

**The Enactment of England's
National Curriculum for English in a
British International Primary School
in Japan**

By

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Abstract

In international schools in many countries of the world, England's national curriculum is the most common national curriculum taught. However, there have been few research studies on the application of England's national curriculum in international school contexts. The research reported in this PhD dissertation is a case study of the enactment of the subject of English in England's national curriculum by a British international primary school in Japan.

The theoretical framing of the study is focused on curriculum aims and curriculum knowledge. The data collection methods were classroom observations of lessons, interviews with the head teacher and class teachers, and document analysis of teachers' lesson plans.

Findings, as a result of the thematic qualitative data analysis, revealed that teachers had their own aims for teaching, which often went beyond the specifications of England's national curriculum, and beyond the formal aims of the English lessons represented in lesson planning. Teachers reported that they aimed to develop children's knowledge beyond the specialised knowledge that formed the national curriculum subject. Children's everyday knowledge had an influence on teachers' decision-making for the selection of knowledge to be taught from England's national curriculum.

Discrepancies between teachers' perspectives expressed in the interviews and the findings that emerged as a result of the observed lessons were identified. The teachers' perspectives with regard to the enactment of England's national curriculum in the school were mediated by two dominant aspects: flexible use of England's national curriculum, and the concept of a culturally extended curriculum. All of the key areas stated in England's national curriculum were taught, and very little content related to the Japanese context was found.

The thesis concludes with reflections about the applicability of England's national curriculum in an international context, and how knowledge selection

might in future be enacted. These findings contribute to scholarship on curriculum aims and curriculum knowledge in the field of curriculum studies. The research reported in this thesis is the first research to study in depth the enactment of the subjects of English and literacy in England's national curriculum in an international school in Japan.

Declaration

I, Tetsuko Watanabe, confirm that the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own. Where information has been derived from other sources, I confirm that this has been indicated in the thesis.

Date: 10 September, 2018

Signature: 

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“For what purpose should one cultivate wisdom?
May you always ask yourselves this question”

Daisaku Ikeda

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List of Acronyms

ACSI	Association of Christian Schools International
AICE	Advanced International Certificate of Education
APID	Advanced Placement International Diploma
APP	Assessing Pupils' Progress
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BEI	British Educational Index
BERA	British Educational Research Association
BFSS	British and Foreign School Society
BSME	British Schools in the Middle East
BSO	British Schools Overseas
CAQDAS	Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis
CERI	Centre for Educational Research and Innovation
CIS	Citation Information by National Institute of Informatics
COBIS	Council of International Schools
CRB	Council of British International Schools
DBS	Criminal Records Bureau
DES	Department of Education and Science
DfE	Disclosure and Barring Service
DfES	Department for Education
EAL	Department for Education and Schools
EFL	English as an Additional Language
EPPI	English as a Foreign Language Evidence for Policy and Practice Information and Co-ordinating Centre
ERIC	and Co-ordinating Centre
EThOS	Education Recourses Information Centre
EYFS	UK E-Theses Online Service
FOBISIA	Early Years Foundation Stage
GCSE	Federation of British International Schools in Asia
HMI	General Certificate of Secondary Education
IB	International Baccalaureate
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspectors
IBDP	International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme
IBMYP	International Baccalaureate Middle Years Programme
IBPYP	International Baccalaureate Primary Years Programme
IGCSE	International General Certificate of Secondary Education
IOE	Institute of Education
IPC	International Primary Curriculum
ISA	Independent Schools Association
ISI	Independent Schools Inspectorate
IT	Information technology
JCIS	Japan Council of International Schools
LAHC	Latin American Heads Conference
LATE	London Association for the Teaching of English

LBS	Lionel British School
LSE	London School of Economics
MEXT	Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
NABSS	National Association of British Schools in Spain
NCCA	National Council for Curriculum and Assessment
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OED	Oxford English Dictionary
PFL	Primary Framework for Literacy
PGQM	Primary Geography Quality Mark
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PNIEB	Programa Nacional de Inglés en Educación Básica
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
SAT	Standard Assessment Tests
SCJ	Science Council of Japan
SIGLE	System for Information on Grey Literature
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
UCL	University College London
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WASC	Western Association of Schools and Colleges

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 British International Schools around the World

There are over 3,200 British international schools, representing 47% of all English-medium international schools around the world (Independent Schools Council, 2015; 2016). Since the number of pupils and students who are studying at English-medium international schools has reached 4,000,000 (International School Search, 2015), these British international schools have offered education to 1,900,000 pupils and students around the world. Although education in British international schools is not the main national education system in these local countries, the number of pupils and students who are learning in these British international schools is significant.

British international schools are not run by local governments or the British government, therefore many are independent, private, and fee-paid schools. Private organisations have played a major part in supporting and assuring the standard of British international schools through their membership screening systems. One of the most globally recognised organisations for is the Council of British International School (COBIS), whose headquarters is in London, England. The COBIS have accredited only 288 schools in 80 countries as of December 2017 (COBIS, 2017), and they set rigid criteria for their membership screening.

The COBIS stated that they have conducted criminal record checks on all teachers who were recruited from the UK during the process of screening for their membership (international school search.com, 2015). Along with the world-wide organisation for British international schools, there are also regional organisations. The British Schools in the Middle East (BSME); the Latin American Heads Conference (LAHC); the Federation of British International schools in Asia

(FOBISIA); and the National Association of British Schools in Spain (NABSS) have all supported British international schools in their areas. Regarding the locations of British international schools around the world, almost half of the COBIS member schools are located in Europe, and one quarter in Africa, followed by the Middle East, Asia, and the Americas (Independent Schools Council, 2015). The background to the establishment of British international schools around the world can vary; however, there appears to be several common reasons for why they are needed. Many of these schools were formed in response to British families who preferred British style education in the countries they were living in. These families, who are living abroad mainly because of their occupations, are often called 'internationally mobile families', and they are considered to be contributing to globalisation of education (Ann-McLachlan, 2005).

In addition to the internationally mobile families, there is a growing number of local parents who choose British international schools for their children with a view to educating them in English-speaking universities. In fact, the majority of students who leave British international schools continue to higher education in the UK, the USA or Canada (Independent Schools Council, 2015). However, although there is a trend that local parents choose British international schools in order for their children to transit to universities in English-speaking countries, the most common phase that is taught in these schools is the primary phase. Among the COBIS member schools, 91% have the primary phase whereas 61% have the sixth form phase, and the most common age taught is 11 years old (*op cit.*, 2015). Primary education, particularly Key Stage 2, has been the most focused age range in British international schools around the world.

In order to maintain the standards of British international schools, the British government put in place a voluntary inspection scheme in 2014, the 'British schools overseas inspection scheme' (BSO). The government stated that one of the aims of the inspection scheme is to

inform parents of how the standards in these British international schools measure up against the standards that apply to independent schools in England (DfE, 2014). Seven inspectorates have been approved by the government including the Independent Schools Inspectorate (ISI) and Cambridge Education, and these inspectorates are monitored by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). The government published a report, *British Schools Overseas: Standards for Schools* (DfE, 2014), which outlined the standards that British international schools outside the UK should meet, and the inspections have been conducted based on the standards stated in the report. Some of the inspection reports regarding British international schools have been made available to the public; however, detailed information about the enactment of England's national curriculum or the teaching of a particular subject in classrooms in British international schools still remains unavailable.

The present study explored the teachers' 'enactment' of England's national curriculum' in a British international school. The meaning of the word 'enact' was defined as "to work in or upon; to actuate, influence" (OED [online]). The enactment of England's national curriculum can also imply the ways of practising England's national curriculum in the school. In the present study, the wording 'the enactment of England's national curriculum' was used instead of 'the implementation of England's national curriculum' in order to focus on the practice and the application of England's national curriculum by the teachers in the school.

1.2 Implementation of Curricula in British International Schools

There are over 9,000 international schools around the world that teach curricula which are different from local national curricula. Among these international schools as a whole, 32% adopt England's national curriculum, followed by the International Baccalaureate (IB) (26%) and the US national curriculum (19%) (World Education News & Reviews, 2014). The International Primary Curriculum (IPC) has been taught in only 4% of international schools as a whole (*op cit.*, 2014). England's national curriculum has been the most common English-language curriculum to be adopted amongst all types of international schools, which means that it is the most common curriculum that has been practised in different contexts around the world. Despite this, the application of England's national curriculum in the international context has not been fully explored and it is a relatively new area of research.

British international schools around the world call themselves, 'British school', 'British international school', or merely 'international school' depending on the curriculum they teach or the nationalities of students in their schools. Almost all of the COBIS member schools follow England's national curriculum (98%) (Independent Schools Council, 2015). Some British international schools teach local national curricula along with England's national curriculum; however, only 21% of the member schools teach local national curricula. The most common international curriculum adopted along with England's national curriculum is the IPC, which is taught in 14% of COBIS member schools.

One of the reasons for this large number of adaptations of the IPC against other globally recognised international curricula such as the IB would be the support for schools in relation to the learning outcomes of England's national curriculum. Many British international schools that teach the IPC also teach England's national curriculum, and many of these schools implement England's national curriculum assessments

such as SATs, GCSE, A-level or AS-level. Therefore, the British international schools that adopt the IPC still need to achieve the learning outcomes of England's national curriculum. Fieldwork Education, which provides the IPC, is fully aware of the changes in England's national curriculum and have been supporting the schools that teach the IPC in terms of the implementation of England's national curriculum assessments. This close attention to England's national curriculum and the changes to the national curricula appears to make the IPC the most common international curriculum adopted in British international schools around the world.

Since many of the British international schools outside the UK are private and also independent, it is not necessary for them to implement a new national curriculum as state schools in England do. The most recent change to England's national curriculum for primary education was the introduction of a new national curriculum, which was published and started to be partly taught in state schools in 2013. Although changes were made to the National Curriculum in 2008, these changes were relevant only to Key Stages 3 and 4. Therefore, the national curriculum that was being taught in British international schools when the present research was conducted was published in 1999 and started to be taught in 2000.

The most recent version of the Primary National Strategy, which was published in 2006, played an important role in interpreting England's national curriculum in order to enact the curriculum in British international schools. Although the Primary National Strategy is a non-statutory pedagogical document, it has been essential for teachers to plan their lessons in terms of practical support as one of its aims states, "support for teachers through developing materials and resources" (Primary National Strategy, 2006, p.2). Thus, British international schools that follow England's national curriculum outside the UK use the same documents that were designed for state schools in England.

With regard to subjects taught in British international schools, English, Mathematics and Geography are the top three subjects taught in

excess of 90% of the COBIS member schools (Independent Schools Council, 2015). In *National curriculum in England: framework for key stages 1 to 4* (DfE, 2014), however, English, Mathematics and Science are classified as 'core subjects', and Geography is categorised as one of the 'other foundation subjects'. One of the reasons for this emphasis on teaching Geography in British international schools would be that the schools are aware of the importance of learning local contexts, and the schools try to incorporate local contexts into teaching in classrooms or schools' events. Also, some COBIS member schools teach well-being as a subject. Although this does not appear as a subject in statutory teaching in England's national curriculum, teaching and learning well-being in schools has had attention in relation to the aims in the curriculum (Reiss and White, 2013; FitzPatrick et al., 2014).

In addition to subjects taught in British international schools around the world, one of the outstanding features of teaching would be the significance of the teaching of English to children for whom English is not their first language. Among the children who learn in COBIS member schools, 58% are English as Additional Language (EAL) students, and nearly 90% of the schools offer EAL language support for those children in schools (Independent Schools Council, 2015). This large number of EAL children in British international schools appeared to match the trend of local parents' school choice, and as a result of the growing number of EAL children, British international schools have a variety of nationalities or linguistic backgrounds of children in their schools.

