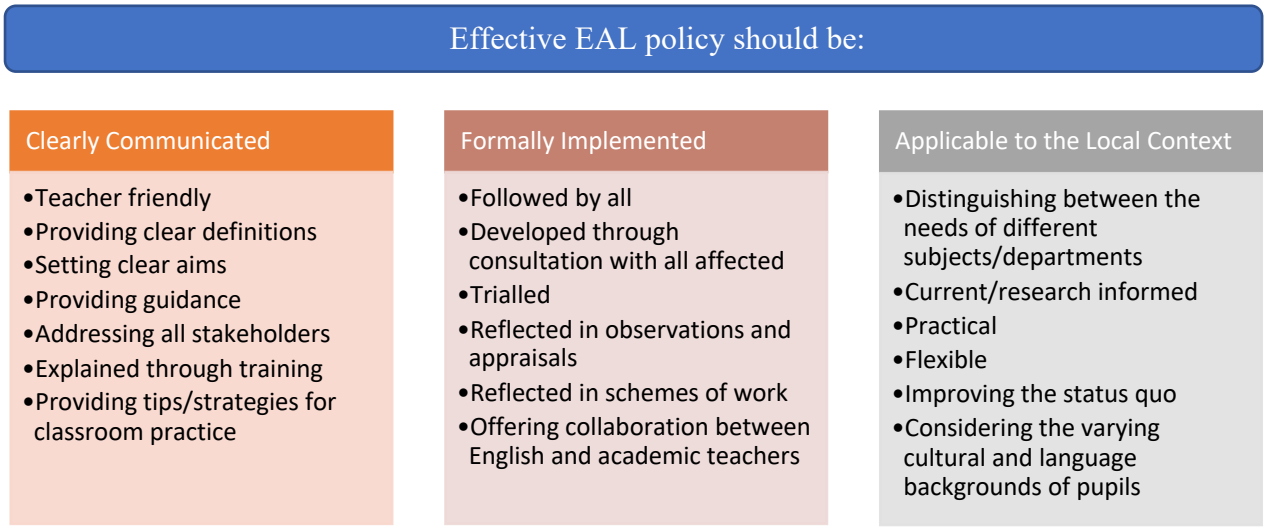


Figure 2: Teacher criteria for effective EAL policy and how to achieve each.

Clear Communication

The data illustrates how a policy must be clearly communicated to result in effective implementation. Teachers indicated, when commenting on what makes effective policy, that the written policy must set out clear aims, objectives, and teacher strategies:

> [Group 4] A policy with clearly stated aims, definitions and strategies.
>
> [Group 5] A clear ethos and guidance as to how to implement; very teacher-friendly.

The teachers in group 5 also offer a definition of a 'teacher-friendly' policy in that it must offer clear guidance on how to implement it. An emphasis on being trained on practical strategies so that policy objectives can be implemented in the classroom was further echoed throughout the data. This was particularly emphasised in terms of being able to trial policy components and being able to discuss and collaborate on practical strategies. This reflects the contextual dimension of professional cultures as it highlights teachers' individual values, knowledge and understanding (Ball et al., 2012).

While critiquing the example EAL policies teachers noted that:

> [Group 1] 'Some [of the example EAL policies] are lengthy or not succinct enough so that you can get lost in terms of what is important. It should be reduced to a few key messages.'
>
> [Group 7] 'Very long. Lose interest. Can't concentrate on important stuff as too much information.'

Thus, teachers demonstrate that they particularly value their time as they wish to be able to swiftly comprehend what the policy is hoping to achieve and which aspects of it are vital for their understanding, professional development, and integration into the classroom. Group 6 echoed this when stating that 'having a few clear objectives' was vital to a policy's effectiveness but also added that 'it must be written for all stakeholders'. Thus, clear communication is ensured by communicating few objectives to all stakeholders, offering them practical guidance for implementation that can be discussed in training sessions, and ensuring that the policy's key messages stand out.

Formal Implementation

Teachers in this study also identified that a policy must be formally implemented by school leadership for it to be effective. They suggested that an EAL policy should be integrated into schemes of work and set as a focus in lesson observations and/or teacher appraisals. For example, one group of teachers noted that for policy to translate into practice it should see:

> [Group 5] 'Staff demonstrating how they are implementing aspects of the school policy during appraisals.'

This has not received much attention in the literature. It is possible that researchers assume this is a moot point with expectations that policies are automatically formally implemented. Teachers further identified that formal implementation includes consultation with all stakeholders and the opportunity to collaborate and trial aspects of the policy:

> [Group 3, on what makes policy effective] 'Inclusion of all stakeholders in development – consultation.'
>
> [Group 1**,** on how policy translates into practice] 'Trialling a policy to discuss its effectiveness by evaluating it. Limit the aspects of the policy that are tried out - not everything at once.'

I would argue that this goes against more common enactments of implementing policy that use 'top-down' leadership strategies such as 'cascading' where policies are provided and expected to be followed without collaboration, training, and trialling. Thrupp (2018) found that a lack of teacher involvement in policy development led to contestations and slow implementation. This adds weight to the idea that consultation and collaboration during policy development are key for successful implementation. It is thus favourable that the data reflects teachers' willingness to collaborate with one another to share their ideas and practice. This is particularly seen when they discuss how policy translates into practice:

> [Group 2] 'There should be a liaison between mainstream and the support [English language] department to realise policy objectives.'
>
> [Group 9] 'Tips and sharing of ideas in subjects.'
>
> [Group 7] 'Teachers sharing ideas.'

In addition, the data suggests that policy development and implementation are iterative processes as teachers asked for '*regular review'* and to be able to provide '*regular feedback'*.

This reflects how the translation and interpretation of policy by teachers through enactment in their microcultures is a '*recoding*' of policy (Ball et al., 2011b; Spillane, Reiser, & Reimer, 2002).

Applicable to the Local Context

Another recurring theme throughout the data was that policy must be applicable to local contexts. While critiquing the example EAL policies teachers illustrated this by stating that:

> [Group 8] 'This can be easily adopted but is too general (doesn't say how). There are useful guidelines but there is no clear reference to other subjects.'
>
> [Group 3] 'May not be relevant to our setting, we may need departmental policies to be able to reflect these aims'
>
> [Group 9] 'There must be a clear reference to academic subjects so there is a way of finding out what other subjects require from English language teachers. The policy should adapt to the demands of other subjects and target those areas. Perhaps it should show specific suggestions for each academic subject.'

This highlights how teachers interpret policy as applied to the micro-contexts of their individual classrooms and the subjects they teach. Ball, Maguire, Braun, & Hoskins (2011) report similar findings, stating that teachers relate to policy differently due to the variations of the pressures they experience of the subjects they teach, how much experience they have as a teacher and what point of their career they are at.

Teachers also explained how such application can be ensured by noting that the policy is current, research informed, flexible and considers the varying cultural and language backgrounds of the schools' pupils. The latter reflects the need for policymakers to consider how a policy will be enacted within the situated context of a school environment which reflects its pupil intake. This was further illustrated in the data when teachers listed the strengths of the example EAL policies:

> [Group 6] It appears research-informed, highlights cultural issues within their school, and provides practical tips for teachers.
>
> [Group 4] 'All the policies take ethnic minority pupils into consideration when it comes to EAL. All have a common denominator to 'support pupils to get fluency in English despite their different backgrounds.''

Thus, for an EAL policy to be applicable to this schools' local context it must ensure that it considers the needs of different subjects, draws on the latest research in education and linguistics, and considers the cultural and linguistic diversity of its pupil population.

Measuring the latest draft of the policy against these criteria

In the workshop at the end of the year, teachers were offered to read and provide feedback on the latest draft of the policy by filling out the policy consultation survey. This consisted of 13 statements that reflect the effective policy criteria determined above and asked teachers to respond by answering yes, no, or unsure. There was also additional room for comments if teachers felt the policy missed the mark in some way. The statements provided and resulting answers are summarised in Figure 3 below.

These statements were grouped into the three criteria for effective EAL policy implementation as determined earlier. This resulted in six statements addressing whether teachers feel the policy is clearly communicated, five statements looking at whether they feel it is applicable to

their local context and two statements that obtain their perspectives on whether it has formally been implemented. The latter could not be tested further as formal implementation of the policy into schemes of work, appraisals and lesson observations had not yet commenced. This is due to the impact COVID-19 had on school processes such as scrapping formal lesson observations and delaying making any changes to schemes of work till the next academic year. Hence, fewer statements were offered to teachers to reflect on this category. The grouped data according to each criterion are summarised in Figure 4 below.

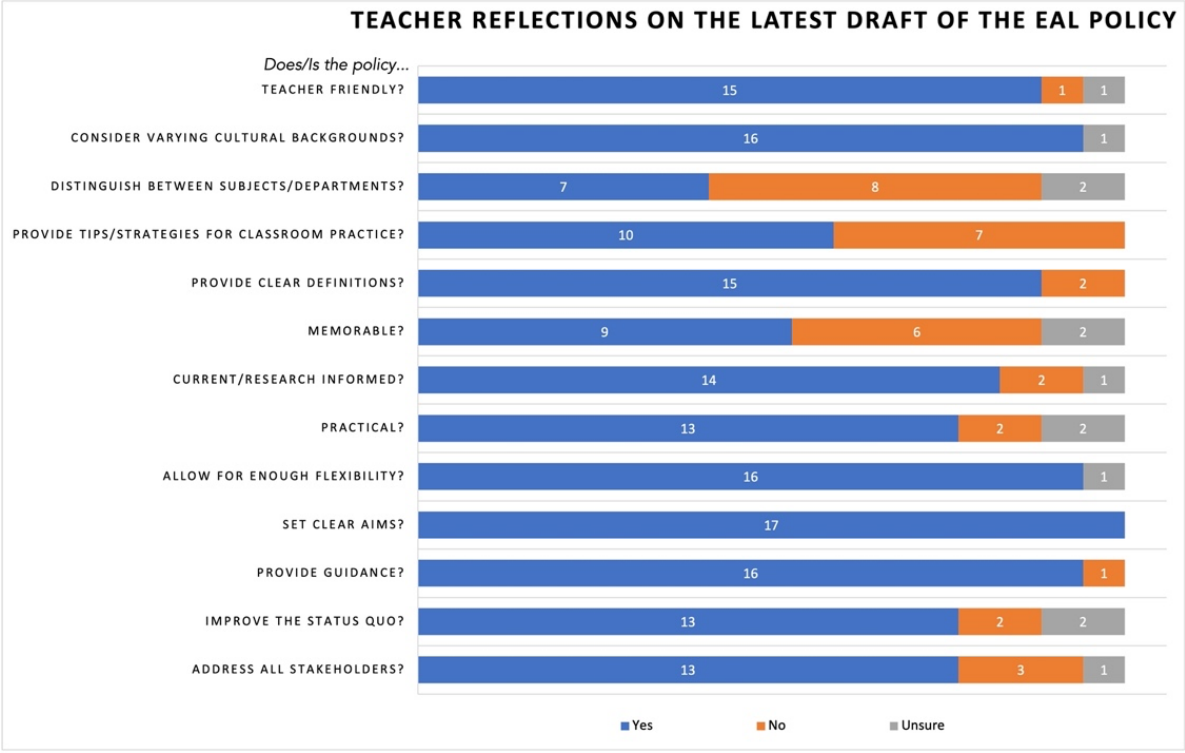


Figure 3: Teacher reflections on the latest draft of the policy text highlight providing department-specific strategies and memorability as areas for improvement.

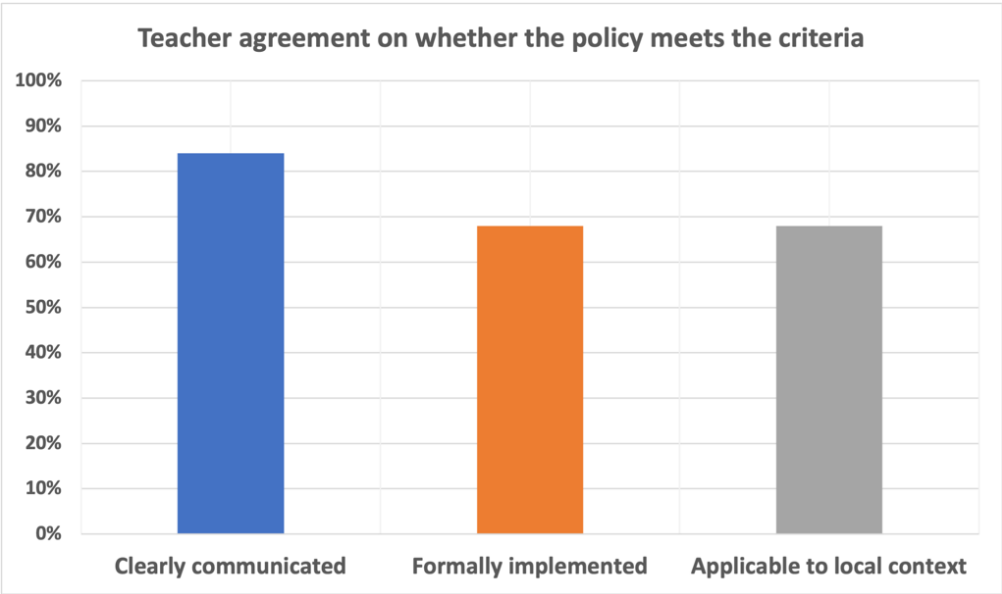


Figure 4: Across the three criteria to enable effective implementation teachers illustrate that they feel the latest draft of the policy mostly meets them.