Thus, among British international schools around the world, the most common curriculum taught has been England's national curriculum and the primary phase is the most common. With regard to subjects, English and Mathematics have been the most emphasised subjects; especially, the teaching of English has become critical because of the growing number of children who have different language backgrounds. Nevertheless, the application of England's national curriculum for the subject English in a British international school at primary level in an

international context has never been researched before.

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1.3 International Schools in Japan

Although there is no legal definition for international schools in Japan, the Central Council for Education of the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) regards international schools as “educational institutes that provide lessons mainly in English language to foreign national pupils”¹ (MEXT, n.d.). In Japan, international schools are considered part of ‘foreign schools’, which include Chinese, Korean, Brazilian and Indian schools. These schools are categorised as ‘miscellaneous schools’, which are not legitimate schools under the Japanese School Education Law. These foreign schools are approved by prefectural governors, and there are 127 approved foreign schools in Japan, of which 32 are English-medium international schools (MEXT, 2012²).

These English-medium international schools do not need to follow the Courses of Study, or the national curriculum of Japan, and the selection of curriculum is left to the discretion of each international school. However, among the approved international schools, the most common curriculum taught is that of the International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme (IBDP), which is adopted by 26 English-medium international schools in Japan (International Baccalaureate Organization, 2016). This suggests that the tendency of curriculum choice among international schools in Japan is different from that of international schools around the world, where the most common curriculum taught is England’s national curriculum. These international schools that teach curricula that is different from Japan’s national curriculum have had an issue in relation to school transfer from international schools to state schools in Japan.

Children who are educated in international primary or secondary schools cannot transfer or continue to the next phase of education in state schools in Japan because being educated in international primary or secondary schools is not regarded as having completed compulsory education in the Japanese

¹ Translated by the researcher

² The data is the latest as of December 2017

education system. However, a number of private schools accept children who wish to transfer from international schools. Until the year 2000, students who graduated from international schools were not qualified to continue to higher education in universities in Japan. In 2002, qualifications of candidacy of the University Entrance Qualification Examination were extended to students who graduated from international schools. However, this examination was for those who did not complete education in high schools in the Japanese education system; therefore, many of the students who went to international schools in Japan continued to higher education in English-speaking countries.

At present, due to the mitigation by the Japanese government, students who are graduated from international schools that are recognised by the three international organisations: Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC), Council of International Schools (CIS), and Association of Christian Schools International (ACSI), are qualified to continue to study at universities in Japan without taking the University Entrance Qualification Exam. However, many of the international school graduates still choose universities in English-speaking countries against universities in Japan. Thus, school transfer is one of the major issues in relation to international schools in Japan.

1.4 British International Schools in Japan

There was a common reason for the background to the establishment of the British international schools around the world, and in Japan they were also formed in response to British parents who were in need of British style education in Japan. One of the British international schools in Japan states their aim as offering a broad and balanced skill based curriculum, which has its foundations in England's National Curriculum (Lionel British School (LBS) [pseudonym], 2012). Another British international school in Japan says their aim is to develop children's character such as social, emotional, and physical aspects as well as their academic achievement, "there is an emphasis on the development of the whole child ... our Christian ethos guides us towards a particular focus on the values of integrity, compassion, responsibility, respect, tolerance, honesty and endeavour" (St Paul's International School [pseudonym], 2016).

Although there are networking events for the COBIS member schools around the world such as annual conferences, there are no particular associated activities or events between the British international schools in Japan. Apart from the COBIS, the British international Schools in Japan can be associated with the Japan Council of International Schools (JCIS), the CIS, the Independent Schools Association (ISA), and the WASC. Inspections on the British international schools in Japan have been carried out by these organisations. One of the British international schools in Japan was inspected by the CIS and by the WASC and the inspection reports were published, whereas another British international school in Japan was inspected based on the British government's British Schools Overseas (BSO) scheme. The Independent Schools Inspectorate (ISI) inspected the school, and the inspection reports were also published. Therefore, the level of practice of the British government's policy between British international schools in Japan is different from school to school.

The level of the practice of the British government's policy can also be seen in the implementation of the school curriculum in British international schools in Japan. One of the schools offers education from the nursery to the sixth-form adopting only England's national curriculum, whereas the IPC has been adopted along with England's national curriculum in another British international school in Japan. With regard to the subjects taught in the British international schools in Japan, one teaches all of the compulsory subjects following the *National curriculum in England: Key stages 1 and 2 framework document* (DfE, 2013); however, the allocation time for science on the timetable is far less than the other two core subjects, English and Mathematics. Another school regards only English and Mathematics as core subjects and teaches all of the other compulsory subjects stated in England's national curriculum except Religious Education (R.E.).

English and Mathematics are also regarded as the most emphasised subjects in British international schools in Japan. Between the two subjects, the teaching of English is becoming highly important in British international schools in Japan as well as those around the world because of the growing number of children who have different language backgrounds. English is the common language in these English-medium British international schools, and being able to communicate with people of other cultures is one of the fundamental aims of international education (Hill, 2000). Despite the significance of teaching English in British international schools in Japan, information about the teaching of English in the schools that follow England's national curriculum is still not extensive enough to picture, and British international schools in Japan have never been researched in relation to the enactment of England's national curriculum in a different context before.

1.5 The Focus of the Present Study

Given the issues raised above, the present study explored the enactment of England's national curriculum, for the subject of English, in a British international primary school in Japan. The present study particularly focused on curriculum aims and curriculum knowledge. There has been a debate in relation to curriculum aims and curriculum knowledge, which has been developed based on the claim made by Michael Young (2007). Young's claim was that acquiring the knowledge with theoretical concepts associated with different subjects should be the aim for schooling (Young, 2007; 2012). One of the major critiques of this claim was that the rationale was not sufficient for the reason that acquiring knowledge should be the ultimate aim for schooling, and that the aim of schooling ought to be the development of the children's character as well as acquiring knowledge (White, 2012).

In fact, Young's claim of the concept of knowledge was based on discussions in relation to the curriculum in secondary school and in further education. The title of Young's own article clearly stated that the focus of his discussion was between the ages 14 and 19 (Young, 2011). Young also referred to "specialist subject teachers in schools" (Young, 2012) when discussing the concept of knowledge in the curriculum, which suggested secondary and higher education phases. The curriculum aims and curriculum knowledge cannot be the same when teaching five year old pupils at primary schools and nineteen year old students at university. Therefore, the focus of the present study is to explore the trustworthiness of the claim made by Young at primary school phase.

Not only the phases of education but also the context of schooling needs to be considered when discussing curriculum aims and curriculum knowledge. Johnson (2007) discussed that knowledge is socially organised in society, therefore some knowledge has higher status, and this would affect what should be taught in schools. Lingard (2012) also argued the 'selective tradition' of the knowledge in the curriculum, saying that from all that could be taught,

selective decisions are taken about what to include at what stages and for whom. Thus, exploring how the teachers select knowledge from England's national curriculum when it is taught in an international context would be able to contribute to the discussions in the field of curriculum studies.

Thus, the following main research question and three subsidiary research questions were formulated:

Main question

How do the teachers enact England's national curriculum for English in a British international primary school in Japan?

Subsidiary questions

In what ways do teachers' aims for English lessons relate to the aims in the national curriculum?

In what ways is knowledge enacted in English lessons through the process of teaching?

How do teachers select the elements from England's national curriculum for English lessons?

In order to address the research questions, a single case study with a British international school in Japan based on document analysis, interviews with teachers and lesson observations was conducted. The theoretical framework that informed the present study in relation to curriculum aims and curriculum knowledge and related research studies will be discussed further in the next literature review chapter.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses how the present study is located in curriculum theory and the related empirical research studies. After briefly introducing the literature search strategies that were adopted for the literature review, the issues of education policy-making in line with the concept of policy sociology will be discussed. The essential conceptions in international education along with the terminology that can often cause confusion in the context of international education will then be discussed. This is followed by the introduction of the particular type of international school that the present study looks at. The existing definitions of the curriculum will then be considered in order to define the concept of the curriculum for the present study. The issues in relation to England's national curriculum that include the fundamental purpose of a national curriculum will also be discussed with reference to its brief history. The main line of argument in the literature review is related to aims and knowledge in the curriculum, and in particular the potential incoherence between the contents of the curriculum and the aims of education. This line of argument is explored by drawing on relevant curriculum theories and research studies.

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2.2 Approach to Searching and Reviewing the Literature

Literature was screened by inclusion and exclusion criteria. According to the Evidence for Policy and Practice Information and Co-ordinating Centre (EPPI) (2007), explicit inclusion and exclusion criteria specify which literature is to be included in the review (p.4). Adopting inclusion and exclusion criteria also enabled the researcher to establish the logical justification for the selection of the literature for the present study.

It was necessary for the researcher to set inclusion and exclusion criteria with the following elements: which language or languages to search; what is the timeframe, i.e. how far back the researcher needs to search; and what subject areas might be relevant to search when conducting a literature review (Hart, 1998, p.32). English was the main language used to search and at an earlier stage of the literature review, the timeframe was limited from 1988 to the present because the England's national curriculum was introduced in England in 1988.

As the literature search proceeded, it was noticed that there were a number of significant publications in curriculum theory and the literature that was useful to form theoretical frameworks for the present study prior to the year of 1988; therefore the timeframe was modified as 'work published to the present'. Unpublished literature was also included if they were in the form of conference papers or doctoral theses. Regarding the subject areas, the topics such as the curriculum; subject English at primary level; and international schools were selected.

In the actual process of the literature search, the following search engines of information were used: UCL IOE Library Catalogue; British Educational Index (BEI); University College London (UCL) Institute of Education (IOE) Repository; Education Recourses Information Centre (ERIC); London University Online Library; Web of Science; System for Information on Grey Literature (SIGLE); Citation Information by National Institute of Informatics (CiNii); UK E-Theses Online Service (EThOS); and Google Scholar.

The following were used for the keyword search: 'national curriculum', 'pedagogy', 'primary schools', 'primary strategy', 'literacy', 'aims' of education', 'knowledge in the curriculum', 'English education', 'English teaching', 'international schools', 'international curriculum', 'international education', 'British schools', 'Japan'. While reviewing the literature, a visual tool called 'concept mapping' (Maxwell, 2005, p.47) was often used in order to identify significant works, debates, and their relationships to each other.

Thus, the literature review was conducted based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria. The ways of organising the ideas or debates using circles and arrows had been used before the strategy had its name. Although the search engines, databases or software enabled researchers to deal with an enormous amount of literature in a very short time, the idea of reviewing literature - that is weighing the literature and reading their arguments critically in order to identify the issues to be addressed in a thesis - would remain the same regardless of technology.

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2.3 Policy Sociology and the Curriculum

When discussing a national curriculum, it is necessary to explore the education policy of the nation state because the national curriculum reflects the educational policies of the government. Policy sociology is an approach to analysing education policy with a view to providing solutions to social problems, which has been recognised since the 1980s. The concept of policy sociology was first introduced by Payne et al. (1981) with the discussions in relation to the state of British sociology and policy research.

Research studies on education policy had been conducted in the 1960s and 1970s prior to the emergence of the concept of policy sociology with growing attention to critical policy analysis. However these research studies for education policy mainly adopted quantitative methods such as statistics or surveys for their analyses, and there was a demand for research studies through detailed accounts of social problems by utilising qualitative methods.

Policy sociology was first introduced with the term 'qualitative' by Ozga (1987) as "[policy sociology was] rooted in the social science tradition, historically informed and drawing on qualitative and illuminative techniques" (p.144), which has been regarded as a rationale for policy sociology to be considered as qualitative methodology. However, this introduction by Ozga received criticism in terms of the lack of practicality as methodology for research studies in the discipline of sociology.

In the discipline of sociology, even though there have been different schools, they often share the common fundamental purpose. Whitty (1985) distinguished the sociological study of education policy at Oxford, which was led by A. H. Halsey and John Goldthorpe, from those at UCL IOE, which was led by Michael Young, calling them the 'old' and the 'new' sociology of education respectively. Young (1971) made a change to the direction of the sociological study of education by exploring for the first time the teacher's role in inequality of opportunity in education. However, both the 'old' and the 'new' sociological study of education policy considered social problems in education such as inequality of opportunity, which is often caused by economic differences between social classes, and sought to provide solutions in order

to reduce economically disadvantaged children in education.

Policy sociology also shared the fundamental purpose of the discipline of sociology. Whitty (2002) articulated that the tradition of policy sociology lay in the discussions developed by Karl Mannheim. Whitty argued that the questions and sociological concepts that Mannheim left to the discipline of sociology would help make sense of education policy, particularly the changes in education policy for the school curriculum over the decades, and that education policy should not be considered in isolation because policy sociology was the sociological study of education policy.

This focus of the sociological study of education policy however is to seek the solutions to the inequality of opportunity in education that are caused by different economic circumstances. Therefore the sociological study of education policies may not be sufficient to provide solutions to social problems that are often identified in the context of international education because, in the international context, the differences among children include different mixes of language backgrounds, the cultures of their home countries and economic differences between social classes.

The theoretical conceptions of policy sociology were explored through the analyses of the process of education policy-making. Bowe, Ball and Gold (1992) developed the theoretical framework of policy sociology by differentiating the processes of education policy-making between decision-making, creation, and its implementation. However, these three contexts of education policy-making suggested only two institutions where educational policies were produced and practised: government and school. Despite the fact that the fundamental purpose of the discipline of sociology was to seek solutions to social problems, this theoretical framework did not include the context of social communities outside the school such as home. The context of social communities outside the school ought not to be underestimated because educational policies would influence children's lives outside the school as well as their lives in the school.

The theoretical framework of policy sociology was extended further by Ball (1994a) by adding two more contexts to the original framework: the context of outcomes; and the context of political strategy. Yeatsman (1998) argued the importance of these additional contexts of evaluation and monitoring to the process of education policy-making by saying that education policy-making process is the dynamics of increased complexity and uncertainty in the society ... it is necessary for policy makers to adapt to ongoing change, complexity and uncertainty through the policy-making cycle (p.31). Bowe et al. (1992) also pointed out the relationships between education policy-making and the complexity of the society, saying that the artificial separation from generation of the process for education policy-making resulted in over-simplified models of education policy-making processes (p.14).

The research studies in relation to policy sociology however tended to focus on the context of decision-making and on the context of creation at the government level rather than exploring the relationships between the process of education policy-making and society. Ball (1990) elaborated the concept of policy sociology by discussing the role of power in the process of education policy-making. Ball argued that there were particular moments of decision-making that had an influence on the process of education policy-making. Ball's argument suggested that analysing education policy could mean the inseparable relationships between politics, government and state departments in the process of education policy-making.

The role of power appeared to be the central issue of the process of education policy-making in the contexts of government and state departments. McPherson and Raab (1988) analysed the relationships between the key policy makers for the major British education policies, including curriculum changes in Scotland, and introduced the concept of 'policy community'. They used the term 'policy community' to refer to a group in the central government who were involved in education policy-making. They defined the policy community as "a set of persons and groups which stretches across the divide between government and outside interests, and which is directly involved in the making and implementation of policy" (p.472), and highlighted that the

people in the policy community were a handful of elites in the central government.

In order to analyse the relationships between the policy makers within the policy community, McPherson and Raab conducted twenty five interviews with the elite policy makers from the policy community in the central government. As a result, the themes such as curriculum changes, influence of inspectorates, and central financing of education emerged through analysing the detailed accounts of the process of education policy-making. Their claim was that decision-making by the policy community was manipulated by the central government and that education policies were a product of the exercise of power. They also identified that there was a power struggle between the central government and the inspectorate, which weakened the independence of the inspectorate from political control. They emphasised that education policy-making by the policy community sustained inequities between groups, including social classes, suggesting that this reflected the inseparability between education and politics.

This power struggle within the policy community was called a 'tension system' by Lawton (1986). Lawton conducted policy sociology research aiming to reveal which groups of people were involved in education policy-making at the then Department for Education and Science (DES) in England and identified the following: politicians; public officials (e.g. bureaucrats); and professional educators. He argued that the decision-making in the process of education policy-making was compromise and negotiation within the policy community rather than the result of consensus of groups. These policy sociology research studies focusing on the relationships within the policy community would be categorised as 'elite studies' in the types of policy sociology research, which was developed by Maguire and Ball (1994). They analysed policy sociology research studies in the UK and categorised them into three groups: elite studies; trajectory studies; and implementation studies, where elite studies explored the process of decision-making for education policies and trajectory studies and implementation studies considered the practice of education policies.

As an example of trajectory and implementation studies, Alexander (1997) illustrated a local educational reform implemented by the Local Education Authority (LEA) in Leeds, England in the late 1980s, which was aimed at improving teaching and learning in the city of Leeds. He focused on six themes including children's needs, the curriculum, and teaching strategies of the educational reform, and discussed education policy and politics both at local and national level based on detailed accounts with a view to developing the concept of 'good primary practice'. Although he highlighted the importance of the links between education policy and politics, he argued that the national curriculum for England has failed to solve problems faced by local education authorities providing a broad, balanced, and relevant curriculum (p.212). He also claimed that governments and state departments were not ideal policy makers for education policy. In fact, he quoted the statement by the then Education Secretary Kenneth Clarke in 1991, "questions about how to teach are not for government to determine" (Alexander 1992; 1994), more than once in his works.

Issues such as the efficiency of governments and state departments as policy-makers for education policy and the purpose of policy sociology that were discussed at local and national level have also been discussed in the context of globalisation. However, regarding the concept of globalisation, Rizvi and Lingard (2000) pointed out that western interests were often transmitted through globalising and tended to lead to uneven benefits that could create greater social stratification. They also argued that the interpretation of the concept of globalisation should be reconsidered and reinterpreted in relation to local level initiatives. Therefore, the term 'the global level' is used to refer to the context of globalisation. Rizvi and Lingard (2010) highlighted the inefficiency of state departments in governments as policy makers for education policy at the global level, arguing that they have caused it to become less flexible and advocating more concern to propagandise the imperial values of competition and economic efficiency. They claimed that economic, social and political changes were the central elements that affected education policy-making by governments or state departments. They also recognised that prioritising the economic growth through raising the standard of education

would result in widening inequality of opportunity in education because education policy that considered economic growth as its main purpose ignored the complexity of cultural and social values.

Although all of the types of policy sociology research discussed above revealed that there were issues in relation to education policy-making by the policy community in state departments of governments at local, national and global level, there has been little practical discussion with regard to the replacement of the role as policy makers for education policy other than state departments in governments. Therefore, it was time to develop the concept of alternative policy makers that could replace state departments or governmental institutions for education policy-making and to start working for its actualisation. This issue of the delay in practical discussions can stem from the tendency of the tradition of sociology, which often considers the theories developed by other academic sociologists. Burawoy (2005) pointed out that the tradition of sociology tended to consider the theories developed by other academic sociologists and claimed that sociology should shift to purpose-focused 'public sociology'. He suggested that the boundaries of sociology ought to be expanded to the wider audience such as non-academics so that sociology would be able to consider cross-disciplined issues.

Sociological studies of education have been recognised as multi-disciplinary type of sociology as Ball (2004) suggested that there was no clear distinction between who is a sociologist of education and who is not (p.1). Policy sociology should also remain a cross-disciplined type of sociology because of the nature of education policy. Education policy usually encourages support for children's happiness and well-being that should lead to humans flourishing; therefore, arguably education policy should apply to every single child in any context regardless of the discipline of subject. Lingard (2013) made the point that changes in educational policies are of particular interest to policy sociologists, whereas the main focus of curriculum studies is curriculum, pedagogy and assessment. However, as Lingard stated, the enacted curriculum has become a central policy plank in broader economic and social policies in the UK, therefore, exploring the enactment of England's national curriculum in an international context may shed light on education policy-

making at the global level.

So far the development and the issues of policy sociology have been discussed. The sociologically inspired purpose of policy sociology that was to seek solutions to social problems, such as inequality of opportunity in education, was not fulfilled by governments and state departments as policy makers for education policy. The central issue in relation to the failure of education policy-making by governments was power struggle within the policy community in the process of education policy-making, and there have been little practical discussions and solutions to solve the problems.

The issues of policy sociology discussed above were situated in a Western context. In an Eastern context however, there have been a course of proposals and practices in the society in order to contribute to education policy-making, taking into account the issues raised above. Ikeda ³ (1969) proposed that education ought to be independent as state power along with legislation, justice, and administrative authority. This proposal has been analysed from several perspectives, for example, past debates around independence of education as state power, comparison of educational power in different countries, the possibilities of independence of education as state power at local, national and international level. Osaki (2014) compiled these analyses and developed the theoretical conceptions for actualising independence of education as state power. These ground-breaking structural reforms would not only provide solutions to the issues such as power struggle within the policy community in relation to education policy-making, but also create the society that values education most highly.

Regarding state departments or governmental institutions as policy makers for education policy, Ikeda (1974) criticised education reforms led by the politics-influenced government in Japan, and he argued that education policy-making more focussed on human-beings was crucial. Ikeda (1984) continued to discuss the necessity of education reform that focused on human-beings in order for

³ Citations from Ikeda's works in this section were translated by the researcher.

children to develop their totality, creativity, and internationality. He introduced the concept of totality in education based on the significance of links between all things, and suggested a shift from individuality of knowledge to totality of wisdom. He highlighted the links between children's experience and the society, saying that realising children's own actions were helpful and served to the society would build confidence in children, and this would become a solid foundation for the growth of mind and heart of the children (p. 8)⁴.

He also emphasised the importance of developing creativity in children, which, he pointed out, often remained a personal domain, hence children were not given opportunities to fully flourish as part of state education. Ikeda argued that creativity begins to spring as if a fountain when the learner and the teacher inspire each other based on unconditional trust. It is a strict but warm training process of inspiration between the soul of the teacher and the soul of the student. (p.9) ⁵. He discussed internationality from a Japanese national's perspective, saying that internationality in Japan has been either exclusivism or foreign supremacy, and that Japan ought to aim to be a culture-oriented country, not economy-oriented or military-oriented. He highlighted that being a good Japanese citizen would not be contradicted by being a good global citizen (p.9)⁶. Ikeda also suggested the necessity of the shift from 'education for the society' to 'the society for education', arguing that education in terms of cultivating a person was the mission that the whole society should be responsible for, not only schools (p.9)⁷.

⁴ Citation to the original, “自らの行動が社会の役に立っていると実感する経験は、子ども達の自信となり、心の成長の確かな礎となっていくであります”

⁵ Citation to the original, “「創造性」を薫発しゆく土壌は、人間と人間の打ち合いにあるからであります。無償の信頼関係に支えられた、ある時は厳しく、ある時は温かい魂と魂の打ち合いと鍛えの触発作業 をとおしてこそ、創造的生命というものは、泉のごとく湧き出してくるからであります”

⁶ Citation to the original, “「良き日本人」であることは「良き国際人」であることと、決して矛盾せず、むしろ、両々相まって真実のコスモポリタン（世界市民）たりうるのであります”

⁷ Citation to the original, “「人を育てる」という意味での教育は、本来学校現場だけでなく、社会全体で担うべき使命であります”

Ikeda's proposals were underpinned by the concept of humanistic education that aimed to cultivate children's intrinsic nature. He emphasised that it was critical to increase the opportunities to read classics and significant literature to cultivate children's and the youth's character (Ikeda, 2001). This relationship between reading significant literature and the development of children's character cannot be overemphasised, because through reading stories, the reader could travel to a particular setting in the past and experience different lives; as a result, the reader's imagination would be cultivated.