Both Figures 3 and 4 demonstrate that teachers feel these criteria have been met, with Figure 4 illustrating that there is at least 68% agreement across all three criteria. Figure 3 offers more detail in terms of which areas within the policy could be improved upon, highlighting that the distinction between subjects, classroom strategies, and memorability should be addressed. This illustrates that about half of the teachers did not feel that the policy distinguished between subjects or that it offered tips and strategies for classroom practice. This is likely due to the way the policy texts, which teachers were consulting while answering this survey, were printed. These, inadvertently, showed an administrative error that resulted in the links to the departmental strategies appearing in a light blue tone that was barely visible. While teachers were informed of this error during the workshop, this was likely misunderstood or overlooked, leading to these teachers concluding that no subject distinction nor strategies were offered in the policy text. Hence, this is likely an anomalous result.

Six teachers felt that the policy wasn't very memorable which is a critique of how clearly it is communicated. They further offered insights how develop the policy in terms of its memorability by commenting that:

> [Participant 3] '[The policy] Needs a few 'buzz' points'
>
> [Participant 9] 'There's a lot of information here that I'm not sure I'd be able to remember.'
>
> [Participant 14] 'It's not really memorable as the academic language used is not conducive to this.'

Making policy texts memorable to help ensure its effectiveness has received no due attention in the policymaking literature. While this data offers some insights into how this can be done by suggesting that a few key points that sum up the policy are required, by writing policy texts more colloquially, and by reducing the amount of information provided, further research into the effects of memorability on policy effectiveness are needed.

Additional feedback for improving the policy indicate that teaching staff feel that more time is required for CPD and planning for EAL, and that this time should be dedicated and integrated into the timetable. One teacher noted that:

> [Participant 12] [Success of the policy] 'depends on whether time is provided for teachers to achieve this. If everyone is working at full capacity, I can't imagine this being as successful as it should be.'

This reflects opportunities offered by SLT for formal implementation of the policy. Foley, Sangster, & Anderson, (2013) discovered that factors which inhibit mainstream teachers providing for EAL include a lack of time to plan, not enough regular contact with EAL specialists, and low teacher confidence in working with EAL pupils. While a lack of time and inadequate specialist support are both strongly reflected when considering all the data presented in this study, low teacher confidence is not. When analysing the experience survey data to answer RQ2, see below, teachers indicated that they felt they have received sufficient training to provide for EAL pupils in the classroom demonstrating that they feel confident in their provision.

RQ2: What are teachers' experiences of the policy intervention?

The data from the policy experience survey conducted at the end-of-year workshop and from the pre/post survey have been drawn upon to answer this question. The experience survey investigated teachers' experiences with developing the policy and engaging with the EAL strategies. These were chosen as they link to the criteria for effective implementation in terms of *communication* through consultation on policy development and training on EAL provision, *formal implementation* by asking departments to trial EAL strategies in the classroom and using collaboration to explore how to *adapt* strategies *to the local context*. For all four categories – consultation, collaboration, training, and trialling – teachers were asked to respond to two forward statements and one reverse statement. Teachers were offered the option to choose 'Not Applicable' in addition to the 7-point Likert scale to distinguish from when a teacher had not had a certain experience, for example due to not attending a workshop or meeting, in contrast to when they were truly undecided about a statement. In addition, the pre/post survey data pertaining to teachers changes in understanding of SLA and language as a fund of knowledge has been used to further unpack teachers' experiences with training on EAL provision in the classroom.

Teachers' experiences with consultation

Teacher's responses to their experiences of being consulted, shown in Figure 5 below, indicate that most teachers feel their opinion was considered, wanted, and valued.

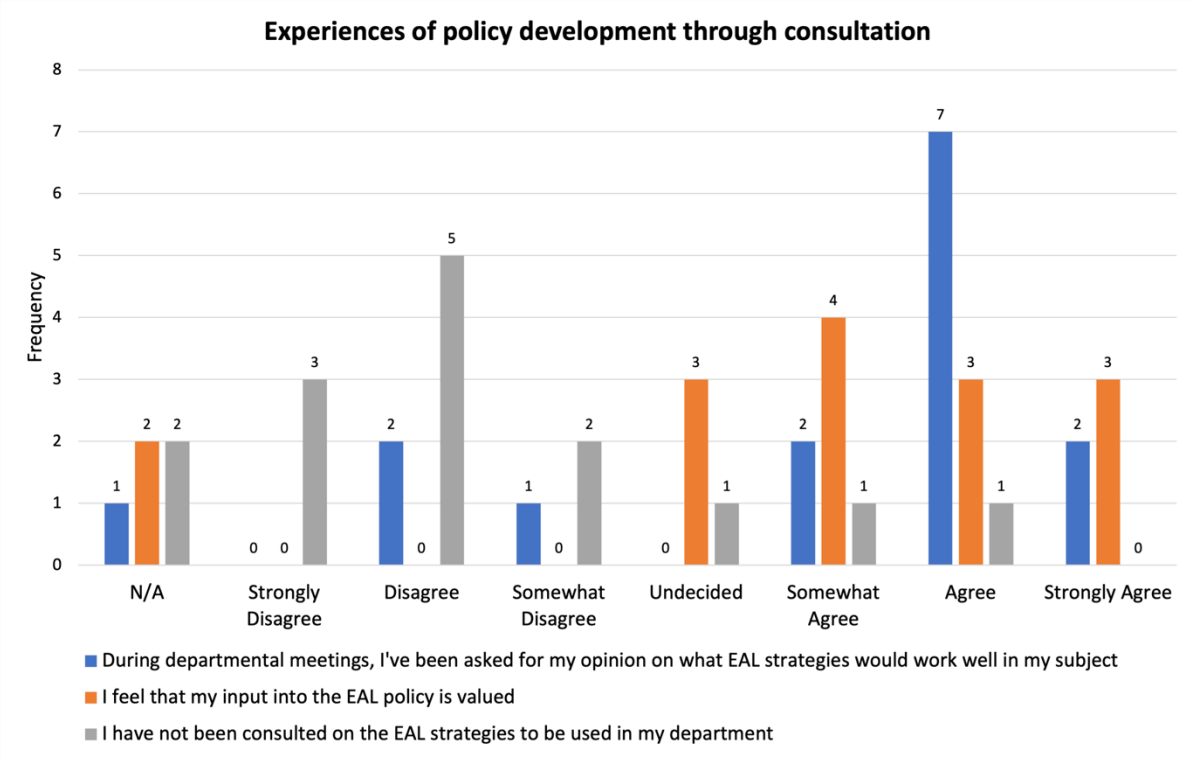


Figure 5: Teachers experiences with consultation to develop the EAL policy seem positive overall.

While most teachers indicated that they were able to offer their opinion during departmental meetings to decide which strategies would be appropriate for their subjects, three teachers did not feel consulted. It appears that their opinion may not have been asked for or perhaps they felt ignored. This may reflect the individuality of each head of department in their approach to obtain feedback on the EAL strategies from their staff. It is possible that some staff were

overlooked, that they missed emails that asked for their opinion, or that heads of department did not ask for subject specific opinions. Alternatively, heads of department in their leadership may have chosen a majority vote on strategies thus overruling a single teachers' choices.

These same findings are also reflected in the reverse statement with the same three teachers not feeling consulted. In a study of school leadership and their role in enacting a new policy for English language learners, Mavrogordato & White (2020), warn against not factoring in all teachers' opinions on how to provide for EAL pupils indicating it would negatively affect policy outcomes. They further demonstrate how consulting all teachers can take more time but that this investment in their context was valuable. Hence, to increase the likelihood of success when implementing the policy further exploration as to why some teachers' opinions were not considered is warranted.

Teachers' experiences with the workshops, which specifically asked for their input and feedback to develop the EAL policy were particularly valued, although three teachers felt undecided. The strategies employed in this project of actively involving teachers in workshops from the beginning of the policy development process and communicating with them through its various iterations and enactments can thus be considered successful. This further adds weight to claims by Gideonse (1970), who advocates for such processes to avoid skepticism and distrust by the actors of new policies.

The analysis from RQ1 indicated that clear communication is vital for a policy's success and that this includes consultation with stakeholders in the development process. The data here further adds that teachers feel this has been successfully executed in this research project and that thus investing the time into such approaches is valuable.

Teachers' experiences with collaboration

Promoting a collaborative culture within schools has been shown to have a positive impact on teachers' learning and development (Childs, Burn, & McNicholl, 2013). Figure 6 below shows that teachers have appreciated collaborating with their peers to improve EAL provision within the school. Collaboration, in this instance, specifically refers to the sharing of pedagogical language and content knowledge between an academic subject and English language teacher. Such collaborative efforts were formally encouraged during the INSET week workshops where teachers were grouped by mixing subject specialisms and ensuring there was one English language teacher per group. It subsequently was fostered during academic departmental meetings and peer observations where English language teachers worked closely with academic teachers to share their expertise.

The data illustrates that only one teacher did not value the collaborative experience as seen in the 'somewhat disagree' response to being asked if they'd like to work more closely with their peers. This same teacher further agreed to the reverse statement that 'collaborative efforts are a waste of time'. Childs, Burn, & McNicholl (2013) may help explain this teachers' perspective, as their research indicates that teachers of varying subject specialisms may value collaboration in differing amounts. They suggest that teachers of history are more individualistic in their approaches and collaborate less frequently, whereas those of science tend to be more collaborative. Thus, one possible explanation is that the subject specialism of this particular teacher has influenced whether collaborative efforts were valued.

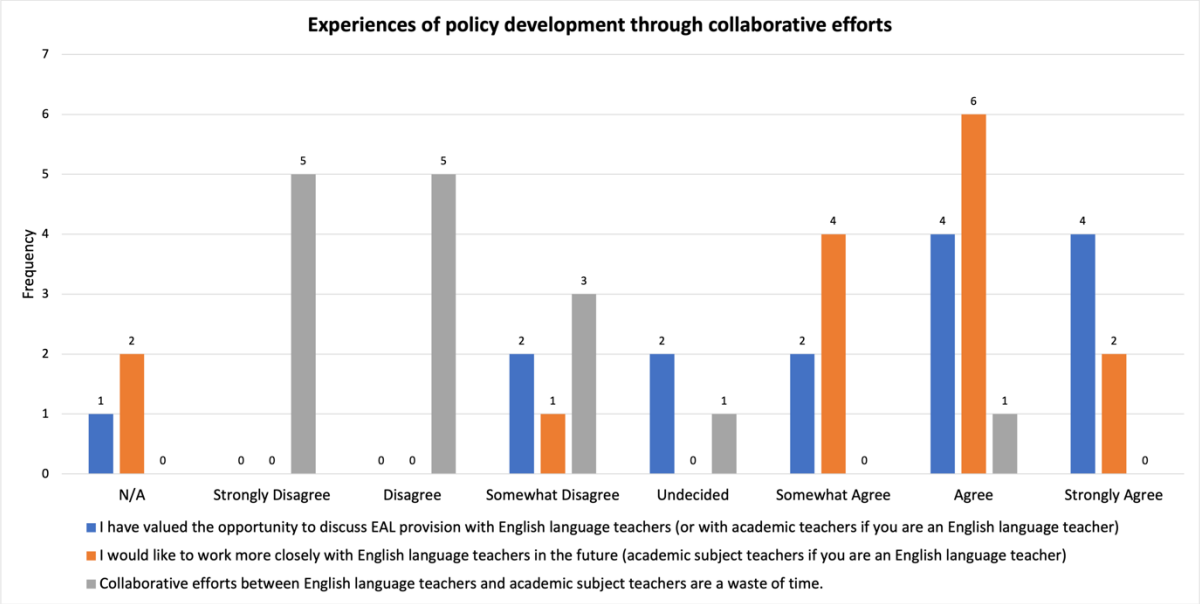


Figure 6: Are collaborative experiences valuable to teachers?

While this data shows strong agreement that collaborative experiences are valuable, it should be noted that nine out of fifteen participants volunteered for peer observations. It is quite likely that such teachers may already hold a stronger belief that collaboration is valuable to their teaching practice and that these outcomes would have arisen regardless of the EAL focus.

This data further links to positive experiences reported in the peer observations, where English language teachers indicate that peer observations were interesting and valuable, and academic teachers were grateful for the feedback received. One English language teacher while reporting back on their experience of partaking in the peer observations wrote that:

> [English language teacher 3] 'It was a really interesting experience! I look forward to further liaising with Maths – They are great teachers and lovely to work with.'

The key takeaway from this data then, is that generally the teachers in this school appreciate and enjoy collaborative experiences, and hence fostering more of these is deemed both valuable and desirable.

Teachers' experiences with training

To explore teachers' experiences with training on EAL provision the data from the experience survey and the relevant data from the pre/post survey were analysed. To understand the data pertaining to training in its context, it is worth recalling that teachers engaged with various training experiences throughout the year. These included three workshops on second language acquisition processes and two departmental meetings to discuss EAL provision in the classroom. Thus, teachers' experiences with training encompass these events.

The data pertaining to training from the experience survey is summarised in Figure 7 below. This illustrates teachers agreeing that they've received sufficient training to provide for EAL pupils, which suggests that the teachers in this sample are confident in their EAL provision.