These proposals made by Ikeda have started to be acted upon as well as being discussed as conceptual frameworks. In June 2016, the first World Summit of Educators was held in June 2016 at Soka University of America, in the USA, which was chaired by former United Nations Under-Secretary-General, Anwarul Chowdhury. The summit had delegates from thirty-two countries, including an honorary founder of the International Peace Education Centre, Betty Reardon, and the president of International Association of Universities, Dzulkifli Razak. This summit was conceptualised in the education proposal and in the presentation made by Ikeda (1974; 1996), where he suggested that there should be a worldwide conference of educators instead of the G8 Education Summit that was led by governments. Towards the end of the summit, the Declaration of the World Summit of Educators was adopted.

In summary, the sociological studies of education policy that have used policy sociology methodology have revealed that governments and state departments may not be ideal policy makers of education policy at local, national and global levels because of the power struggle within the policy community. It is necessary to continue the discussion for a ground-breaking reform for education policy-making such as the education proposals made by Ikeda and the recent practices based on his proposals in order to address the issues in education policy-making and to create the society for education.

2.4 International Education and the Curriculum

The previous section addressed international influences that go beyond the limits of education policy-making by single governments, or single state, departments. When considering international cooperation, it is necessary to understand the curriculum in the context of international education. There have been three main areas of attention in academic study of the curriculum in international education: a) the concept of 'international'; b) international curricula; and c) international schools. One of the widely accepted concepts of 'international' education is as global education through the integration, into national systems of education, of ideas that go beyond national boundaries (Hayden, 2006, p.3). The first definition of international education was formulated at the Conference of Internationally- minded Schools at the International School of Geneva in 1950, which reads:

It should give the child an understanding of his [*sic*] past as a common heritage to which all men irrespective of nation, race or creed have contributed and which all men should share; it should give him an understanding of his present world as a world in which peoples are interdependent and in which corporation is a necessity.

In such education emphasis should be laid on a basic attitude of respect for all human beings as persons, understanding of those things which unite us and an appreciation of the positive values of those things which may seem to divide us, with the objective of thinking free from fear or prejudice (Hill, 2002, p. 22).

In this definition of international education, the most critical aspect of international education appeared to understand the 'common heritage' of human beings. Hill (2002) argued with regard to this concept of understanding the 'common heritage' of human beings, saying that it was the activities where students discover what is similar and different between the students' home countries and that the students are expected to learn that the world that they

live in is interdependent. However, the claim made by Hill focused on the commonalities between 'the students' home countries' while the 'common heritage' of human beings can be sought between students as well as between their home countries.

This awareness of understanding the 'common heritage' between human beings is also conceptualised as 'international-mindedness' in the context of international education. Skelton (2002) asserted that the concept of 'international-mindedness' was akin to principles such as universal values; valuing freedom; intercultural understanding; non-violence; and conflict resolution, which were stated in the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) declaration of 1996. Therefore, the concept of understanding 'common heritage' of human beings is to seek value that can apply regardless of differences throughout the world such as humanity.

These humanistic conceptions in the definition of international education became the basis of the principles of one of the widely recognised international curricula, the IBDP. Hill (2000), who was also recognised as the founding father of the IB programmes, stated that an international curriculum was expected to teach that world peace can only be achieved when different cultures learn to live together in mutual understanding and respect based on the universal human values (pp. 28-29). However, the aims of the IB programmes were criticised for not being developed enough as to how to practise through the implementation of the IB. Bartlett (1996, 1997) argued that two practical aspects ought to be focused on in relation to the aims of the IB: multi-language proficiency and interest in other cultures.

Learning different languages leads to exploring commonalities between students as well as the students' home countries and it would also develop the students' interests in other cultures. However, several national curricula adopt a subject of 'modern foreign language' from primary school level and 'multi-language proficiency' and 'interest in other cultures' can be achieved through learning based not only on an international curriculum but also a national curriculum. Bartlett (1998) argued what it meant to be 'knowledgeable' in international education was the most difficult to resolve (p.86). This issue of the selection of knowledge can include which curriculum the school adopts.

Lawton (1986) claimed that the curriculum was a representation of the culture of a society. This issue of the curriculum as 'a different representation of the culture of a society' becomes more complex when an international school, that has students with different cultural backgrounds, adopts a national curriculum that is different from the local curriculum and practises the national curriculum in a different context.

Also, there are cases of some of the private schools in England adopting international curricula such as the IPC, programmes of the IB or the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE), and the number of schools adopting these international curricula is increasing (James, 2005, p. 315). Therefore, the situation of the curriculum in international education has several different combinations according to which curriculum (or a combined curriculum) the school adopts. Thompson (1998) introduced four categories of international curricula and national curricula according to the backgrounds and the ways they are adopted in schools: creation; adaptation; integration; and exportation. It is useful to look at international curricula and national curricula in these four categories in order to understand how these curricula are practised internationally.

International curricula such as the IPC, the International Baccalaureate Primary Years Programme (IBPYP), the International Baccalaureate Middle Years Programme (IBMYP), and the Cambridge International Primary Programme were considered as 'created' international curricula because they were designed from the beginning (Hayden, 2006). International curricula such as the IGCSE, French Baccalaureate Option Internationale, the Advanced International Certificate of Education (AICE), and the Advanced Placement International Diploma (APID) were designed based on national curricula with adaptations for use in different contexts, mostly in international schools; therefore, these international curricula were regarded as 'adapted' international curricula.

International curricula such as the European Baccalaureate and the IBDP were categorised into the 'integrated' international curricula because they consisted of some elements selected from other international or national curricula. These recognised international curricula categorised in creation,

adaptation, and integration were originally designed with a view to being practised in international schools; however, national curricula have also been practised in an international context. Thompson (1998) categorised these international curricula that were practised in an international context as 'exported' curricula, saying that [it is] the marketing abroad of existing national curricula and examinations with little adjustment (p.278).

There are a number of examples of the 'exported' national curricula that are practised in international schools around the world including French, German, Japanese, English-medium, British and American international schools (Hayden, 2006, p.133). However, despite the fact that many international schools practise the exported national curricula in different contexts, their application in international schools abroad has not been discussed as fully as that of the international curricula. Also, the discussions about international curricula tend to focus too much on its content; therefore it is necessary to explore the pedagogical practices of the international curricula as well as national curricula that are practised in different contexts.

International curricula and exported national curricula are practised in different contexts mainly in international schools. There is, however, no coherent agreement on the concept of 'international school'. Hayden (2006) pointed out that confusion has resulted from the fact that no one organisation internationally could grant the right to use of the term 'international school' in a school's title (p.10). In fact, as discussed in the Introduction, there are more than 2,000 schools outside the UK that teach elements of England's national curriculum. These schools call themselves British schools, British international schools, or merely international schools.

Confusion is especially caused because of the term, 'British schools'. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (OED [online]), 'British school' means "a non-denominational elementary school of a type founded by the British and Foreign School Society (formed in 1814) and run according to the educationalist Joseph Lancaster's system of using older pupils to help teach younger children". Joseph Lancaster (1778 – 1838) was one of the innovators of education in the UK, who made education accessible to poorer people by founding a free primary school, the Borough Road Free School, in London in

1798. The British and Foreign School Society (BFSS) supported this 'Lancasterian' school, which had large 'schoolrooms' (classrooms) and a monitoring system by older children during lessons. Lancaster established these schools mainly in England and Wales in the late eighteenth century. However, these 'British schools' were created in the UK for British children and they were not international schools, which should have different student nationalities. Therefore, these Lancasterian British schools need to be distinguished from British schools overseas when using the term 'British schools' in a context of international education.

Thus, schools call themselves international schools for a variety of reasons including: the nature of the student population (such as demographic background); the curriculum offered; marketing and competition with other schools in the area; and the school's overall ethos and mission (Hayden, *op cit.*). For example, a range of student nationalities was considered as one of the commonalities in early international schools. The International School of Geneva (Switzerland) and the Yokohama International School (Japan), which were both established in 1924, have been regarded as the oldest international schools in existence. They were both created for the needs of the foreign communities in Geneva and in Yokohama. Sylvester (2002) claimed that the International College that was open from 1866 to 1889 at Spring Grove in London (UK) was the first international school, and the International College also had students with different nationalities. Also, the oldest British international school among the COBIS membership schools was the St. Paul's School in Sao Paulo (Brazil), established in 1896. St. Paul's School also offered education for different nationalities.

Given the context of international schools, which includes teaching children with different nationalities in this global era, Voogt and Roblin (2012), argued that there was a need for changes in national curricula in line with 21st century competences. They explored the definition of 21st century competences in order to identify the issues for implementation of competences in educational practice. They conducted document analysis with 32 documents for 21st century competences collected from the United Nations, the European Union, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the

Department of Education of United States of America, and international enterprises such as Apple, Microsoft, Intel or Cisco.

Their findings revealed that the following five aspects were mentioned in all of the documents: collaboration; communication; Information Technology (IT) literacy; social and/or cultural skills; and citizenship. As a result of the analysis, they also claimed that the issues for the implementation of competences in educational practice would be how to define the importance and roles of these skills, and their place within the curriculum. Also, they highlighted that the role of teachers and their professional development would be highly necessary in order to implement these skills in educational practice.

With the glowing attention of the enactment of curricula in the international context, Nisbet (2014) explored whether it was possible for international education and national education to co-exist in educational practice. She argued that one of the fundamental aims of international education was to develop global citizens, whereas the aim of national education was to promote knowledge about the student's own country, patriotism and commitment to national values. She defined national education as the education system of a nation-state including national curricula, and claimed that there would be potential conflicts between international education and national education in terms of the aims of education. She concluded that although there were several common aspects between the curricula of international education and national education, they were not compatible. Thus, the discussions in relation to the practice of national curricula in the international context have been seen; however, since curriculum studies of national curricula in an international context is a relatively new area of research, the discussions remain at a conceptual level, and there is still space to discuss how national curricula should be enacted in schools in an international context.

Thus, although the discussions in relation to the concepts of international education, international curricula or international schools have been developed, the discussions in relation to the practice of a national curriculum in a different context is a relatively new area where few research studies have been conducted. The type of international school that the present study considers is a British international school that follows England's national

curriculum outside the UK, hence, this will help to understand the application of a national curriculum in a different context.

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2.5 Defining the Curriculum

The review of literature in relation to curriculum in the international context have been developed around the concepts of international curricula. In this section academic definitions of curriculum are explored in order to clearly signal the definitions that informed this dissertation. When discussing the definitions of the curriculum, it is necessary to note that the definitions of the curriculum can vary depending on its central focus. The focuses include those who learn through the curriculum (learners); those who teach the curriculum (educators); and the process of teaching and learning. Also, the definitions of the curriculum are differentiated depending on its format because the conceptions of the curriculum often include ethos, vision and philosophy that underpin a curriculum, whereas the curriculum can also take a formally written form.

One of the early curriculum theories that focused on learners was developed by Franklin Bobbitt. Bobbitt (1918) argued that the curriculum ought to have strong links to the society and correspond to the needs of the individual child. Bobbitt defined the curriculum as “the entire range of experiences that aims to unfold the abilities of the individual” (p.43). Rugg (1927) also focused on learners and emphasised the importance of curriculum planning in advance of designing a curriculum. He defined the curriculum as “a succession of experiences and enterprises having a maximum lifelikeness for the learner ... giving the learner that development most helpful in meeting and controlling life situations” (p.8).