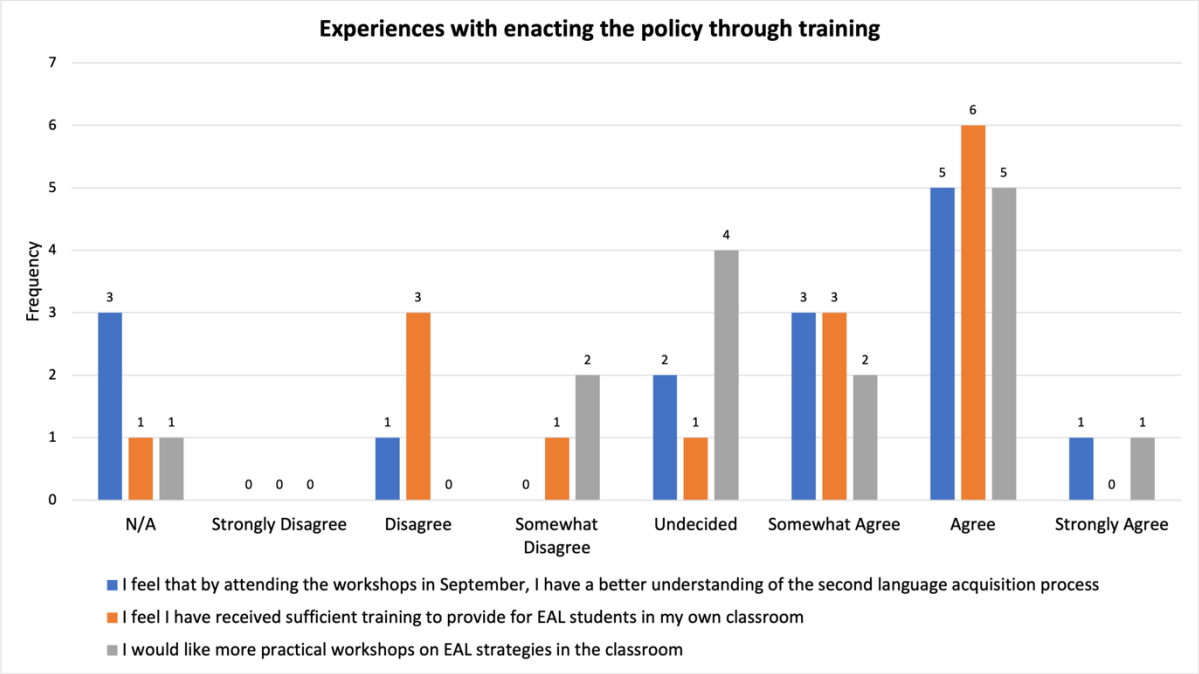


Figure 7: Teachers' experiences with training they've received to be able to meet the policy objectives.

Contrastingly, the data is also skewed heavily towards teachers agreeing that they would like additional practical workshops on EAL strategies for the classroom. These results could be due to teachers feeling that that they can always expand on their teaching repertoires, that they still aren't doing enough to provide for EAL, or that the impact on pupils' academic English is still too small. One teacher commented in the policy reflection survey when asked whether the policy improves the status quo that:

> [Participant 7] 'It will depend on implementation of the policy. There are still students not improving in their English.'

Based on these results it is recommended that the school continues including EAL provision in its continued professional development (CPD) programme. In terms of pedagogical language knowledge (PLK), Figure 7 further demonstrates that most of the teachers in this sample feel that their understanding of SLA has improved as a direct result of the workshops in September.

To investigate whether there has indeed been a change in teachers' PLK, the responses to statements from the pre- and post-intervention surveys were analysed. This was done by using a Wilcoxon matched pairs test and box and whisker plots. The sections of these surveys pertinent to exploring teachers' understanding of PLK included determining changes in teachers' attitudes towards first language as a fund of knowledge and changes in their understanding of second language acquisition processes.

In terms of viewing first language as a fund of knowledge, the Wilcoxon test does not indicate any significant changes in attitudes for statements 1,3,4, or 5 as shown in Table 3 below. The reverse statement (number 2), which measured the change in teacher attitudes towards the use of native languages in the classroom, does indicate a significant change. The data illustrates that teachers view the use of home language much more favourably through their disagreement with this statement. The box and whisker plots further confirm this, see Figure 8, as they demonstrate a large change in the pre/post distributions for statement 2 from a wide 'agreeing'

distribution to a much smaller 'disagreeing' distribution. This smaller distribution of the post survey data also indicates greater uniformity in views by the teachers in this sample.

Statement teachers responded to:		Null hypothesis:	Significance, set to <0.05 for rejection	Changes in responses:
1	Teachers should draw on pupils' first language when appropriate to accelerate the development of English and academic knowledge	Retain	.088	8 pos. diff., 3 neg. diff, 3 ties
2	English as an additional language pupils should avoid using their native language in class at all times as they acquire English	Reject	.003	0 pos. diff., 11 neg. diff, 3 ties
3	Students should have the possibility to choose the language that is most useful to them when completing classroom tasks	Retain	.787	6 pos. diff, 5 neg diff, 3 ties
4	Everyday reasoning in students' home languages is an important step towards meaning-making in English.	Retain	.128	3 pos. diff, 9 neg. diff, 2 ties
5	Multilingual pupils have two or more languages to use as resources when learning.	Retain	.166	7 pos. diff., 3 neg. diff, 4 ties

Table 3: Wilcoxon matched pairs ranked test results investigating teachers' attitudes and understanding of first language as a fund of knowledge.

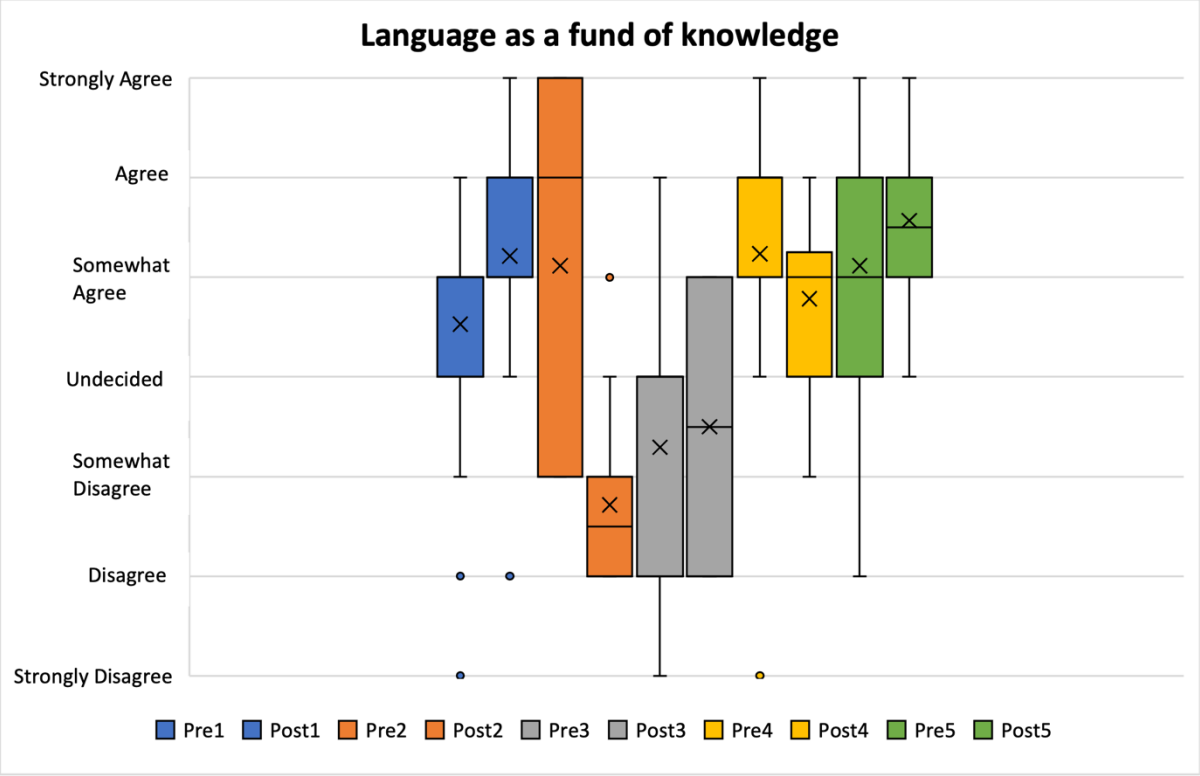


Figure 8: Distribution of responses to statements to determine teachers' attitudes and understanding towards a pupils' first language as a fund of knowledge. Please note that statement 2 is a reverse statement.

The box and whisker plots for the forward statements 1, 4 and 5 indicate a positive attitude towards language as a fund of knowledge. Statement 3, however, illustrates teachers predominantly disagreeing with the idea that pupils should be able to choose the language most useful to them when completing classroom tasks.

By drawing on the work of Liu, Fisher, Forbes, & Evans (2017), who investigated teachers' knowledge base in linguistically diverse contexts, we can attempt to explain these findings. In their study, academic teachers agreed that pupils' home languages should be valued for academic and social purposes they also indicated that engagement with their subject in English is crucial to the development of academic English (Y. Liu et al., 2017). The teachers in this study likely hold similar views, perhaps feeling that pupil autonomy over the choice of language used does not extend them enough in developing their academic English repertoires. Thus, a fine balance must be struck between pupils' autonomy in using their home language in the classroom and teachers' lesson objectives that include the development of academic English. This could be achieved through negotiation between pupil and teacher, and having teachers clearly communicate the language element of their lesson objectives (Ünsal, Jakobson, Molander, & Wickman, 2018).

While teachers' self-assessment from the experience survey indicates that they feel they have a better understanding of SLA processes, see Figure 7 above, the data from the pre/post survey testing teachers' knowledge before and after the policy intervention as summarised in Table 4 below does not demonstrate any significant improvement.

Statement teachers responded to:		**Null hypothesis:**	**Significance, set to <0.05 for rejection**	**Changes in responses:**
6	Students with high oral proficiency in English also have high written proficiency.	Retain	.178	8 pos. diff., 3 neg. diff, 3 ties
7	All teachers must have an understanding of the second language acquisition process.	Retain	.351	7 pos. diff., 5 neg. diff, 2 ties
8	The acquisition of English and learning of English are the same process.	Retain	.809	4 pos. diff., 5 neg. diff, 5 ties
9	All teachers should ensure that they provide comprehensible linguistic input to pupils during lessons.	Retain	.832	5 pos. diff, 5 neg diff, 4 ties
10	English language learners will benefit from a one-size-fits-all model of instruction in English.	Retain	.059	0 pos. diff, 4 neg diff, 10 ties

Table 4: Wilcoxon test results pertaining to teachers' understanding of SLA processes.

When further interpreting this data using the box and whisker plots, see Figure 9 below, it can be concluded that all teachers understand that they should consider what linguistic input they expose students to. This is illustrated by the strongly agreeing distributions for statement 9. Similarly, there is also a good understanding that students with high oral proficiency do not automatically have high written proficiency. This can be seen through the slightly increased disagreement with reverse statement 6 when comparing pre and post. Similarly, statements 8 and 10 are reverse statements where teachers' disagreement indicates that they agree with the EAL provision literature. Overall, when looking at these distributions it can be concluded that there is a small improvement in teachers' pedagogical language knowledge which is in line with teachers' own self-assessment.

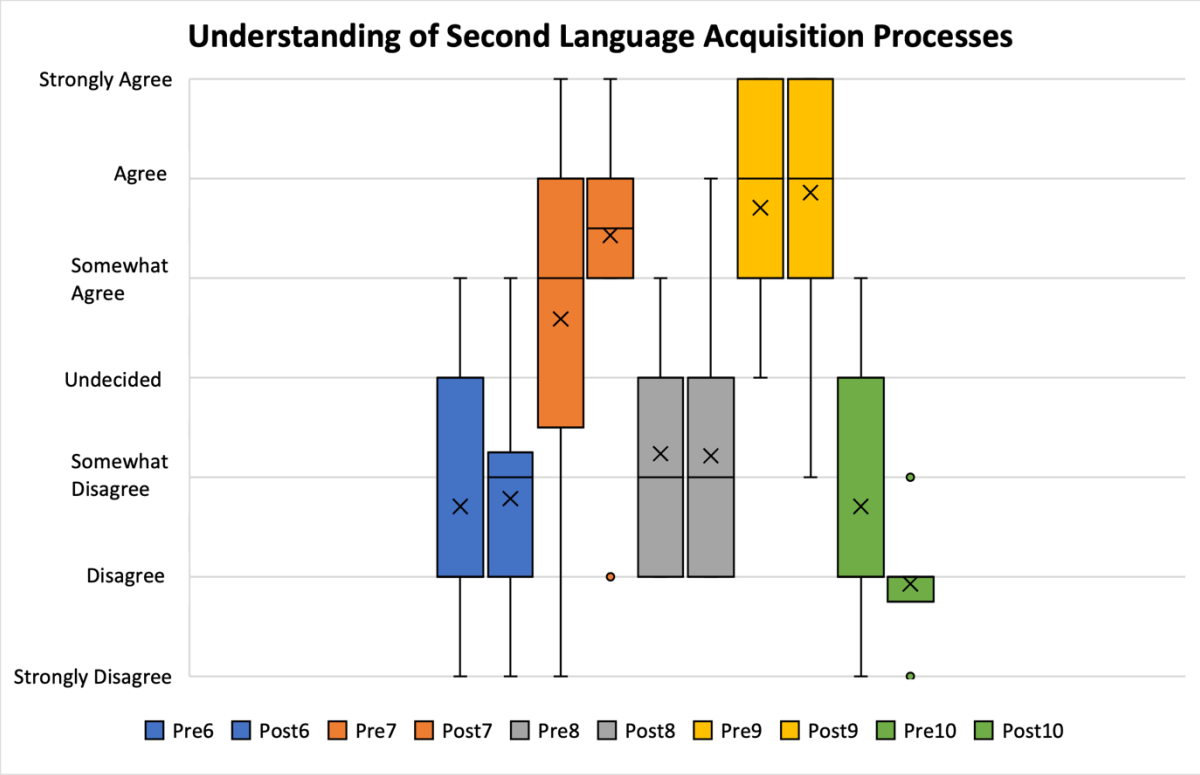


Figure 9: Teachers' changes in understanding of SLA processes. Please note that statements 6, 8 and 10 are reverse statements and hence disagreement is sought to indicate positive outcomes.