Both of the definitions formulated by Bobbitt and Rugg focused on the individual learner, whereas Caswell and Campbell (1935) defined the curriculum as “composed of all the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers” (p.66), which highlighted the existence of educators, and also emphasised the process of how the curriculum ought to be enacted. Tyler (1957) referred to the role of learning institutions in his definition, saying “[the curriculum is] all the learning experiences planned and directed by the school” (p.79). Although there are different focuses in the definitions, the common concept that was emphasised in all the definitions of the curriculum

was 'experience'.

This tendency of highlighting the concept of 'experience' in the definitions of the curriculum can be linked with *The Child and the Curriculum* (1902) by John Dewey. Dewey argued, based on the philosophy of pragmatism, that education ought to be tied to children's experience rather than abstract thought. However, experience can be described as the action that the learner undertakes during the learning process; therefore, the concept of experience does not appear to define the curriculum well in terms of what the curriculum is when it is formally written as documents. Kelly (1977/2009) distinguished the conceptions of the curriculum that schools offer and what is laid down in syllabuses (the planned curriculum) from the curriculum that the children actually experience (the received curriculum) (p.11).

Regarding the received curriculum that the children actually experience, Tanner and Tanner (2006) defined this as "[the curriculum is] the reconstruction of knowledge and experience that enables the learner to grow in exercising intelligent control of subsequent knowledge and experience" (p.189). Their definition included even the next phase for the learner after acquiring knowledge through experience by saying, 'in exercising intelligent control of subsequent knowledge and experience', which can overlap the concept of aims of education. Silva (2008) also highlighted that the purpose of the curriculum ought to be beyond what the curriculum merely offered, as "an emphasis on what students can do with knowledge, rather than what units of knowledge they have" (p.2).

This emphasis on the process of teaching and learning through the curriculum, categorised as 'implemented curriculum', which was conceptualised by van den Akker (2007), focuses on the pedagogical aspect of the curriculum. He also defined the received curriculum as "learning experiences as perceived by learners" (p.38), which would normally be assessed by educators in a learning institution. Van den Akker's definition of the received curriculum suggested that the curriculum, pedagogy and assessment in discussions in relation to the curriculum are closely linked to each other.

With regard to the curriculum as official documents, McBrien and Brandt (1997) defined the planned curriculum as 'a written plan'. However, the essence of the curriculum is not always 'written'. The curriculum that is not written such as 'the hidden curriculum', 'the unstudied curriculum, and 'the implicit curriculum', can also influence learners' values, perceptions and behaviours (Glatthorn, et al., 2015, p. 25). Among the curriculum theorists, Stenhouse (1975) defined the curriculum as, "the essential principles and features of an educational proposal" (p.4), which appeared to include the concept of unwritten form of the curriculum such as 'ethos and mission'.

Thus, a number of definitions of the curriculum have been formulated by curriculum theorists from different perspectives and there is no single coherent academic definition in agreeing the concept of the curriculum. Glatthorn, et al. (2015) suggested two criteria for evaluating a definition of the curriculum: a) it should reflect the general understanding of the term as used by educators; and b) it should be useful to educators in making operational distinctions (p.4). There seems to be several factors that makes it difficult to reach a coherent academic definition of the curriculum, for example, the format of the curriculum (written or unwritten) and the focus of parties who utilise the curriculum (educator or learner).

Given that, for the present study, the following definition of a planned curriculum was formulated: the curriculum is a plan, which is enacted by educators in learning institutions, which outlines the body of knowledge and the related experience for the learner in order to support the learner's development.

2.6 England's National Curriculum

Many British international schools outside the UK follow England's national curriculum by applying it in an international context. The present study explores the enactment of England's national curriculum in a context that has not previously been researched. In order to understand conceptions of England's national curriculum and the debates around how it might be implemented in a different context, a brief exploration of its history is instructive.

When the then Prime Minister James Callaghan made his speech on the curriculum at Ruskin College, the University of Oxford in 1967, a rationale for a national curriculum was for raising educational standards. He insisted that the Government and industry as well as teachers and parents should be more involved with the movements for raising educational standards, which provoked a need for a national curriculum in public opinion. The Government report, *Children and their Primary Schools* (The Plowden Report) was published in the same year, 1967.

In 1981, *The School Curriculum* that became a foundation of the National Curriculum 1988 was published by the then DES and the Welsh Office. In 1988, *English for Ages 5 to 11* that covered only primary education was published, followed by *English for Ages 5 to 16* (The Cox Report), which was published in 1989 and covered both primary and secondary education. The National Curriculum was introduced with the Education Reform Act in 1988.

England's national curriculum was formed in order to raise educational standards. This issue about raising educational standards has been a factor for reviewing the national curriculum. In 2011, the Government publicly announced the launch of a major national curriculum review with a view to producing a new national curriculum in England, which included a great deal about reviewing the place of knowledge in the National Curriculum 1988. The aims of the national curriculum review officially stated by the Department for Education (DfE) included: to consider what subjects should be compulsory at what age; to consider what children should be taught in the main subjects at

what age; to develop a national curriculum that acts as a benchmark for all schools and provides young people with the knowledge they need to move confidently and successfully through their education (DfE, 2011 [online]). However, the review was conducted because of the growing pressure to raise educational standards of England in the rankings of international tests such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), which is run by the OECD.

The then Secretary of State for Education, Michael Gove, indicated one of the fundamental aims of the review in his letter to the chair of the expert panel for the review as, “common to many of the highest-performing jurisdictions which enjoy great teaching is a clear and structured approach to setting out high expectations, with strong school accountability. The Government therefore needs to set the same level of high expectations, especially for those subjects [English, mathematics and science] which are central to school accountability” (personal communication, June 11, 2012).

The Government published a report with a view to raising the standard of schools in the UK, which was inspired by the OECD’s policy, “external accountability is a key driver of improvement in education and particularly important for the least advantaged” (Bew, 2011, p.4). In the report, Bew said, “it is important that we continue to compare ourselves with other countries, as the challenge facing our education system is not only to improve year-on-year, but also to keep pace with the best education systems in the world” (*op cit.*, p.42), so it seemed that one of the major aims of teaching England’s national curriculum was to increase the educational competitiveness as a nation state in line with ‘the best education systems’.

It is inevitable for a government to consider the results of international tests in order to increase the nation’s competitiveness; however, the aim of the PISA tests is economic growth, repeatedly stated in the OECD’s reports as, “better educational outcomes are a strong predictor of economic growth” or “a country’s education levels are a predictor of its economic growth potential” (OECD, 2010, pp.3-6). In fact, the OECD clearly stated the principles of the organisation when it was established in 1960. One of these was to promote economy not education as, “to achieve the highest sustainable economic

growth and employment and a rising standard of living in member countries, while maintaining financial stability, and thus to contribute to the development of the world economy” (OECD, 2015 [online]).

The purpose of international tests such as the PISA is to increase the growth of the world economy based on the principle of the organisation; therefore, the purpose of the PISA is not to promote education. Changing the contents of a national curriculum according to the trend of these international tests is not a substantial development of education in the country. Although achieving economic growth can be a part of the aims of education, it can never replace the aim of education itself because the aim of education ought to achieve ‘humanistic growth’ (Dewey, 1916) rather than ‘economic growth’.

The implementation of national and international tests have had a negative impact on accomplishing the aims of England’s national curriculum. Jones (2010) conducted a survey with a questionnaire aimed at Year 2 to Year 6 primary teachers in the area of Northumberland Local Authority in England in order to investigate teachers’ responses in relation to the introduction of the national curriculum tests. His starting point was the idea that the concept of ‘standard agenda’ for the national curriculum tests could limit the children’s thinking skills in primary schools. The questionnaires were sent to all the class teachers of Year 2 and Year 6 in the area and 104 teachers responded. He concluded that pedagogies in classrooms tend to be dominated by the preparation for the national curriculum tests.

Also, Gibbons (2013) critically argued that the purpose of the new National Curriculum 2014 in England was inspired by today’s international competition-driven pressure. He revisited the early documents produced by the London Association for the Teaching of English (LATE) in order to remind the aims of teaching of English, and he concluded that programmes of study ought to be for teachers to design. The issues in relation to the aims or objectives of the curriculum seems how to place the aims of education and the preparation for national or international tests together in a national curriculum in order to maximise the child’s ability as well as raising international competitiveness.

So far, I have argued that the issue of England’s national curriculum is its fundamental purpose, which has shifted to perform well in international tests.

I will discuss several issues in relation to the practice of England's national curriculum: less attention of oracy and room for the development of pedagogy.

The teaching of English in England has had a strong focus on literacy, and oracy has had less attention. Regarding the issues and the place of oracy in England's national curriculum, Beard (1999) argued that oracy teaching tended to recognise the Standard English and dialect. He also pointed out the weakness of oracy in English teaching as, "the central place of oracy is not being totally accommodated" (p.50). This tendency of emphasising literacy in England's national curriculum was seen in the Government's policy for English teaching, such as the National Literacy Strategy between 1997 and 2011 and in a number of follow-up studies on the national strategies including Dougill, 1993; Beard, 2000; and Stannard and Huxford, 2007. Although oracy has been practised by children in classrooms to a significant degree by being 'listeners' or 'audience' (Tabor, 1991), the attention to oracy teaching was less than that afforded to literacy teaching.

When we look at England's national curriculum and pedagogy, pedagogy has also had less attention than the curriculum. Simon (1981) argued the historical reasons why this was the case in England and he claimed that universities such as Oxford and Cambridge and the public schools in England avoided a professional training of teaching (p.125). Alexander (2004) also pointed out that pedagogy tended to be subsidiary to the curriculum (p.7). The Government proposed the components of pedagogy in the *Excellence and Enjoyment: A Strategy for Primary Schools* (DfES, 2003a) as, 'learning, teaching, curriculum and culture'; however, Alexander (2004) criticised severely the ideas of pedagogy proposed by the government as, 'the Primary Strategy is found to be ambiguous and possibly dishonest, stylistically demanding, conceptually weak, evidentially inadequate and culpably ignorant of recent educational history' (p.7).

Regarding pedagogy for the subject English, it would be useful to discuss the distinction between England's national curriculum and the National Literacy Framework as well as the knowledge within each document. The National Literacy Framework was one of the government-led strategies, which was

originally published in 1998. It was amended and released as the Primary Framework for Literacy and Mathematics under the Primary National Strategy in 2007. One of the main forms of knowledge in the Primary National Strategy for subject English would be the 'twelve strands for learning' (DfES, 2006). Although the Primary National Strategy has not been statutory as the national curriculum is, it is being used to bridge the national curriculum and the teaching of literacy in classroom in terms of pedagogy, however, the concept of pedagogy has not been consistent enough and there is much room to be developed.

So along with the issues of less authorised place of oracy and less consistent concept of bridging national curriculum and pedagogy, one of the main issues around England's national curriculum was the shift of the fundamental purpose of the national curriculum from raising educational standards of children to increasing the competitiveness in the international tests. This can link to the aims of education and its application in a national curriculum and this will be considered in the next section.

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2.7 Aims in the Curriculum

The aims of education, and the aims of curricula, often share concepts in terms of developing children. Discussions in relation to developing children have built mainly on the two concepts, 'acquiring knowledge' and 'developing children's character', and which aspect of developing children should be prioritised. Bertrand Russell (1926) argued the aims of education distinguishing the concept of acquiring knowledge from developing children's character, and claimed that developing character of children ought to be superior to acquiring knowledge when considering developing children. Whitehead (1929), who was a private tutor for Russell, discussed the aims of education focusing on the significance of 'knowledge'. However, Whitehead recognised the difference between acquiring knowledge and activating the acquired knowledge, and claimed that the aim of education is the acquisition of the art of the utilisation of knowledge. Although Whitehead highlighted the importance of knowledge in relation to the development of children, both Whitehead and Russell valued less the concept of acquiring knowledge.