In summary, teachers' experiences with training have led to a marginal improvement in teachers' understanding of SLA processes and sees more favourable attitudes towards first language as a fund of knowledge. Furthermore, while teachers feel confident in their provision for EAL pupils, indicating they have received enough training to do so, they would still like more practical workshops in the future.

Teachers' experiences with trialling EAL strategies

In this study, the senior leadership team (SLT) chose to trial the thirty EAL strategies listed in Appendix A across the school. This was done by engaging teachers in the selection process of strategies from this list for their departments, asking HODs to encourage their use, and conducting peer observations with an EAL strategy focus. To reflect on teachers' experiences with trialling these strategies the relevant statements from the experience survey were analysed in Figure 10 below.

This demonstrates that while engagement with the EAL strategies in the classroom was clearly encouraged, actively trying out new EAL strategies was undertaken by only half the teachers in this sample. This is likely due to the impact of COVID-19 on teachers during the second half of the academic year. During this time teachers experienced both a lockdown and higher levels of stress due to having to collate evidence for the teacher assessed grades as exams were cancelled. As an international school, teachers further had to cope with teaching both live and online simultaneously as many pupils had returned overseas, which presents its own challenges in terms of teaching and learning. Thus, for a period of about four to five months, teachers likely felt overloaded and unable to give much thought or time to integrating new EAL strategies into their lessons.

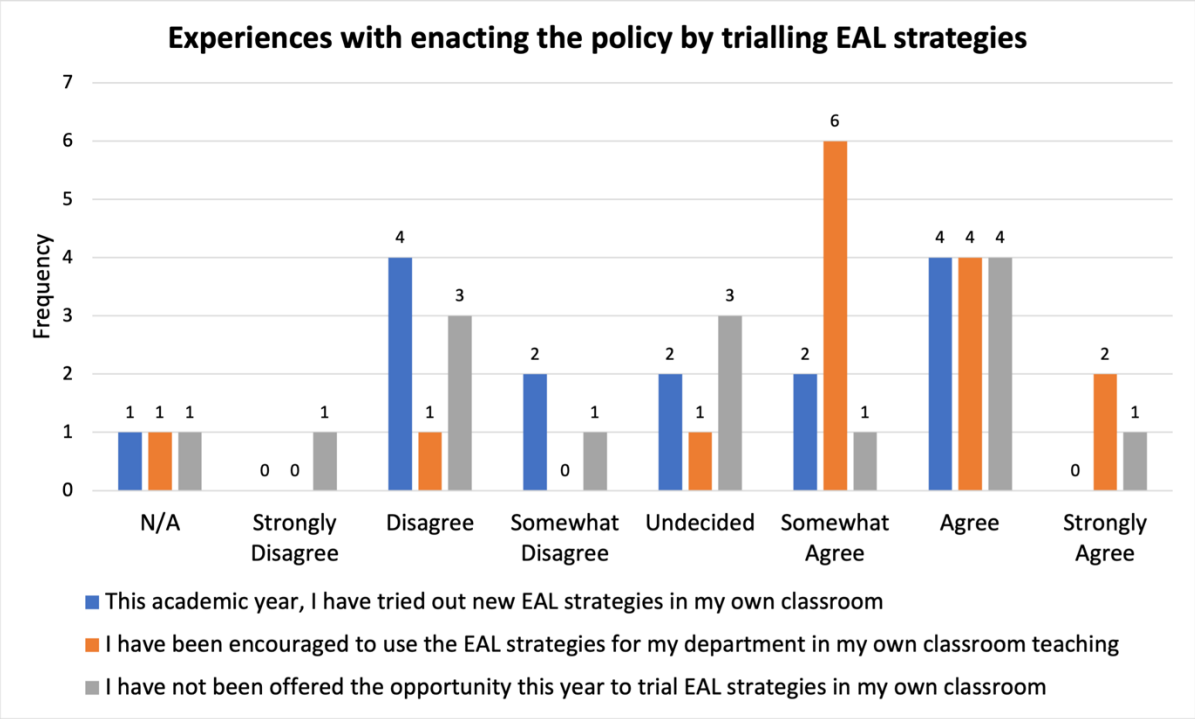


Figure 10: Teachers engagement with trialling EAL strategies in the classroom.

When considering if teachers felt they were offered the opportunity to trial EAL strategies, six teachers stated that they had not received such an opportunity. It is assumed that the reverse statement measuring this, highlighted in grey in Figure 10, is interpreted by teachers as trialling through peer or formal lesson observations. As such, this result likely reflects that each department only volunteered two teachers for the peer observations used in this study, and that SLT decided that no formal observations of teachers should took place during this academic year.

Thus, teachers' experiences with trialling the EAL strategies indicate that SLT and HODs should continue to encourage every teacher to trial these in their classrooms. This can further be supported by integrating the EAL strategies into formal aspects of teaching, such as schemes of work (SOWs), formal lesson observations and appraisals. Since senior school leaders are '*local arbiters of educational opportunity by shaping how policies are carried out'*, it should be noted that success of such formal integration will depend on whether adequate resources, particularly time for such endeavours, are dedicated (Mavrogordato & White, 2020, p.5).

RQ3: How have teachers engaged with the strategies for EAL provision advocated in the policy?

The above data offers insights into how teachers consider they've engaged with the EAL strategies advocated in the policy, illustrating that about half of the teachers partaking in this study have not yet trialled these. To further investigate teacher engagement with the strategies, it is vital to first determine whether teachers hold positive attitudes towards planning for both language input and output. The educational literature is full of examples that demonstrate how teacher attitudes and beliefs shape their pedagogy, and hence their actions or inactions in the classroom (Borg, 2003; Johnson, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Tan, 2011). Hence, how teachers choose to engage with the EAL strategies presented in the newly developed policy will particularly depend on their views towards language planning. This will be examined by looking at the Wilcoxon results of the pre/post survey pertaining to planning for language along with its corresponding box and whisker plots. Subsequently, the EAL strategies chosen by each department are reflected upon and the data from the peer observations discussed as these offer deeper insights into how these EAL strategies were engaged with in practice.

Changes in teacher attitudes towards language planning

The results from the Wilcoxon matched pairs test, summarised in Table 5 below, measured the changes in responses to various statements about planning for language. The data shows that the null hypothesis, which compares the medians of teacher attitudes and beliefs regarding these statements before the policy intervention and after, is rejected in four out of five cases. This suggests that there are changes in teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards language planning between the beginning and end of the academic year. The direction of these changes, however, indicate less favourable views towards language planning after the policy intervention than those held at the beginning of the year.

Statement teachers responded to:		Null hypothesis	Significance set to <0.05 for rejection	Changes in responses:
11	All teachers must plan for the language demands of content area texts and tasks.	Reject	.034	1 pos. diff, 7 neg diff, 6 ties
12	Language learning objectives should be made explicit in every classroom.	Reject	.035	4 pos. diff, 9 neg diff, 1 tie
13	Good teaching for fluent English speakers is good teaching for all pupils.	Reject	.048	6 pos. diff, 2 neg diff, 6 ties
14	All subject teaching should be characterised by a commitment to the dual curriculum goals of content learning and language learning.	Retain	.672	6 pos. diff, 3 neg diff, 5 ties
15	Teachers should try to plan lessons that develop students' understanding of a topic alongside their language and literacy skills.	Reject	.010	0 pos. diff, 8 neg diff, 6 ties

Table 5: Wilcoxon test results investigating changes in teacher attitudes towards language planning. Please note that statement 13 is a reverse statement.

To further unpack these results, the changes in the distributions in the box and whisker plots, in Figure 11 below, for these statements were examined. While the Wilcoxon demonstrates rejections of the null hypothesis, except for statement 14, the box and whisker plots indicate that teachers' overall attitudes towards planning for language in the classroom has remained positive.

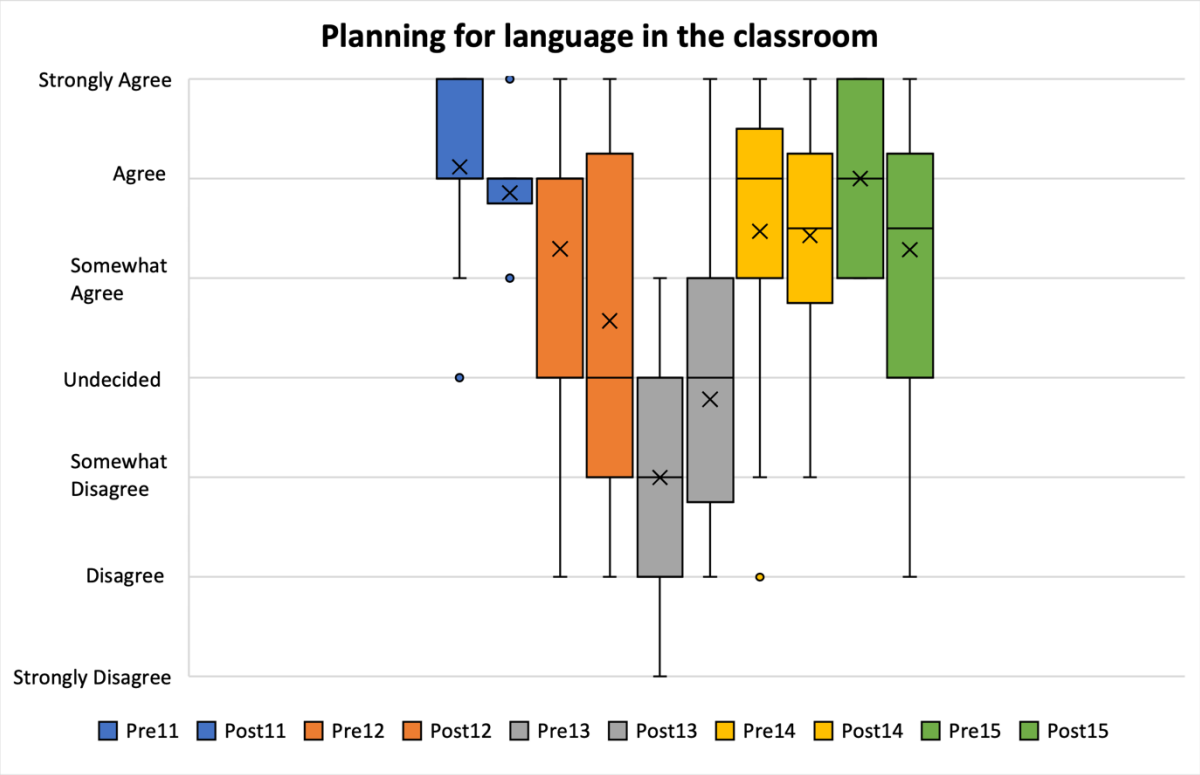


Figure 11: Changes in teacher attitudes towards language planning. Statement 13 is a reverse statement.

One possible explanation for the decreasing trend, in terms of how favourable teachers feel towards language planning, could be the changes in teachers' stress levels throughout the year. If it is assumed that teachers were well rested at the beginning of the year, and perhaps even keen to engage with new initiatives, then their pre-survey responses could be quite favourable. In comparison, when the post-survey was completed, teachers had just finished all the work required for the teacher assessed grades and many indicated that they were at the 'end of their tether'. Kinnunen in a longitudinal study of 153 teachers conducted across a 'normal' academic year, one without the additional stresses from COVID, found that most teachers suffer from higher levels of stress at the end of each term (Kinnunen, 1988). While no data was collected in this study to confirm teacher stress levels, it is postulated that the changes in the working environment due to COVID and the resulting additional responsibility of teacher assessed grades have had a profound impact on teachers' stress levels. Given that responses to surveys are dependent on participants' moods and constitute a source of response effects (Heide & Gronhaug, 1991), the results from this study are likely influenced by these stress levels. Thus, these results may indicate that teachers don't feel as enthusiastic about additional changes in their teaching practices such as planning for language. However, as their views have remained favourable this should not be an area of concern for senior leadership in this school.

Refining the EAL strategies to suit each department

In early February the Heads of Department were sent thirty EAL strategies centred around the EAL provision themes of first language as a fund of knowledge, planning for language input, promoting reading and planning for language output (see Appendix A). They were asked to spent time with their teams in departmental meetings to discuss which of these strategies they felt were pertinent to their departments and subjects, and they were encouraged to add any of their own strategies and allowed to amend strategies to better suit their needs.

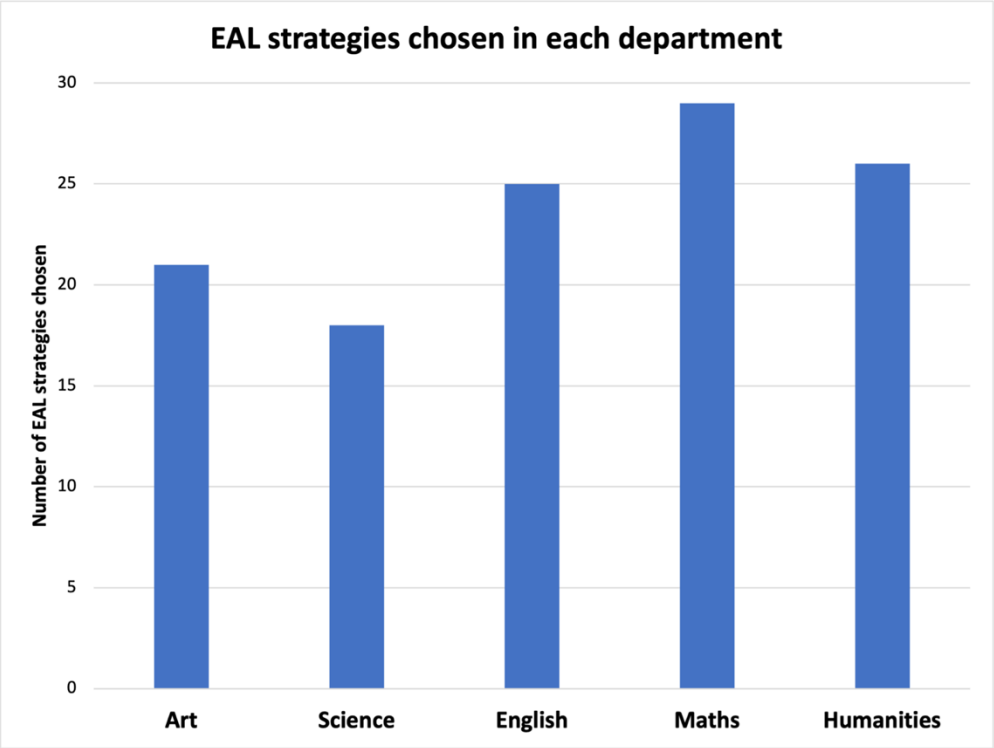


Figure 12: Percentage number of EAL strategies departments considered applicable to their local contexts.

Each department reflected upon these strategies and HODs collated the input from their teachers to make final decisions on strategies pertinent to each department. This resulted in all departments selecting at least eighteen of the strategies offered as can be seen in Figure 12 above. The figure for mathematics is particularly high as they were the only department who offered six additional strategies as can be seen in Table 6 below, which have been categorised using the four EAL provision themes.

Additional strategies used in Mathematics:	**EAL provision theme:**
Working in pairs and groups usually works well for the students who are anxious to speak English in front of the whole class. Giving the students a bit of time to prepare, discuss with peers and plan their answer carefully, always helps and boosts students' confidence.	Language output
Subject vocab list prepared and used in the lessons by the students in their own language might be a good way of helping them to learn new vocabulary.	Language as a fund of knowledge
The students need to have a clear idea about the SoW and topics covered. They can do some pre-preparation for the lessons e.g., read the chapters before lessons, use a dictionary, and translate the unknown words.	Language as a fund of knowledge
Clear list of the new vocabulary written by the teacher on the board at the beginning of the lessons, explained during the lesson and revised at the end.	Language input
Check that pupils are using correct Math vocabulary (e.g., 'translation' instead of 'moving').	Language output
Explanation and simplification of question by a teacher if needed.	Language input

Table 6: Mathematics teachers offered six additional strategies for EAL provision that fit with the categories determined from the literature review.

While other departments did not add strategies, humanities offered additional insights into how they engaged with them. They were predominantly concerned about the implications of the literature surrounding 'language as a fund of knowledge', and felt it necessary to clarify their position when it came to choosing strategies from this category:

> [Humanities department] 'It is not accepted that the insistence on use of the English language diminishes students' identity and culture. By attending [name of our school] with the intention of progressing to UK universities the students have made a commitment and a judgement that this is more suitable for them.'

They thus hold that the negative impacts of subtractive bilingualism do not occur by stating that it is the choice of the pupil to come to study in the UK. However, in most instances, this is not the case as it is the choice of the parents to send pupils to learn in an English environment. Thus, there is a risk that if teachers do not treat language as a fund of knowledge by adopting EAL strategies which address this that pupils in this school may suffer from negative impacts on their attainment, self-esteem, sense of identity, and their home languages (Corson, 1992; Cummins, 2000; Kenner, 2000; Wei, 2018).

Table 7 below offers further insights into how the chosen strategies in each department are distributed across the four EAL themes. Analysing the data in this manner does not show any 'universal' trends across departments. For example, planning for language output was readily accepted by the art, humanities, English, and mathematics departments but not in science. Similarly, strategies that reflect planning for language input were popular in all departments except art. The lower number of choices made by humanities for language as a fund of knowledge likely reflect their previous misgivings which may also be echoed in science given the same low number. To address this lack of engagement with strategies that treat pupils' first language as a fund of knowledge, recommendations for future CPD would be to further emphasise the positive impacts on attainment of fostering plurilingualism (de Zarobe & de Zarobe, 2015; Demie, 2018; Strand & Hessel, 2018).

Category:	**Art**	**English**	**Humanities**	**Mathematics**	**Science**
Promoting reading	4/5	4/5	5/5	2/5	4/5
Language as a fund of knowledge	5/7	5/7	3/7	7/9	3/7
Planning for language input	4/10	8/10	10/10	12/12	7/10
Planning for language output	8/8	8/8	8/8	8/10	4/8

Table 7: A summary of the number of strategies chosen from the available total by each department for each category. Mathematics includes the six strategies they added.

Teachers' attitudes towards language planning, their choices of strategies, and whether they view language as a fund of knowledge, provide an understanding of how a teacher may approach integrating EAL provision into their classrooms. The variation in the data thus indicates that the local context and microcultures of each classroom, teacher experiences and personal perspectives, and the demands of each subject, play a role in how a teacher will engage with these strategies.

Peer observations

Peer observations by English language teachers of academic subject teachers took place over 2-3 weeks with eight teachers being observed for 45 minutes each. This resulted in two observations per academic department. To record the data from these observations each English language teacher used a specific observation sheet that recorded which departmental strategies were observed, not observed, or were not applicable to the context. These sheets also had space for additional comments (see Appendix B). The data from these observations were

analysed by looking at the frequency of occurrence of the various strategies across departments and by coding the additional comments for emergent themes in how the strategies were used.

Table 8 below, summarises the EAL strategies that were observed most frequently in all departments and categorises these according to the EAL provision themes outlined earlier in the methodology. The strategies presented here were seen in at least six out of the eight observations. This provides an insight into strategies used that span the departments and indicates which EAL provision themes were engaged with most frequently.

Commonly seen EAL strategies in all departments:	**EAL Provision Theme:**
Avoid automatically simplifying language or immediately suggesting translation when a student appears stuck. Instead paraphrase the language and write out any unknown words on the board.	Actively plan for language input in lessons
Rephrase using synonyms in your teaching practice wherever possible.	Actively plan for language input in lessons
Allow students to use technology to actively draw on their majority language whenever they require it.	First language as a fund of knowledge
Do not use 'English-only' as a behaviour management tool. Instead use phrases akin to: 'please get back on task'.	First language as a fund of knowledge
Use longer complex English sentences during teacher monologue to help develop students' English repertoires.	Actively plan for language input in lessons
Use multimodal teaching strategies – this means to simultaneously provide oral and visual input.	Actively plan for language input in lessons
Ask questions that require at least a sentence to answer them. Avoid simple questioning where output results in yes/no or one-word answers.	Actively plan for language output in lessons
Increase your wait-time by counting at least 10 seconds before offering any additional help, or providing answers, or allowing other students to answer when you've asked a student a question.	Actively plan for language output in lessons

Table 8: Summary of the most common EAL strategies used by teachers in the peer observations.

The above data illustrates that the themes planning for language input, planning for language output, and first language as a fund of knowledge are well represented. The theme of promoting reading, however, was only observed in one art and one humanities lesson. In art, the teacher recommended books about artists that linked to the lesson at hand. Whereas in humanities, reading materials were actively engaged with in the classroom:

> [Humanities observation A] 'Started with a news article from an issue in today's news related to monopolies. There was also a reading related from CBS news in the previous lesson. Further reading tasks were set to be completed ready for the next lesson.'

Given the lifelong benefits of reading, such as increased attainment across subjects and significant increases in vocabulary gains, the data suggests that teachers in this school need to be further encouraged to regularly integrate the promotion of reading into their teaching and learning practices (S. D. Krashen, 2002; Alice Sullivan, 2015; Alice Sullivan & Brown, 2015; Tankersley, 2003).

Further analysis of the qualitative data from the observations, as provided in the comments, offer deeper insights into how the EAL strategies were used in practice. The subsequent paragraphs discuss the richer aspects of this data which demonstrates how teachers used paraphrasing, synonyms, technology, and language objectives, to provide for EAL in their classrooms.

The EAL strategies to paraphrase language and to use synonyms were observed in all classrooms. This occurred as part of teachers' questioning technique, to help develop pupils' understanding, and to elicit output from pupils in English. It further included the pointing out of 'language traps':

> [Art observation B] 'The teacher rephrased using synonyms as needed to aid comprehension and language acquisition.'
>
> [Humanities observation B] 'The teacher really used paraphrasing questions and challenged students to produce.'
>
> [Science observation A] 'The teacher paraphrased a lot rather than giving the answer to the students.'
>
> [Science observation B] 'The teacher highlighted language traps that students could fall into e.g., 'supernatural' instead of 'supernatant'. The teacher gave synonyms for specific vocabulary e.g., sediment and pellet. They illustrated how synonyms are used in exams and how being precise is important.'

These observations are in line with Mercer's concept of the appropriation of pupils' responses where teachers will paraphrase ideas and questions that pupils put forward by recontextualising them and implicitly offering new meanings (Mercer, 1994). Creese emphasises that it is through this response process that pupils and teachers begin to understand, or appropriate, each other's knowledge, which makes teaching and learning more effective (Creese, 2018). Thus, EAL strategies such as paraphrasing and using synonyms complement what is considered good teaching and learning practice for all pupils.

The use of technology to allow pupils to freely draw upon their home language as needed was also seen in every observation. English language teachers particularly commented upon this when observing art and humanities lessons:

> [Art observation A] 'The majority of pupils were online, so they could easily have used their home language when they needed to.'
>
> [Art observation B] 'Students were allowed to use their mobile phones to look up words as needed.'
>
> [Humanities observation A] 'Pupils used phones to help them search for definitions for the list of new definitions that the teacher had given them.'
>
> [Humanities observation B] 'Pupils were seen working on their phones to discover poll results from last week.'

These observations illustrate teachers giving pupils autonomy regarding which part of their linguistic repertoire to draw on to complete the task at hand. By fostering pupil autonomy and allowing first language use, both language and subject learning needs can effectively be addressed (Afitska, 2016). Furthermore, the use of technology is a valuable strategy that provides teachers with a way to scaffold both language input and output while learning academic content (Y. Liu et al., 2017).

While humanities teachers did not select many strategies pertaining to treating first language as a fund of knowledge, as discussed previously, this data illustrates engagement with these in their classroom practice. This may be coincidental, with teachers viewing technology as a means for pupils to explore concepts, facts, and definitions, but without specifying that this must occur in English. Thus, a teacher can hold the view that lessons should be in English, yet inadvertently allow for home language use by not checking how the technology for a set task

is utilised. This further highlights that SLT should consider additional training for teachers to encourage them to adopt strategies that draw on home languages as funds of knowledge.

The setting of language objectives in content-based classrooms is one way to plan for language output and set expectations of pupils in terms of what they need to learn linguistically (Lindahl & Watkins, 2015). While all departments selected the setting of language objectives as a strategy, this was only observed in mathematics and humanities lessons. No comments were proffered for the mathematics observations, but one English language teacher did offer insightful feedback to a humanities teacher on how language objectives could be made clearer:

> [Humanities observation A] The objectives could be extended to the make the language element clearer. For example: Define price discrimination verbally and in writing, Understand the conditions for price discrimination to be successful and be able to explain this to another student.

This explicitly sets the expectations of the language output required from pupils. Language objectives can help establish specific and attainable goals for language learning that are linked to the aims of the curriculum. Alrabai has shown that these strategies are also successful in reducing levels of foreign language anxiety (Alrabai, 2015). Such practices should thus be encouraged so that they are adopted in every classroom. Hence, it is recommended that SLT makes time for further collaborative efforts between English language and academic teachers or organises CPD that targets language objectives so that teachers may learn and be encouraged to integrate this into their lessons on a regular basis.

Conclusion & Implications

In this practitioners' research, an EAL policy was developed in collaboration with teachers and members of leadership to improve EAL provision at an international sixth form. The development and enactment of this policy was the intervention presented in this thesis. Its intended outcomes were to inform SLT on how to successfully implement the EAL policy in the subsequent academic year, to help teachers develop their pedagogical language knowledge, and for teachers to be confident in applying EAL strategies in their classrooms. The research questions formulated to investigate this explored whether the policy meets teachers' criteria for effective implementation, what teachers' experiences of the policy intervention have been, and how teachers have engaged with the EAL strategies advocated in the policy. These were answered by using a mixed-methods approach that led to the analysis of data obtained from eight 45-minute lesson observations and five questionnaires.

Teachers' criteria for effective implementation of an EAL policy were determined from the effective policy survey. This indicated that policy must be clearly communicated, formally implemented, and be applicable to the local context. The data further illustrated that clear communication encompasses guidance and practical tips for the classroom, whereas formal implementation refers to processes set in motion by members of leadership. The latter includes consulting teachers on their views, ensuring practical integration of the policy into schemes of work, setting policy goals as aims in appraisals and lesson observations, and organising opportunities for collaboration and trialling of policy components. Furthermore, to be applicable to local context the policy must consider the varying needs of different departments and subjects. The policy should also be current, informed by the latest educational research and consider the different cultural and language backgrounds of pupils.