Although Russell used expressions such as 'to give [children]' or 'to help [children]' in his argument of the aims of education, to 'develop children' did not always mean to 'teach children new things'. Russell (and his wife Dora Russell) recognised that children already possessed the 'intrinsic nature', and this is something to be developed. They discussed this intrinsic nature using a simile as "[recognising intrinsic nature] regards a child as a gardener regards a young tree i.e. as something with a certain intrinsic nature, which will develop into an admirable form given proper soil and air and light" (Russell and Russell, 1923, p.266). Their recognition of the intrinsic nature appears significantly important in relation to the aims of education. If one recognises this intrinsic nature, that is the unlimited possibility or ability in every child, the aims of education ought to be prioritise and maximise this intrinsic nature, especially at primary level.

Maximising or developing the intrinsic nature in children cannot be discussed separately from children's lives. Russell (1938) argued the aims of education focusing on human lives. He claimed that the ultimate aims of education

was to create wise citizens with the sense of liberty in order for the citizens to lead splendid lives (p.251). John Dewey seemed to have similar opinions on these humanistic concepts in relation to the aims of education. Dewey (1916) proposed the characteristics of good educational aims in *Democracy and Education*, saying that an educational aim must be founded on the intrinsic activities and needs such as original instincts and acquired habits of the individual child. Along with Russell, Dewey regarded the intrinsic nature in children significant for the aims of education.

Although Dewey highlighted the importance of methods of the activities and educators for children in the discussions of the characteristics of good educational aims, he deliberately did not refer to specific contents for children to learn. This can be seen from his fundamental claim of education, which was that learning should be tied to the learner's experience. Dewey's argument on the importance of experience in learning revealed an issue in curriculum design, which was incoherence between the aims of education and the contents in the curriculum. He claimed in his work *The Child and the Curriculum* (1902) that subjects and resources in the curriculum should closely be connected to children's experience in learning in order to accomplish the theme of the curriculum and the aims of education. Dewey (1938) pointed out the causes of this issue as a lack of understanding of children and over-focusing on the contents in the curriculum.

This criticism towards curriculum design derived from Dewey's other main argument, which was that the lives of children in schools separate from lessons had significant influence on their learning. Dewey (1900) highlighted the importance of interacting with others and expressing themselves and claimed that learning in schools ought to follow children's natural interests such as communicating with others, knowing the nature of things or enjoying artistic expression, referring to the concept of the 'child-centred curriculum'. He also emphasised the significance of everyday life activities when discussing citizenship and society as, "the things in civilization we most prize are not of ourselves; they exist by grace of the doings and sufferings of the continuous human community in which we are a link" (Dewey, 1934, p.87). Thus, Russell and Dewey both recognised the significance of the intrinsic nature in children

and emphasised that one of the aims of education was to nurture children to become good citizens who lead lives of happiness in the society.

The philosophical concerns of Russell and Dewey in relation to the curriculum and the aims of education were situated in a Western context. There are some similarities and contrasts with the Eastern educator context for philosophy in the work of Tsunesaburo Makiguchi. Makiguchi, a Japanese educator and philosopher, developed the theory of value creation and the principles of humanistic education in the time of Japan's militarisation in *The System of Value-Creating Pedagogy* (Makiguchi, 1930/1979). Makiguchi also took a position that the main aim of education was not to acquire knowledge but that one of its aims was "the provision of keys to unlock the vault of knowledge" (translated by Bethel, 1989, p.168). This is similar to the claim made by Whitehead; both of them stated that the aim of education ought not to be acquiring knowledge but it must be utilising the knowledge.

Makiguchi's argument of the aims of education was built on the value system, which was proposed by Emanuel Kant. Makiguchi argued that the components of the value system, 'cognition of truth' and 'creation of value' contributed to 'a life of happiness'. He highlighted that there are two types of happiness in a human life, 'relative happiness' and 'absolute happiness'⁸. In his theory of value-creating pedagogy, children would be able to pursue the absolute happiness in their lives through "learn[ing] and deriv[ing] wisdom from knowledge in order to create meaningful value in and from any (positive or negative) situation" (Goulah, 2012, p.13).

⁸ 'Relative happiness' concerns the things in our environment that might make us happy (e.g. friends, family, jobs or income) whereas 'absolute happiness' draws on our own inner resources so that we establish a resilient state of life which is not swayed by anything (Harrap, 2014).

Unlike Dewey, Makiguchi (1903/1971) discussed the subjects in the curriculum, emphasising the importance of geographical understanding in *The Geography of Human Life*. He argued that learning Geography would enable children to recognise the connections between themselves and the world. Garrison, Hickman and Ikeda (2014) had a dialogue based on Makiguchi's argument in relation to learning Geography and agreed that children would be able to place themselves in a global context through learning Geography, and this was also an important element for children to grow into global citizens.

In fact, many of the Makiguchi's earlier works were related to the subject of literacy in schools. He focused on a systematic connection between the teaching of reading and writing in particular (Makiguchi, 1898; 1899; 1921). Makiguchi's views towards the aims of literacy can be described as, "to empower learners to be able to write with full autonomy and independence on any subject of their choosing" (Goulah, 2013, p.3). Makiguchi (1936) also pointed out that one of the issues in the teaching of writing in primary schools was that the approaches of writing adopted in Japan were suitable only for a handful of elite students who already possessed a certain level of writing ability. Although there was a contrast between Dewey and Makiguchi with regard to the approach to the subjects in the curriculum, they seemed to have similar perspectives towards the significance of connections between human lives and their community, and the idea of the 'child-centred' curriculum.

There are some limitations with Makiguchi's theory of value-creating pedagogy. First of all, translation of the original Japanese version, *The System of Value-Creating Pedagogy*, is not yet completed. The original version has four volumes with forty-two chapters in seven parts whereas the English translated version entitled *Education for Creative Life* (Bethel, 1989) has only selected chapters from the original version. Also, there have been few empirical studies based on Makiguchi's theory of value-creating pedagogy, although there are some pioneering pieces of research on the theory itself. So, there is much room to explore Makiguchi's value-creating pedagogy in theory and practice.

Thus, one of the commonalities between Russell, Whitehead, Dewey and Makiguchi on the aims of education was that they did not regard the aim of education as merely acquiring or transferring knowledge. They set out the aim

of education as utilising knowledge rather than acquiring knowledge, arguing that the intrinsic nature in every individual child ought to be developed so that they would be able to lead a life of happiness in the society. One of the issues in relation to the discussions on the aims of education is that the agreed concept of the aim of education may sound idealistic, and therefore it has been difficult to actualise the aim through teaching based on the curriculum in practice.

Since Dewey pointed out the issue of incoherence between the contents of the curriculum and the aims of education, this issue has not yet been solved. Reiss and White (2013) still pointed out the incoherence between the aims of education and the contents of England's national curriculum. They argued that the aims of education have been less prioritised and were added as an afterthought in the subject-based national curricula in England, and that many other parts of the world that teach subject-based curricula had the same situation.

Reiss and White introduced the concept of the 'aims-based curriculum' in response to the 'subject-based curriculum', which has been the mainstream of national curricula. Reiss asserted the necessity of the aims-based curriculum in his interview as, "one that starts by asking what schools are trying to achieve. It therefore begins with the fundamental purpose of education and goes on from there to consider what the most suitable curriculum is" (Shaughnessy, 2013). The strength of the aims-based curriculum is that the curriculum is designed based on the solid concept of the aims of education, therefore, there is a coherence between the aims and the contents of the curriculum. Also, opportunities to accomplish the aims of education can be expanded to every individual child who undertakes compulsory education in an education system.

The definition of the ultimate purpose of education in Reiss and White's aims-based curriculum was to lead a life that is personally flourishing and to help others to do so (Reiss and White, 2013, p.1). Reiss explained a personally flourishing life as "it [a personally flourishing life] occurs when humans develop so as to maximise what is best about being a human, to develop one's potentials and to be thoughtful and respectful of the needs and desires of others" (Shaughnessy, 2013). Reiss and White also said that 'personally

flourishing life' could be replaced by the term 'well-being' (*op cit.* p.5). There is little doubt that along with Russell, Dewey and Makiguchi, Reiss and White also considered the development of the inner potential in children and leading a life of happiness.

Although Reiss and White articulated the application of a specific aim of education to the school curriculum, the limitations of the aims-based curriculum still lie in its implementation in schools. Reiss and White (2013) highlighted that the approach to designing an aims-based curriculum would be very different from that of a subject-based national curriculum, England's national curriculum in particular. They suggested twenty pieces of advice for practical implementation of an aims-based curriculum in schools; however, the advice was too strongly related to England, despite the fact that personally flourishing lives ought to be accomplished throughout the world.

In order to apply the aims-based curriculum to schools in the countries other than England, it may be necessary to establish new schools. Russell established the 'Beacon Hill School' in England in 1927 to practise his theory. Dewey also created a primary school called, the 'Laboratory School' on the site of Chicago University in 1896 to test his theory of experience in learning. The value-creating theory developed by Makiguchi has been practised in Soka (*value-creation*) Schools and Soka Universities in Japan, Brazil, Hong Kong, Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, India and the United States. The concept of the aims-based curriculum needs a further step for a practical enactment.

Empirical studies suggested the necessity of aims that incorporate the concept of leading a life of happiness in the school curriculum. FitzPatrick et al. (2014) reported a research study conducted by the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA) in Dublin, Ireland. The NCCA investigated the needs and the aims for the curriculum at primary level through an online survey on their official website. They asked this single question about the aims of the curriculum at primary level: 'have your say about the purpose and priorities of a primary education other than literacy and numeracy'. The survey received 960 responses, in which there were teachers (71%), parents (19%), students (4%), and parents who were also teachers (4%). They identified that aspects of 'well-being' was a strong interest from the respondents along with: life-skills;

communication skills; and motivation and engagement. The implementation of international tests can have a significant effect on the fundamental purpose of national curricula. Despite the fact that 'well-being' was raised as the purpose and priority of a primary education, and that there should be a coherence between the contents of the curriculum and the aims of education, the contents of national curricula were often changed based on the trend of international tests. Klieger (2015) revealed the influence of the ranking system of international tests such as the PISA and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) on policy-making for the aims in the curriculum at primary and secondary levels in different countries. He conducted document analysis by collecting the science curricula from Taiwan, Australia, Slovenia, Germany, and Israel. He found that the contents of the science curricula from these countries had been changing according to the trend of the topics of the international tests. For example, when the international tests started to introduce new content these topics were added to the science curricula. Further, in Israel, the education reforms introduced by the Ministry of Education and by the Head of Pedagogical Affairs were aimed at being in the top ten countries in the rankings in these international tests.

In summary, there has been an academic agreement that the aims of education ought to seek the development of children's intrinsic nature, their well-being, and utilising knowledge. The aims of education and the aims of curricula can share core concepts, however, there was a critical issue in the application of the aims of education to national curricula. The issue was the incoherence between the contents of national curricula and the aims of education, which has not been solved in over a century.

In fact, the national curricula in some countries appeared to have been designed without a solid foundation of the concepts of the aims of education. The contents of the national curricula were often changed according to the trend of international tests, which would not help to accomplish the aims of education because the main purpose of the international tests is economic growth, not humanistic growth in the first place.

2.8 Knowledge in the Curriculum

The humanistic concepts discussed in relation to the aims of education have also been regarded as important in discussions on knowledge in the curriculum. Hirst and Peters (1970) proposed seven areas of knowledge for children to learn: human studies; philosophy; moral judgement and awareness; religious understanding; formal logic and mathematics; physical sciences; and aesthetic experience. Among the seven areas of knowledge, Hirst (1974) argued that human studies was the most essential knowledge to learn in order to see and to experience the world.