Assessing the latest draft of the policy against these criteria found teachers predominantly in agreement that these have been met. This included teachers feeling consulted, that they've been adequately trained on EAL provision, and have had the opportunity to trial EAL strategies and work in collaboration with their peers. The criticisms by teachers of this policy draft included the need for wider consultation with all stakeholders, implementation of EAL provision into formal documentation such as the schemes of work, appraisal forms and lesson observations, and to ensure time is offered by the senior leadership team (SLT) for collaboration and CPD. These critiques further highlight how teachers are both policymakers and policy actors in how they engage with the policy development process and enact it for effective implementation (Ball et al., 2011b; Braun et al., 2010). Further implications for SLT include understanding that a cascade model of leadership, as is currently prescribed to, has its limitations if sufficient time is not dedicated to training to implement new policy measures (Thrupp, 2018).

Teachers' experiences with consultation on policy development, training on SLA processes and EAL provision, trialling the EAL strategies, and collaboration with their peers to share expertise, were further investigated through surveys. The data indicated that teachers found these experiences mostly positive, educational, and cooperative. Furthermore, teachers reported feeling confident in providing for EAL pupils, that their input into the development of the policy was valued, and that their understanding of SLA processes had improved. Further data from the pre- and post-intervention surveys corroborated the latter demonstrating that teachers' understanding of SLA processes had marginally improved. Despite this, teachers requested further collaborative and educational experiences such as practical workshops on EAL provision. These positive impacts of a more collaborative, research-informed culture on teaching and learning practices, as further corroborated in the literature, leads to recommendations for SLT to organise regular CPD and formal collaboration meetings between English language and academic teachers (Childs et al., 2013; Creese, 2018).

The new EAL policy advocated thirty strategies addressing the EAL themes of planning for language input, treating first language as a fund of knowledge, planning for language output, and the promotion of reading. As teachers indicated that classroom strategies should be specific to their subjects, departments had the opportunity to select which they felt applied to them. This resulted in at least 60% of the strategies being chosen across the science, mathematics, art, English, and humanities departments. Across the departments the strategies chosen were bespoke, leading to each EAL theme to be drawn upon in varying amounts. Teachers were subsequently encouraged to engage with their departmental strategies by their heads of department (HODs). Survey data taken at the end of the academic year revealed that just under half the teachers in this sample trialled them. This is postulated to be due to additional stresses upon teachers due to the impact of COVID-19 resulting in a lack of time to integrate EAL strategies into lessons (Kinnunen, 1988).

Teachers who did engage with the EAL strategies advocated in the policy did so in varying ways. Peer observations of eight academic teachers demonstrated the EAL strategies applied through paraphrasing, through synonyms, by using technology, and by the setting of language objectives. When categorising the strategies teachers used across departments, in accordance with the EAL themes, it was demonstrated that teachers engaged most with strategies that reflect planning for language output, first language as a fund of knowledge, and planning for language input. The 'promotion of reading' theme was only observed twice, suggesting more encouragement and CPD are required to promote reading in classrooms. This could further be achieved by formally implementing reading into the schemes of work, by ensuring each subject has a popular book list, and for HODs to check that homework periodically contains a reading

activity. Such reading interventions should further help to develop pupils' literacy in academic classrooms (S. D. Krashen, 2002; Tankersley, 2003).

The personal implications of this study for my own development are wide as they reflect my varied roles as a teacher, leader, and researcher. From a leadership perspective, I've learnt that a cascade model is not what teachers deem effective for new policy initiatives and that teachers' voices must be heard regularly in the development process. Where possible, time must also be allocated onto timetables for regular CPD and collaborative efforts between teachers to share their expertise. As a teacher this research has allowed me to develop my own understanding of SLA processes and expand my repertoire of EAL strategies used in the classroom. This particularly includes how I can expand my own lesson objectives to ensure that the language element is clear, and to regularly promote reading by setting articles from the Physics Review and Physics World magazines as homework. From a researchers' perspective I have particularly noted the limitations on the statistical tests used due to the small sample sizes obtained in this study, which reduced the strength of any claims that could be made. To avoid this in future research, I have learnt to assign a greater percentage to the 'drop-out' rate which would allow me to alter my methodology accordingly.

For my colleagues in educational research, the data presented here illustrates that effective policy development requires active involvement from teachers. Policy that leads to changes in teaching practice must reflect their various interpretations and translations which has been further corroborated in other research (Braun, Ball, Maguire, et al., 2011; Spillane et al., 2002; Thrupp & Lupton, 2006). While the data in this study offers the insights of fifteen teachers into teachers' criteria for effective implementation of an EAL policy, there is a paucity of research on eliciting teacher views on what makes effective policy and how they feel it translates into practice. Hence, to develop a framework for the development of educational policy that leads to effective implementation a wider study across multiple schools is called for.

Appendices

Appendix A: 30 EAL strategies in accordance with the four themes for EAL provision

1. Acquisition of academic English is done more efficiently through reading instead of direct instruction (S. D. Krashen, 1981; McQuillan, 2019). Hence:
   - ◊ Set reading around your subject as a target or as homework. Ask students to produce a vocabulary list and a brief summary of their reading to provide a quick check that they've completed the reading task.
   - ◊ Suggest a wide range of reading materials and allow students to choose based on their interests.
     The literature indicates that students acquire more language if they get to choose.
   - ◊ Where possible within the SOW, consider setting 'quiet reading time' for at least 30 minutes.
   - ◊ Assign classroom tasks that require reading (of at least 2 paragraphs) to complete them.
   - ◊ Develop a reading list of 'popular' books in your subject area that can be shared with students – this can include both fiction and non-fiction.
     E.g. Reading sci-fi books has been shown to help students develop their scientific literacy as they engage with scientific terminology in different contexts.

2. Draw on students' majority language as a fund of knowledge to: help all students access the curriculum; help students develop conceptual understanding; develop an understanding of the cultural differences between their majority language and English; maintain and extend students' majority language; ensure students' identity and culture are not diminished due to English hegemony (Bailey & Marsden, 2017). Hence:
   - ◊ Where possible ask students to read Wikipedia entries, where available, in their majority language in preparation for the lesson ahead.
   - ◊ Ask students to translate an explanation in English into their majority language to further help them consolidate their understanding and have them engage with the ideas presented. This will also allow them to converse in their majority-language about what they're learning with members of their family and friends back home.
   - ◊ Following on from the above you can then, about week later, ask students to translate it back and discuss any loss of meaning or cultural differences due to the translation process.
   - ◊ During investigative tasks, which aim to develop conceptual understanding, group or pair students up with the same majority language and allow them to use it freely. You will likely hear a mix of English and their language, but their body language will tell you if they are on task.
   - ◊ Allow students to use technology to actively draw on their majority language whenever they require it.
   - ◊ Use mini whiteboards/paper to create mind maps to explore a students' prior knowledge to a new topic by asking them to write everything they know down about a key word/idea. Allow them to also draw diagrams and add words/phrases in their own language. Extend students by asking them to translate into English, but also to see if they can translate whatever English they produce into their home language (there's no need to check whether the latter is correct of course).
   - ◊ Do not use 'English-only' as a behaviour management tool. Instead use phrases akin to: 'please get back on task'.

3. Actively plan for language in lessons by varying the language input received from teacher talk, the selection of texts and other media (Lindahl & Watkins, 2015; D. Liu, 2015). Hence:
   - ◊ Avoid automatically simplifying language or immediately suggesting translation when a student appears stuck. Instead paraphrase the language and write out any unknown words on the board.
   - ◊ Rephrase using synonyms in your teaching practice wherever possible.
   - ◊ Illustrate and explain the difference between 'simpler' English that may not be accepted on exams compared to the level of academic English required.
   - ◊ Use longer complex English sentences during teacher monologue to help develop students' English repertoires.
   - ◊ Use multimodal teaching strategies – this means to simultaneously provide oral and visual input.
     E.g. Graphs/pictures with written notes that are spoken about in class; writing on the IWB what you say as much as possible; asking students to read the question/text aloud; choosing YouTube clips that use clear English accents; using audio books with the printed version.
   - ◊ Provide both verbal and written instructions for tasks to be completed.

- ◊ Highlight and provide the sentence structures that can be used for 'knowledge relationships' such as cause-effect, problem-solution and hypotheses. These will act as bridges between language learning and content learning.
  E.g. To write an aim for an experiment you may explicitly provide the following sentence structures for students to use: 'To investigate the relationship between X and Y', 'To determine X using [name of methodology].'
- ◊ Keep visual information available to students as they complete a task. This will help scaffold the writing. *E.g. A labelled diagram or graph*
- ◊ Compare the wording in mark schemes for similar questions, and similarly compare how those questions were phrased.
- ◊ Use spaced repetition of academic language. To do this consider when and where within the SOW revision of the topic occurs, and hence the language can be repeated. Try to revise periodically instead of in one big chunk at the end of a term/academic year.

4. Plan for language output in lessons in such a way that students are stretched and will learn to notice the gaps in their understanding (Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Swain, 2000; Uggen, 2012).
   - ◊ Ask questions that require at least a sentence to answer them. Avoid simple questioning where output results in yes/no or one-word answers.
   - ◊ Increase your wait-time by counting at least 10 seconds before offering any additional help, or providing answers, or allowing other students to answer when you've asked a student a question.
   - ◊ Set short well-structured research homework that requires either a 1-2-page essay/report, or a 10-minute presentation for practicing output that requires higher level of academic English.
   - ◊ Help a student reflect on their linguistic output by having them read other students' work, or by ensuring that peer questioning or even peer marking occurs as part of student presentations.
   - ◊ Be mindful of 'forcing output' from certain students. If you ask for too much too soon this will create a lot of anxiety for them in terms of speaking and writing.
   - ◊ Correct English language output at all times.
   - ◊ Encourage questions about how to write/articulate ideas in English.
   - ◊ Set language objectives in your lessons pertaining to speaking/writing. *E.g. You may wish to set a group discussion task in English where use of their majority language should be avoided as much as possible; ask students to create posters in English only; co-writing of explanations*

Appendix B: Peer observation sheet used in science

EAL Strategies for the Science Department	**Seen? ✓ or X, or N/A – add comments if needed**
Sets language objectives in their lesson pertaining to speaking/writing	
Sets reading around their subject as a target or as homework.	
Suggest a wide range of reading materials and allow students to choose based on their interests.	
Assigns classroom tasks that require reading (of at least 2 paragraphs) to complete them.	
Has developed a reading list of 'popular' books in their subject area that can be shared with students – this can include both fiction and non-fiction.	
Groups or pairs students up with the same majority language and allows them to use it freely.	
Allows students to use technology to actively draw on their majority language whenever they require it. E.g. cell phone/tablets etc	
Does not use 'English-only' as a behaviour management tool. Instead uses phrases akin to: 'please get back on task'.	
Avoids automatically simplifying language or immediately suggesting translation when a student appears stuck. Instead paraphrases the language and writes out any unknown words on the board.	
Rephrases using synonyms regularly.	
Illustrates and explains the difference between 'simpler' English that may not be accepted on exams compared to the level of academic English required.	
Uses multimodal teaching strategies – this means to simultaneously provide oral and visual input.	
Provides both verbal and written instructions for tasks to be completed.	
Highlights and provides sentence structures that can be used for 'knowledge relationships' such as cause-effect, problem-solution and hypotheses.	
Keeps visual information available to students as they complete a task.	
Asks questions that require at least a sentence to answer them.	
Wait-time after asking a question is about 5 seconds before offering any additional help, or providing answers, or allowing other students to answer.	
Corrects English language output as much as possible without disrupting the flow of the lesson.	
Any additional observation notes to help with offering feedback on the strategies seen. This may be where you record additional strategies observed, write down comments/questions or simply keep track of the flow of the lesson for easier reflection later on. *Please don't use the teacher's name so that this data remains anonymous.*	

Appendix C: Surveys used for data collection

Pre/post survey:

Survey Statements: **Participant Code: _____**

Please circle which department you are part of: English/Humanities/Maths/Science/Art
Have any of your lessons been seen by an English language teacher this year for EAL strategies? Y/N
Have you seen any lessons this year with the aim to reflect on EAL provision and academic language used? Y/N
Please place an **X** in the box to indicate how much you agree/disagree with each statement provided.

#	Statement:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Undecided	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Teachers should draw on pupil's first language when appropriate to accelerate the development of English and academic knowledge.							
2	English as an Additional Language pupils should avoid using their native language in class at all times as they acquire English.							
3	Students should have the possibility to choose the language that is most useful to them when completing classroom tasks.							
4	Everyday reasoning in students' home languages is an important step towards meaning-making in English.							
5	Multilingual pupils have two or more languages to use as resources when learning.							
6	Students with high oral proficiency in English also have high written proficiency.							
7	All teachers must have an understanding of the second language acquisition process.							
8	The acquisition of English and learning of English are the same process.							
9	All teachers should ensure that they provide comprehensible linguistic input to pupils during lessons.							
10	English language learners will benefit from a one-size-fits-all model of instruction in English.							
11	All teachers must plan for the language demands of content area texts and tasks.							
12	Language learning objectives should be made explicit in every classroom.							
13	Good teaching for fluent English speakers is good teaching for all pupils.							
14	All subject teaching should be characterised by a commitment to the dual curriculum goals of content learning and language learning.							
15	Teachers should try to plan lessons that develop students' understanding of a topic alongside their language and literacy skills.							

Effective policy survey:

Developing an EAL Policy for Kings

In your groups, please discuss and answer the following the questions:

1. What do you think the purpose of a policy is or should be?
2. What makes a policy effective?
3. What is needed to make a policy translate into practice?

Now please read the 3 EAL policies provided and discuss and answer the following questions:

1. Please list the strengths of the policies you read:
2. What are your critiques of the policies?
3. Is there anything you think these policies are missing?

EAL strategy selection survey:

Choosing from a list of strategies for EAL provision in content-based classrooms:

The following compiled list is by no means exhaustive. I'd like to encourage departments to not just choose strategies presented here that they feel could be adopted into their teaching practices, but to also *add any* unlisted strategies that they currently employ, or they feel would benefit students in terms of their literacy development.

Please consider these carefully as your choices are intended to be reflected as part of the EAL policy list of tips for your department. The initial numbered statements come from educational literature with subsequent bullet-points detailing strategies outlined within it to help EAL students develop their academic literacy. These surround four main themes: promotion of reading, utilising students' entire linguistic repertoires, planning for language by considering language input, and planning for language by considering language output.

If any terminology or strategy is unclear, please get in touch.

Please highlight/tick which strategies work for your department and add any strategies you currently use at the bottom of this document, where indicated, along with additional notes from your discussions with your team. Please return this to me before the 9th of November.

Department:

Members of staff taking part in the discussion:

The above list of strategies found in Appendix A was then attached to this document.

Policy experience survey:

Experiences with the EAL policy so far

In September teaching staff indicated that new policies should: include a consultation process with all involved, allow for the trialling of components of the policy, provide training, offer opportunities to see the policy 'in action' or to try it out, and to include collaboration between teachers.

The following statements will help me reflect on whether your experiences to date with the EAL policy address the above.

#	Statement:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Undecided	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	N/A
1	I feel that by attending the workshops in September, I have a better understanding of the second language acquisition process.								
2	I have not been consulted on the EAL strategies to be used in my department.								
3	I have valued the opportunity to discuss EAL provision with English language teachers (or with academic teachers if you are an English language teacher).								
4	I feel I have received sufficient training to provide for EAL students in my own classroom.								
5	This academic year, I have tried out new EAL strategies in my own classroom.								
6	I would like to work more closely with English language teachers in the future (academic subject teachers if an English teacher)								
7	During departmental meetings, I've been asked for my opinion on what EAL strategies would work well in my subject.								
8	I would like more practical workshops on EAL strategies in the classroom.								
9	I have been encouraged to use the EAL strategies for my department in my own classroom teaching.								
10	I feel that my input into the EAL policy development is valued.								
11	I have not been offered the opportunity this year to trial EAL strategies in my own classroom								
12	Collaborative efforts between English language and academic subject teachers are a waste of time								

Policy consultation survey:

Teacher feedback on the latest EAL policy draft

Does/Is the policy:

Statement:	**Yes/No?**	***If not please comment why (feel free to use more space on the back if you need)***
Address all stakeholders?		
Improve the status quo?		
Provide guidance?		
Set clear aims?		
Allow for enough flexibility?		
Practical?		
Current/research informed?		
Memorable?		
Provide clear definitions?		
Provide tips/strategies for classroom practice?		
Distinguishes between subjects/departments?		
Considers varying cultural backgrounds?		
Teacher friendly?		

Appendix D: Latest draft of the EAL policy teachers consulted upon at the end of year INSET day workshop

EAL Policy – Draft v.3

Introduction

A student with English as an Additional Language (EAL) is defined by The Department for Education as: 'A student who is exposed to a language at home that is known or believed to be other than English' (DfE, 2020). Research has shown that students new to English will acquire conversational fluency in two years but will need a minimum of five years to achieve competence in academic English (Cummins, 2000). While students who enter onto academic courses at [School name] are required to have a minimum IELTS score, and thus possess reasonable English proficiency, they often have less than 5 years of active engagement with English. These students thus still need language support if they are to reach their full academic potential.

Such EAL support is available to all students at [School name], with the primary aim to improve the student's range and accuracy in English to ensure that they develop confidence in both their social and academic grasps of the English language. We predominantly offer support in two ways:

1. Specialist English language teachers offer dedicated English language development classes to all students. These classes are timetabled either as Communication and Study Skills for Advanced Level Foundation students or as English for Academic Purposes for GCSE and A-level students. These also aim to ensure students achieve favourable IELTS scores for entrance onto higher education programmes.

2. All academic content teachers support students' language development by integrating language and content teaching to develop academic language proficiency. This includes development of oracy and literacy in an academic context that aims for students to achieve the best outcomes in their academic courses.

This provision fulfils the requirements of the Race Relations Act of 1976 and the Equality Act 2010 which seek to promote equality of opportunity and to eliminate discrimination in the provision of education. In addition, all students need to feel safe, accepted and valued in order to learn. For students who are learning English as an additional language, this includes recognising and valuing their home languages and cultural backgrounds.

Aims

[School name] is committed to making appropriate provision for students for whom English is an additional language. The school recognises individual students' needs, the skills they bring to the school and ensures access to the curriculum for all students. Our aims are:

- To implement school-wide strategies to ensure that EAL students are supported in accessing the curriculum.
- To ensure that language and literacy are taught within the context of all subjects.
- To monitor students' progress systematically and use the data to inform classroom management, curriculum planning and the setting of targets.
- To help EAL students to become confident English speakers, and to acquire the English language skills they need to be able to fulfil their academic potential.
- To ensure that we meet the full range of needs of those students who are learning English as an additional language.
- To ensure that EAL students with potential learning difficulties are assessed in their first language where possible and appropriate.
- To be able to assess the skills and needs of students with EAL and to provide for their needs.
- To maintain students' self-esteem and confidence by acknowledging and giving status to their skills in their own languages.

- To equip teachers and support staff with the knowledge, skills and resources to be able to support and monitor students with EAL.

Ethos

There will be a positive and effective language ethos:

- There will be an understanding that a limited knowledge of English does not reflect a lack of ability or a lack of literacy in a student's home language.
- There will be an understanding that learning difficulties should be determined independent of students' EAL needs.
- There will be an understanding that appreciating and acknowledging a student's ability in their own culture is crucial for their self-esteem.
- There will be an understanding that English language development is the responsibility of all teachers, not just English language teachers.
- There will be liaison between English and academic content teachers to discuss how to support language development for all students.
- Diversity will be valued, and classrooms will be socially and intellectually inclusive.
- Teachers will be knowledgeable about students' abilities and needs in English and other subjects and use this knowledge to inform their teaching practices.
- All teachers will need to consider the language demands as well as the content of the curriculum and plan how they can support to develop oracy and literacy across the curriculum.
- In writing the schemes of work, teachers/Heads of Department should clearly outline opportunities for EAL provision that integrate content and language teaching.
- Regular CPD is to be provided to teachers detailing the latest strategies for EAL provision.

English Language Development and Proficiency Testing

All students regularly have their English language proficiency assessed via holistic teacher assessments and IELTS testing. This allows us to adjust EAL provision in our teaching and learning practices across all subjects. In addition to preparation for IELTS testing students also work on achieving fluency in academic English. Hence, EAL provision does not end when a student has achieved their desirable IELTS score but continues to further develop their academic English. Students with higher levels of academic proficiency can expect greater attainment in their academic courses.

Classroom strategies for EAL provision

Each department has helped develop their own list of strategies based on the following four strands as found in the educational literature regarding EAL provision:

1. Acquisition of academic English is done more efficiently through reading instead of direct instruction (S. D. Krashen, 1981; McQuillan, 2019).
2. Drawing on students' majority language as a fund of knowledge in the classroom helps: all students access the curriculum; students develop conceptual understanding; develop an understanding of the cultural differences between their majority language and English; maintain and extend a students' majority language; ensure students' identity and culture are not diminished due to English hegemony (Bailey & Marsden, 2017).
3. Teachers should actively plan for language in lessons by varying the language input received from teacher talk, the selection of texts and other media to help develop students' academic proficiency (Lindahl & Watkins, 2015; D. Liu, 2015).

4. Teachers should plan for language output in lessons in such a way that students are stretched and will learn to notice the gaps in their understanding which further develops their academic proficiency (Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Swain, 2000; Uggen, 2012).

The lists of strategies for each department can be found here: *These hyperlinks would take teachers to their departmental strategies chosen from the list of 30 EAL strategies in Appendix A above.*

Art Department

English Department

Humanities Department

Mathematics Department

Science Department

References

Afitska, O. (2016). Scaffolding learning: developing materials to support the learning of science and language by non-native English-speaking students. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *10*(2), 75–89.

Alisaari, J., Vigren, H., & Mäkelä, M.-L. (2019). Multilingualism as a resource. In *Teaching Content and Language in the Multilingual Classroom*.

Alrabai, F. (2015). The influence of teachers' anxiety-reducing strategies on learners' foreign language anxiety. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *9*(2), 163–190.

Angrosino, M., & Rosenberg, J. (2011). Observations on Observation: Continuities and Challenges. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (4th ed.). London, England: Sage Publications.

Author. (2020). Part 2 MLT Assignment. *Unpublished*.

Bailey, E. G., & Marsden, E. (2017). Teachers' views on recognising and using home languages in predominantly monolingual primary schools. *Language and Education*, *31*(4), 283–306.

Baker, C., & Jones, S. P. (1988). Threshold theory. In C. Baker & S. P. Jones (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of bilingualism and bilingual education* (pp. 74–80). Clevedon, USA: Multilingual Matters.

Ball, S. J. (2015). What is policy? 21 years later: reflections on the possibilities of policy research. *Discourse*, *36*(3), 306–313.

Ball, S. J., Maguire, M., & Braun, A. (2012). *How schools do policy: policy enactments in secondary schools*. London; New York: Routledge.

Ball, S. J., Maguire, M., Braun, A., & Hoskins, K. (2011a). Policy actors: Doing policy work in schools. *Discourse*, *32*(4), 625–639.

Ball, S. J., Maguire, M., Braun, A., & Hoskins, K. (2011b). Policy subjects and policy actors in schools: Some necessary but insufficient analyses. *Discourse*, *32*(4), 611–624.

BERA. (2018). Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research.

Borden, R. S. (2014). The English Only Movement: Revisiting Cultural Hegemony. *Multicultural Perspectives*, *16*(4), 229–233.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, *36*(2), 81–109.

Braun, A., Ball, S. J., & Maguire, M. (2011). Introduction to semi-special issue: Theorising and researching policy enactment in schools: Policy enactments in schools introduction: Towards a toolbox for theory and research. *Discourse*, *32*(4), 581–583.

Braun, A., Ball, S. J., Maguire, M., & Hoskins, K. (2011). Taking context seriously: Towards explaining policy enactments in the secondary school. *Discourse*, *32*(4), 585–596.

Braun, A., Maguire, M., & Ball, S. J. (2010). Policy enactments in the UK secondary school: Examining policy, practice and school positioning. *Journal of Education Policy*, *25*(4), 547–560.

Briggs, J. G., Dearden, J., & Macaro, E. (2018). English medium instruction: Comparing teacher beliefs in secondary and tertiary education. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *8*(3), 673–696.

Bujang, M. A., Omar, E. D., & Baharum, N. A. (2018). A review on sample size determination for cronbach's alpha test: A simple guide for researchers. *Malaysian Journal of Medical Sciences*, *25*(6), 85–99.

Campanelli, P. (2008). Testing Survey Questions. In Edith Desirée de Leeuw, J. J. Hox, & D.

A. Dillman (Eds.), *International handbook of survey methodology* (pp. 176–200). London, England: L. Erlbaum Associates.
Carey, A., & Smith, M. W. (1994). Capturing the Group Effect in Focus Groups: A Special Concern in Analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, *4*(1), 123–127.
Cenoz, J. (2017). Translanguaging in School Contexts: International Perspectives. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, *16*(4), 193–198.
Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2013). Toward plurilingual approach in english language teaching: Softening the boundaries between languages. *TESOL Quarterly*, *47*(3), 591–599.
Childs, A., Burn, K., & McNicholl, J. (2013). What influences the learning cultures of subject departments in secondary schools? A study of four subject departments in England. *Teacher Development*, *17*(1), 35–54.
Collier, V. P. (1989). How long? A synthesis of research on academic achievement in a second language. *TESOL Quarterly*, *23*(3), 509–531.
Corder, G. W., & Foreman, D. I. (2014). *Nonparametric statistics: a step-by-step approach* (Second edi). Hoboken, New Jersey.
Corson, D. (1992). Bilingual education policy and social justice. *Journal of Education Policy*, *7*(1), 45–69.
Creese, A. (2018). Teacher Collaboration and Talk in Multilingual Classrooms. In *Teacher Collaboration and Talk in Multilingual Classrooms*.
Cummins, J. (1979). Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency, Linguistic Interdependence, the Optimum Age Question and Some Other Matters. In *Working Papers on Bilingualism*. Toronto.
Cummins, J. (1981). Age on arrival and immigrant second language learning in Canada: A reassessment. *Applied Linguistics*, *2*(2), 132–149.
Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power and pedagogy: bilingual children in the crossfire*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
Cummins, J. (2008). BICS and CALP: Empirical and theoretical status of the distinction. In B. Street & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 71–83). New York: Springer Science.
Cummins, J. (2013). BICS and CALP. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *The Routledge encyclopedia of second language acquisition* (pp. 65–66). New York: Routledge.
de Leeuw, Edith D. (2008). Choosing the Method of Data Collection. In Edith Desirée de Leeuw, J. J. Hox, & D. A. Dillman (Eds.), *International handbook of survey methodology* (pp. 113–135). London, England: L. Erlbaum Associates.
de Zarobe, L. R., & de Zarobe, Y. R. (2015). New perspectives on multilingualism and L2 acquisition: an introduction. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *12*(4), 393–403.
Demie, F. (2018). English language proficiency and attainment of EAL (English as second language) pupils in England. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *39*(7), 641–653.
DfE. (2011). *Teachers' Standards: Guidance for school leaders, school staff and governing bodies*.
DfE. (2014). *The national curriculum in England: Framework document*.
DfE. (2018). *School Census 2017 to 2018 Guide*.
DfE. (2019a). *Schools, pupils and their characteristics: January 2019*.
DfE. (2019b). Section 1.4.3.1. In *School census 2018 to 2019: Guide, version 1.7*.
DfE. (2020). English proficiency of pupils with English as an additional language. *Department for Education Online Publications*, (February), 1–27.
DfE. (2021). Schools, pupils and their characteristics: June 2021. Retrieved July 7, 2021, from