Although there is an agreement that the knowledge based on the humanistic concepts is essential for children to learn, this area of knowledge needs to be fitted in to the existing subject-based curriculum in order to be delivered. The knowledge in the existing subject-based curriculum is often called the 'subject knowledge' (House of Commons, 2009; DfE, 2011), and the discussions on knowledge have been developed based on the effort of selecting and categorising knowledge to incorporate it into the subject-based curriculum.

The selection and categorisation of knowledge often corresponds to school subjects. Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools (HMI) (1977) suggested eight areas of knowledge for children to learn: the aesthetic and creative; the ethical; the linguistic; the mathematical; the physical; the scientific; the social and political and the spiritual. These eight areas of knowledge matched the subjects in England's national curriculum such as: the arts; citizenship; English; mathematics; physical education; science; and religion. Alexander (2009) proposed eight domains of knowledge for children to learn related to the subjects in England's national curriculum: arts and creativity; citizenship and ethics; faith and belief; language, oracy and literacy; mathematics; physical and emotional health; place and time; science and technology.

In the realm of literacy, the areas of knowledge to learn have also been proposed, for example, the 'eight areas of knowledge in literacy' (Munro, 2008). However, literacy has a unique role in relation to knowledge, which is to be able to connect the different areas of knowledge in the curriculum. Hall and Harding

(2003) argued that by placing literacy as 'core' across the curriculum, literacy could be more relevant to children in and outside schools. This idea of placing literacy as core across the curriculum has been practised in England's national curriculum, and there is no doubt that children develop important knowledge outside schools, such as home, as well as in schools.

In spite of these significant efforts in selecting and placing knowledge in the curriculum, responses from the public in relation to placing knowledge in a national curriculum did not seem to be positive. In one of the national curriculum review reports in England, *National Curriculum Review: Summary Report of the Call for Evidence* (DfE, 2011), which had 5,763 respondents in total including primary schools and secondary schools, there was a section where respondents could make their own comments. Among these 431 respondents, 113 (26%) believed that "attempting to define a 'body of essential knowledge' was an outdated way of looking at education and it would be a backward step if the government intended to move back to rote learning based solely on knowledge and facts" (p.14).

These different perspectives between curriculum theorists and public opinion result from different conceptions of knowledge, and different purposes ascribed to curricula. In the debates around knowledge and the curriculum in the academic field there has been agreement on the importance of placing knowledge in the curriculum, although there were differences in the level of agreement on the importance of the common sense knowledge acquired in everyday life. On the other hand, public opinion appeared to place more value on the common sense knowledge acquired in everyday life. Also, one of the issues of selecting and categorising knowledge in order to fit it in to the subject-based curriculum is that the idea of accomplishing the aim of education through teaching the curriculum tends to be overshadowed.

Accomplishing the aim of education through teaching the curriculum or placing the knowledge based on the humanistic concepts in the curriculum would be even harder in the theory of knowledge proposed by Michael Young in *Bringing Knowledge Back In* (2007). Young's central argument was to establish a clear concept of knowledge and to secure the place of knowledge in the curriculum, saying that the primary object of knowledge was what was taught and learned

in school (Young, 2013, p.105). Young (2007) pointed out that the question of knowledge had been neglected due to external factors such as political standpoints for raising academic standards or the implementation of national and international tests, and he argued that this led to discussions around how to access to knowledge in school without establishing a clear concept of what the most important knowledge was.

In Young's theory, the most important knowledge was "the knowledge that was specialised and developed by specialists within defined fields of expertise and enquiry" (Young and Lambert, 2014). The concept of this 'specialised knowledge' is defined in terms of how it is produced and how it is transmitted. The specialised knowledge needs to be produced through workshops, seminars or laboratories in the form of subjects, and schools, colleges or universities are the places where the specialised knowledge is transmitted. Young claimed that acquiring this specialised knowledge ought to be the purpose of schooling. This claim appeared to have a link to his background as a sociologist because the fundamental question of sociological study of education was to seek the solutions to the inequality in education caused by different economic circumstances. Young (2011) criticised the idea of the 'knowledge of the powerful', where those who have access to certain kinds of knowledge acquired in higher education continue to have more power in society. He highlighted that it was necessary to place the specialised knowledge at the centre of schooling so that it could be accessible to all, not only to those who have access to institutions in higher education.

Young referred to the concept of the specialised knowledge with different terms in his works. He called the specialised knowledge 'conceptual knowledge' (Young, 2007), which reflected the central argument of his theory. Young distinguished the concept of the specialised knowledge from the common sense knowledge acquired through everyday life, and claimed that the specialised knowledge was superior to the common sense knowledge that children bring to school. The reason for the superiority of the specialised knowledge was that the common sense knowledge was acquired through

children's experience in their everyday lives; therefore it was limited in terms of its contexts. Young (2012) said that the crucial difference between the two types of knowledge was that children's everyday knowledge limits the knowledge to their experience. In the present study, the concept of the common sense knowledge that is acquired through children's experience in their everyday lives is referred to as 'everyday knowledge'.

Young's argument of differentiating the specialised knowledge from the everyday knowledge was developed based on the theories by Durkheim and Vygotsky (Young, 2013). Durkheim, Vygotsky and Young all differentiated the two concepts and emphasised the importance of the distinction; however, their purposes for the distinction of the two concepts were different. Durkheim (1893/1993) argued that there were different ways of thinking between the conceptual form (knowledge) and the social form (experience), and that there would be no social progress without this distinction because knowledge was an a priori concept. A commonality between Durkheim and Young in relation to the distinction of the two concepts was that they both gave the conceptual (specialised) knowledge a higher status than the everyday knowledge.

Durkheim's focus of the distinction between the specialised knowledge and the everyday knowledge was the development of society, whereas Vygotsky (1962) distinguished the two concepts, focusing on human development. He discussed the transformation between the specialised knowledge and the everyday knowledge in children's learning process in school by differentiating the two concepts of knowledge. Unlike Young's argument, there did not appear to be superiority between the specialised knowledge and the everyday knowledge in Vygotsky's theory. The everyday knowledge was rather crucial in order to transmit the specialised knowledge in children's learning process.

Young also called the concept of the specialised knowledge 'theoretical knowledge' (Young, 2009). He said that the theoretical concepts that underpinned the school subjects enabled children to reflect on and move beyond the particulars of their experience (Young, 2012). This independence of the specialised knowledge from everyday contexts, according to Young,

also contributed to the superiority of the specialised knowledge to the everyday knowledge. He also regarded the school subjects important in order to place the specialised knowledge in the curriculum, saying that they are “a form of specialisation of knowledge with powerful educational possibilities” (Young, 2015).

In fact, the concept of Young’s specialised knowledge has been referred to as ‘powerful knowledge’ in many discussions in relation to Young’s theory of knowledge. However, the term ‘powerful knowledge’ can be misleading in discussions on knowledge in curriculum theory. Although referring to the concept of the specialised knowledge as ‘powerful knowledge’ has advanced his argument of establishing a clear concept of the most important knowledge and placing the specialised knowledge at the centre of schooling, it has given an impression that the specialised knowledge is powerful and the other everyday knowledge that children bring to school is not powerful. The question of Young’s theory of knowledge is whether his claims can also apply to schools at primary level. That is, whether the specialised knowledge is superior to the everyday knowledge that children bring to primary schools and whether acquiring the specialised knowledge should also be the purpose of schooling in primary education.

The criticisms towards Young’s theory of knowledge have also focused on these two points: the claim that the specialised knowledge is superior to the everyday knowledge; and the claim that acquiring the specialised knowledge should be the purpose of schooling. Brown and White (2012) criticised Young’s theory, saying that children ought to develop their imagination, wider sympathies with other people, a love of beauty, and personal qualities such as confidence in schools, not only acquiring the specialised knowledge as the primary aim of schooling. Young, however, did not say that acquiring the specialised knowledge should be the ‘aim of education’. His intention was, as a sociologist, to make the specialised knowledge accessible to all in order to provide the solutions to the inequality in education that are caused by different economic circumstances. The purpose of the curriculum based on Young’s theory of knowledge was to “transmit past knowledge and to use that

knowledge to create new knowledge” (Young, 2013, p.105). The issue is that this purpose of the curriculum cannot always be linked to the academically agreed aims of education or does not always contribute to leading a life of happiness or human flourishing. I take a position that the curriculum should be designed based on a clear concept of the aim of education, and the curriculum ought to be taught in order for every child to accomplish the aim of education.

With regard to the superiority of the specialised knowledge, there has not been a coherent academic agreement. Yates and Miller (2016) emphasised the significance of the specialised knowledge, arguing that subjects associated with discipline had a particular power and that it was important to preserve these characteristics of disciplined knowledge in curriculum frameworks. Moll, et al. (1992) discussed the relationships between the subject-based curriculum in school and children’s everyday knowledge acquired at home, in their community or through their cultural backgrounds. They referred to the everyday knowledge as the ‘funds of knowledge’, and argued that it would be necessary to bridge the gap between the subject-based curriculum in school and children’s everyday knowledge. The difference between the claims made by Moll, et al. and by Young in relation to knowledge was that Moll et al. highlighted the importance of connecting the specialised knowledge and the everyday knowledge, whereas Young’s concern was that the specialised knowledge in the curriculum might be restricted or replaced by the everyday knowledge such as children’s interests, which he called a ‘crisis’ in curriculum theory (Young, 2009).

There is little doubt that arguments have been developed on acquiring knowledge; however, there seems to be much room to discuss ‘utilising knowledge’. Luke and Freebody (1999) discussed the approaches and activities for understanding texts in the subject of English (literacy). They emphasised the importance of utilising knowledge in the process of understanding texts, saying that the learner was expected to ‘think’ and to identify the arguments that were laid in the texts. They called this activity ‘understanding and acting on the knowledge’. The concept that is derived from knowledge through utilising knowledge can be called wisdom. Knowledge and wisdom ought not to be confused and the concept of wisdom should not be

overlooked when considering placing knowledge in the curriculum.

When we look at empirical studies related to knowledge in the curriculum, they do not appear to support the claim that specialised knowledge is superior to everyday knowledge and is the most important knowledge. The studies show that children's everyday knowledge is equivalently important to the specialised knowledge. Creeze, Gonzalez and Issacs (2016) conducted a comparative study on the national curricula and associated assessments at primary and secondary level of six high performing countries in the PISA international tests in 2009 (Australia, Canada, China, Finland, Japan and Singapore).

They focused on nine specific aspects of the instructional systems of the countries including, 'What compulsory and optional subjects are included in the Programme of Study?' Document analysis of the government policies for the national curricula showed commonalities among the six countries. They identified that all the national curricula of the six countries highlighted the everyday knowledge that is acquired outside school such as communication, critical thinking, collaboration, personal and social responsibility or cultural awareness, and reported that attempts had been made to incorporate these aspects of knowledge into the national curricula. Creeze, Gonzalez and Issacs said that the development of personal qualities in children and students was similarly stated in the national curricula of the six countries as an aim of the curricula.

Some research studies are specifically critical towards Young's theory of knowledge. Macknight's comparative research study (2011) emerged out of the claim made by Young and Moore (2001), which was that knowledge had been neglected in favour of questions about the position of knowers in the curriculum. Macknight investigated the place of knowledge and 'good' knowers embedded in the curriculum. She compared two curricula of the Australian state of Victoria in order to examine the types of knowledge and the ideal knowers in the selected two subjects of Mathematics and Social Studies. She found that the type of knowledge in one state curriculum was the knowledge that represented the world in minds. Under this type of knowledge, the ideal knowers were to be 'well-informed decision-makers'.