https://explore-education-statistics.service.gov.uk/find-statistics/school-pupils-and-their-characteristics
Dickson, J. P., Fowler, F. J., & Mangione, T. W. (1997). Improving Survey Questions: Design and Evaluation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *34*(2), 296.
Dina Mehmedbegović. (2008). Leading increasingly linguistically diverse London schools. *Educate*, *8*(2), 4–21.
Flynn, N., & Curdt-Christiansen, X. L. (2018). Intentions versus enactment: making sense of policy and practice for teaching English as an additional language. *Language and Education*, *32*(5), 410–427.
Foley, Y., Sangster, P., & Anderson, C. (2013). Examining EAL policy and practice in mainstream schools. *Language and Education*, *27*(3), 191–206.
Fowler Jr., F. (1995). *Improving survey questions: design and evaluation*. Thousand Oaks, Calif ; London: Sage.
Fowler Jr., F., & Cosenza, C. (2008). Writing Effective Questions. In Edith Desirée de Leeuw, J. J. Hox, & D. A. Dillman (Eds.), *International handbook of survey methodology* (pp. 136–159). London, England: L. Erlbaum Associates.
Gass, S. M. (2018). *Input, interaction, and the second language learner*. New York.
Gewirtz, S. (1998). Can all schools be successful? An exploration of the determinants of school "success." *Oxford Review of Education*, *24*(4), 439–457.
Gibbons, P. (2015). *Scaffolding language, scaffolding learning: teaching English language learners in the mainstream classroom*. Portsmouth, England: Heinemann.
Gideonse, H. D. (1970). Policy Framework for Educational Research. *American Association for the Advancement of Science*, *170*(3962), 1054–1059.
Hakuta, K., Butler, Y. G., & Witt, D. (2000). *How Long Does It Take English Learners to Attain Proficiency?* Santa Barbara.
Harper, C. A., & de Jong, E. J. (2009). English language teacher expertise: The elephant in the room. *Language and Education*, *23*(2), 137–151.
Heide, M., & Gronhaug, K. (1991). Respondents' moods as a biasing factor in surveys: an experimental study. *NA - Advances in Consumer Research*, *18*, 566–575.
Hutchinson, J. (2018). *Educational Outcomes of Children with English as an Additional Language*. London, England.
Izumi, S., & Bigelow, M. (2000). Does Output Promote Noticing and Second Language Acquisition? *TESOL Quarterly*, *34*(2), 239–278.
Johnson, K. E. (1992). The Relationship between Teachers' Beliefs and Practices during Literacy Instruction for Non-Native Speakers of English. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *24*(1), 83–108.
Keeter, S. (2018). Evidence about the accuracy of surveys in the face of declining response rates. In D. L. Vannette & J. A. Krosnick (Eds.), *The Palgrave Handbook of Survey Research* (pp. 19–22). Stanford: Palgrave Macmillan.
Kenner, C. (2000). *Home pages: literacy links for bilingual children*. Stoke on Trent: Trentham Books.
Khatib, M., & Taie, M. (2016). BICS and CALP: Implications for SLA. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *7*(2), 382.
Kinnunen, U. (1988). Teacher stress during an autumn term in finland: Four types of stress processes. *Work and Stress*, *2*(4), 333–340.
Krashen, S. (1998). Comprehensible output? *System*, *26*(2), 175–182.
Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning* (1st ed). Oxford, England: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. D. (2002). "Free Reading" Promotes Literacy. *Education Week*, p. 36.
Krashen, S. D. (2013). *Second Language Acquisition. Theory, Applications, and Some Conjectures*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Krashen, S. D., & Mason, B. (2020). The Optimal Input Hypothesis: Not all comprehensible input is of equal value. *CATESOL Newsletter*, 1–2.
Krashen, S. D., Mason, B., & Smith, K. (2018). Some New Terminology: Comprehension-Aiding Supplementation and Form-Focusing Supplementation. *Language Learning and Teaching*, *60*(6), 12–13.
Krosnick, J. A. (2018a). Improving Question Design to maximize reliability and validity. In D. Vannette & J. A. Krosnick (Eds.), *The Palgrave Handbook of Survey Research* (pp. 95–101). Stanford: Palgrave Macmillan.
Krosnick, J. A. (2018b). Questionnaire Design. In D. L. Vanette & J. A. Krosnick (Eds.), *The Palgrave Handbook of Survey Research* (pp. 439–456). Stanford: Palgrave Macmillan.
Lai, W., & Wei, L. (2019). A Critical Evaluation of Krashen's Monitor Model. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *9*(11), 1459.
Leeuw, E. de. (2012). Self-Administered Questionnaires and Standardized Interviews. In P. Alasuutari, L. Bickman, & J. Brannen (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Social Research Methods* (pp. 313–327). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
Lietz, P. (2010). Research into questionnaire design. *International Journal of Market Research*, *52*(2), 249–272.
Lin, A. M. Y. (2019). Theories of trans/languaging and trans-semiotizing: implications for content-based education classrooms. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *22*(1), 5–16.
Lindahl, K., & Watkins, N. M. (2015). Creating a culture of language awareness in content-based contexts. *TESOL Journal*, *6*(4), 777–789.
Liu, D. (2015). A Critical Review of Krashen's Input Hypothesis: Three Major Arguments. *Journal of Education and Human Development*, *4*(4), 139–146.
Liu, Y., Fisher, L., Forbes, K., & Evans, M. (2017). The knowledge base of teaching in linguistically diverse contexts: 10 grounded principles of multilingual classroom pedagogy for EAL. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *17*(4), 378–395.
Lohr, S. L. (2008). Coverage and Sampling. In Edith Desirée de Leeuw, J. J. Hox, & D. A. Dillman (Eds.), *International handbook of survey methodology* (pp. 97–112). London, England: L. Erlbaum Associates.
Maguire, M., Gewirtz, S., Towers, E., & Neumann, E. (2020). Contextualising policy work: policy enactment and the specificities of English secondary schools. *Research Papers in Education*, *35*(4), 488–509.
Maguire, M., Hoskins, K., Ball, S., & Braun, A. (2011). Policy discourses in school texts. *Discourse*, *32*(4), 597–609.
Martinez, R. A. (2018). Beyond the English Learner Label: Recognizing the Richness of Bi/Multilingual Students' Linguistic Repertoires. *The Reading Teacher*, *71*(5), 515–522.
Mason, B. (2019). Guided SSR before self-selected reading. *Shitennoji University Bulletin*, (67), 445–456.
Mavrogordato, M., & White, R. S. (2020). Leveraging Policy Implementation for Social Justice: How School Leaders Shape Educational Opportunity When Implementing Policy for English Learners. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *56*(1), 3–45.
McQuillan, J. (2019). Where Do We Get Our Academic Vocabulary? Comparing the Efficiency of Direct Instruction and Free Voluntary Reading. *Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, *19*(1), 129–138.

Mercer, N. (1994). Neo-Vygotskian theory and classroom education. In J. Maybin (Ed.), *Language, Literacy and Learning in Educational Practice*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters/Open University.

Moreno, V. (2014). The Power of Our Bilingual Voices: Translanguaging with Middle School English Language Learners. University of California.

Myles, F. (2010). The development of theories of second language acquisition. *Language Teaching*, *43*(3), 320–332.

Noblit, G. W., Beach, D., Bueno, B., Fickel, L., Pillow, W., & Thapan, M. (2020). *The Oxford Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods in Education* [Book].

Oberemko, O. A. (2018). On typology of open-ended questions. *Monitoring Obshchestvennogo Mneniya: Ekonomicheskie i Sotsial'nye Peremeny*, *145*(4), 97–108.

Ofsted. (2019). *Ofsted School Report*. Oxford, England.

Ozga, J. (2000). *Policy research in educational settings: contested terrain*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers ' Beliefs and Educational Research: Cleaning up a Messy Construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(3), 307–332.

Pappamihiel, N. E. (2002). English as a Second Language Students and English Language Anxiety: Issues in the Mainstream Classroom. *Research in the Teaching of English*, Vol. 36, pp. 327–355. National Council of Teachers of English.

Philp, J., & Iwashita, N. (2013). Talking, tuning in and noticing: Exploring the benefits of output in task-based peer interaction. *Language Awareness*, *22*(4), 353–370.

Potthoff, P., & Eller, M. (2000). Survey with questionnaire: advantages and disadvantages of various data collection techniques. *Journal of Public Health*, *8*(2), 100–105.

Probyn, M. (2019). Pedagogical translanguaging and the construction of science knowledge in a multilingual South African classroom: challenging monoglossic/post-colonial orthodoxies. *Classroom Discourse*, *10*(3–4), 216–236.

Richards, L. (2014). *Handling qualitative data: a practical guide* (Third). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Ryding, K. C. (2013). Second Language Acquisition. In J. Owens (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of Arabic linguistics* (pp. 392–411). New York.

Safford, K., & Costley, T. (2008). "I didn't speak for the first year": Silence, Self-Study and Student Stories of English Language Learning in Mainstream Education. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *2*(2), 136–151.

Scott, D. (1996). Education policy: the secondary phase. *Journal of Education Policy*, *11*(1), 133–140.

Sheskin, D. J., & Raton, B. (2003). *Handbook of parametric and nonparametric statistical procedures* (3rd ed.) [Article]. Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing qualitative research* (Fourth). London, England: Sage Publications Ltd.

Singer, E. (2008). Ethical issues in surveys. In Edith Desirée de Leeuw, J. J. Hox, & D. A. Dillman (Eds.), *International handbook of survey methodology* (pp. 78–96). London, England: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford.

Spillane, J. P. (2004). *Standards deviation: how schools misunderstand education policy*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Spillane, J. P., Reiser, B. J., & Reimer, T. (2002). Policy implementation and cognition: Reframing and refocusing implementation research. *Review of Educational Research*, *72*(3), 387–431.

Strand, S., & Hessel, A. (2018). *English as an Additional Language, proficiency in English and pupils' educational achievement: An analysis of Local Authority data*. Cambridge, England.

Sullivan, A, & Brown, M. (2015). Reading for pleasure and progress in vocabulary and mathematics. *British Educational Research Journal*, *41*(6), 971–991.

Sullivan, Alice. (2015). Lifelong benefits of reading for pleasure. *School Librarian*, *63*(1), 5–6.

Sullivan, Alice, & Brown, M. (2015). Vocabulary from adolescence to middle age. *Longitudinal and Life Course Studies*, *6*(2), 173–189.

Supovitz, J. A., & Weinbaum, E. H. (2008). *The implementation gap: Understanding reform in high schools* (1st ed.). New York, USA: Teachers College Press.

Swain, M. (2000). The Output Hypothesis and beyond: Mediating Acquisition through Collaborative Dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97–114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M. (2005). The Output Hypothesis: Theory and Research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 471–484). London: Routledge.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in Output and the Cognitive Processes They Generate: A Step Towards Second Language Learning. *Applied Linguistics*, *16*(3), 371–391.

Tan, M. (2011). Mathematics and science teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the teaching of language in content learning. *Language Teaching Research*, *15*(3), 325–342.

Tankersley, K. (2003). *Threads of reading: strategies for literacy development*. Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Thrupp, M. (2018). A Socially Contextualised Approach to Professional Learning for School Leaders. *Leading & Managing*, *24*(2), 92–100.

Thrupp, M., & Lupton, R. (2006). Taking school contexts more seriously: The social justice challenge. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, *54*(3), 308–328.

Tracy, S. J. (2013). Data analysis basics: A pragmatic iterative approach. In S. J. Tracy (Ed.), *Qualitative Research Methods: Collecting Evidence, Crafting Analysis, Communicating Impact* (First, pp. 183–202). Chicester, UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Uggen, M. S. (2012). Reinvestigating the Noticing Function of Output. *Language Learning*, *62*(2), 506–540.

Ünsal, Z., Jakobson, B., Molander, B. O., & Wickman, P. O. (2018). Language Use in a Multilingual Class: a Study of the Relation Between Bilingual Students' Languages and Their Meaning-Making in Science. *Research in Science Education*, *48*(5), 1027–1048.

Van den Berg, R. (2002). Teachers' meanings regarding educational practice. *Review of Educational Research*, *72*(4), 577–625.

Voraprateep, J. (2013). *Robustness of Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Against the Assumption of Symmetry*. The University of Birmingham.

Wei, L. (2018). Translanguaging as a Practical Theory of Language. *Applied Linguistics*, *39*(1), 9–30.

Wu, H., & Leung, S. O. (2017). Can Likert Scales be Treated as Interval Scales?—A Simulation Study. *Journal of Social Service Research*, *43*(4), 527–532.