In the other state curriculum, the priority was to use or activate knowledge as part of ongoing interactions with the world. With this emphasis of utilising knowledge, the ideal knowers were to be the 'holders of useful knowledge' and they were expected to be able to respond to ongoing events in innovative ways. She said that this type of ideal knowers could define 'future citizens', and highlighted the importance of the bridge between knowledge in the curriculum and this type of ideal knowers.

In fact, there is evidence that contradicts Young's claim that the specialised knowledge is authoritative and is superior to children's everyday knowledge. Catling and Martin (2011) explored Young's concept of 'powerful knowledge' in the context of the primary geography curriculum. They drew on research studies in the field of 'children's geographies' from countries including the UK, the USA, Ireland, New Zealand and Jordan, which had investigated children's perspectives on their use of space, places and the environment. They referred to these children's perspectives as the 'geographical everyday knowledge'.

They found that children were learning risk-taking as well as familiarising themselves with places by applying their geographical everyday knowledge to new contexts. They argued that this children's geographical everyday knowledge was also powerful, and proposed a revised model of the theory of knowledge based on Young's theory. They concluded that the specialised knowledge and children's geographical everyday knowledge were both equally powerful and authoritative. They also highlighted that these two different types of knowledge were to be fostered through the intersection and interaction of the pedagogical practice in school, not that children's geographical everyday knowledge was to be replaced by the specialised knowledge in school. They said the reason for selecting geography for their research was that geography was so much part of children's lives and a fundamental aspect of being human from their earliest years, and indicated that their research study could apply to other subjects across the primary curriculum, including literacy.

In summary, although significant efforts have been made in the selection of knowledge for the subject-based school curriculum, there has not been a coherent academic agreement on the concept of placing knowledge in the curriculum. One of the commonalities in the discussions of the selection of knowledge for the curriculum was that the knowledge based on humanistic concepts was considered important for children to learn, and this can share the elements of the academically agreed aims of education such as human flourishing.

In the theory of knowledge developed by Michel Young however, placing the knowledge based on the humanistic concepts had little place. The research studies suggested the significance of children's everyday knowledge contrary to Young's claim, which was that the specialised knowledge was superior to children's everyday knowledge. Also, there was a question of whether acquiring the specialised knowledge should be the purpose of schooling in primary education.

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2.9 Curriculum in the International Context

Since the present study explores the application of England's national curriculum in a British international school in Japan, it is necessary to look at the recent trend of research studies on the curriculum and international schools in an international context. One of the tendencies of research studies on the curriculum in an international context is that the majority focus on higher education (Haigh, 2002; De Vita and Case, 2003; Huang, 2006; Pimpa, 2009). This tendency of focusing on higher education level can be traced back to the OECD Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) seminars on internationalisation of higher education held in 1993 and 1995, and its report on the seminars (OECD, 1996).

Another tendency is that the research studies with primary and secondary schools look at the implementation of a national curriculum in the national education system. Romero et al. (2014) examined the issues in relation to the implementation of Mexico's primary programme of study for English, the Programa Nacional de Inglés en Educación Básica (PNIEB) in Mexico. They conducted two hundred interviews with children, parents, primary school teachers, head teachers, and program coordinators, and found that developing the materials for lessons, placing English as a core for cross-curricular links, and training the teachers were the major difficulties when implementing the new programme of study nationally. At secondary education level, Lam et al. (2013) conducted interviews with secondary school teachers in Singapore to examine the difficulties with regard to the implementation of Singapore's national curriculum. They found that lack of teachers' subject knowledge and the new assessment systems that had been introduced along with the national curriculum were the significant barriers for implementation.

When we look at the research studies on international schools, particularly in Japan, only a small number of studies have been conducted because international schools are not the mainstream in the Japanese education system. The focus of most of the research studies on international schools in Japan is parental school choice. With regard to the reasons why Japanese

parents choose international schools, MacKenzie (2009) conducted questionnaire surveys and interviews with parents from six international schools in Japan, and found that the main reason was that parents were attracted to the curricula that were offered in international schools. This was because they expected their children to go to universities in English-speaking countries, and also Japanese parents wished their children to be exposed to other cultures in international schools. Even if parents could send their children to international schools, there might be an issue for their children when learning in an English speaking environment. Imoto (2011) addressed the issue of 'Japaneseness' or Japanese identity of children who were learning in an English speaking environment in international schools at pre-school level. She adopted an ethnographical approach, and highlighted the importance of support from parents and teachers.

One of the major reasons of parents' school choice, which was the attraction to the curricula in international schools, were seen not only in Japan. MacKenzie, Hayden and Thompson (2003), and MacKenzie (2010) looked at what motivated parents to choose international schools in an international context through questionnaire surveys and interviews with parents in Switzerland, Japan, Argentina, Israel and Singapore. They found the commonness of parents' motivations in different countries. Parents chose international schools mainly because of their curriculum; parents expected their children to be educated in an English speaking environment; and parents chose international schools with a view to studying abroad. They also found that Japanese parents particularly chose international schools because international schools have smaller class sizes compared to that of local schools in Japan.

A research study conducted by Velliaris (2010), in an Australian PhD thesis, also investigated the reasons for choosing international schools in Japan; however, her focus was more on parents. She categorised parents into Japanese parents; international parents (Japanese and non-Japanese parents); and 'foreign' parents (non-Japanese and non-Japanese parents) who lived in Tokyo. Velliaris and Willis (2014) conducted the follow-up study based on Velliaris' PhD research study and they found the reasons for school

choice in each of the categorised groups of parents, where parents were not satisfied with the education system in Japan and wished to raise their children to be bilingual.

With regard to British international schools in an international context, only a few empirical research studies have been conducted. COBIS conducted two research surveys on their membership schools in order to “help develop a better understanding of the growing global COBIS family of schools, as well as the British International Education sector as a whole” (COBIS, 2015, p.3). The annual surveys were conducted in 2014, 2015, and 2016. The findings were rather a summary of the data of the responded schools. The findings included the curriculum that the member schools followed. The most common curriculum taught by the responded COBIS schools worldwide was England’s national curriculum (98%) followed by the local national curriculum (21%) and the IPC (14%). Since many membership schools offer cross-phase education; for example, the Early Years Foundation Stage (EYFS) to sixth form, half of the research survey was a summary of the examination results of General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE), IGCSE, A-Level, AS-Level and IB Diploma in the responded schools.

The topics of research studies on British international schools in a particular country vary compared to the focus of the research studies on international schools in Japan. Yanez and Coyle (2011) investigated the use of interactive whiteboards and how they helped children learn in classrooms in a British international school in Spain. They conducted semi-structured interviews with twelve children in a Year 3 class over one year of the data-collection period. They found that the children wished to use the interactive whiteboard for activities in their classroom; however, they were often frustrated with the frequently occurring technical problems with the interactive whiteboard. Yanez and Coyle also suggested pedagogical practice with interactive whiteboards in relation to game-like activities in classrooms.

Englezou and Fragkouli (2014) looked at the teaching of subject English in nursery and reception classes (aged between 4 and 6) in a British international school in Greece, focusing particularly on children with EAL. They observed twelve randomly selected children in classrooms as well as the playground, and

semi-structured interviews were conducted with four teachers about teaching English to EAL children. They found that all the teachers mentioned the importance of English in their interviews, and identified that the teachers highlighted the importance of learning English through oral activities, reading texts, and play.

In summary, discussions in relation to the practice of national curricula in the international context tended to focus on the implementation of a national curriculum in the national education system, and few studies have been conducted on the practice of a national curriculum in a different context. The application of a national curriculum in a different context can be seen in international schools, however, most of the research studies on international schools in Japan focused on parents' school choice. With regard to the practice of England's national curriculum in British international schools in Japan, it does not appear to be mentioned in the existing research studies.

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2.10 Summary

This literature review has ultimately argued that there are risks of incoherence between contents of a curriculum and the aims of education if curriculum design is not optimal. It has been noted that governments and state departments may not be the most appropriate makers of policy because of the power struggles that are typical of political processes including curriculum design. However, some ground-breaking education proposals and practices have been developed in an Eastern context in order to address the issue of more appropriate education policy and curriculum design.

Aims of education often emphasise academic aims, however the aim of education can have more of a focus on humanistic concepts, something that is common in international curriculum models. In fact, the academic definition of the term 'international' suggests seeking commonalities between children's learning and experiences through humanistic approaches. International education aims to develop children into good global citizens with a sense of humanity.

Among the issues in relation to England's national curriculum the literature review has noted a shift over time of the fundamental purpose of the national curriculum: from raising educational standards of children's learning towards increasing competitiveness in international tests. Part of this phenomenon is that the purposes of international tests (economic growth) and a main aim of education (humanistic growth) did not match. Changing national policy according to tendencies in international test outcomes has led to tension between some of the aims of education and the content to be delivered.

Another critical issue in the application of the aims of education to the curriculum is the placement of knowledge in the curriculum. In academic debate about the selection of knowledge for the curriculum, knowledge based on humanistic concepts was regarded by some as most important for children to learn, whereas others regard the acquisition of specialised knowledge as the main purpose of schooling. There are ongoing debates about the purpose of

schooling, however I established the position that the purpose of schooling, especially at primary education level, should emphasise the following: development of the intrinsic nature of children's learning; development of the well-being of children; and emphasis on the *utilisation* of knowledge rather than emphasis on the *acquisition* of specialised knowledge.

Empirical research studies on curriculum in the international context have tended to focus on the implementation of a national curriculum in the education system of the curriculum's origin, despite the fact that many international schools teach England's national curriculum in different country and state contexts. In order to explore national curriculum in a different context this dissertation reports a research study on the enactment of England's national curriculum in a British international school in Japan, focusing on aims and knowledge in the curriculum.

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Chapter 3: Methodology and Methods

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will discuss how the present study is situated in relation to research paradigms, and how the empirical work was planned and conducted, addressing the ethical and practical issues that arose in the course of research. After considering the philosophical position that the present study takes, the empirical site and the sampling strategy are introduced. Then, ethical issues in relation to the empirical work are addressed with reference to the educational research guidelines in the UK and in Japan. Then, the difficulties during the data collection with the empirical site are reflected, followed by the discussion on the suitability of methodological triangulation for the present study. The methods that were used for analysis and the process of increasing validity for the present research are then explained. This chapter concludes with the remarks on depicting the complex human activities in the real world and understanding them by the use of suitable methodology and methods for a piece of research.

3.2 Research Paradigm and Research Design

A clear paradigmatic stance helps the researcher design his or her research and to justify the decisions (Maxwell, 2005, p.36). The term 'paradigm' can be traced back to *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (1962) by the historian of science Thomas Kuhn, in which he discussed philosophical assumptions about ontology and epistemology. A paradigm for a research study mainly consists of three dimensions of philosophical beliefs, and the research paradigm shapes how the researcher sees and understands the world. Guba (1990) claimed that a research paradigm was shaped through the combination of beliefs about ontology, epistemology, and methodology. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) said that the researcher saw the world and even acted in ways based on the philosophical positions that the researcher took (p.13).

One of the issues for situating qualitative research within research paradigms is that the distinction is less clear in separating qualitative research from other

types of research because of its flexibility in the use of methods and its nature of cross-over disciplines. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) said that qualitative research had been situated within positivist paradigm (p.9); however, situating a qualitative research within positivist paradigm causes contradiction in the following two points: a) the role of the researcher; and b) the process of data collection. In the positivist paradigm, it is required that the research study should not be affected in any way by the presence of the researcher (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Brewer, 2000; Pole & Morrison, 2003). Also, the data in positivist paradigm needs to be 'unreduced' (Scott & Morrison, 2005, p.54). Denscombe (2003) admitted that there is a general acceptance of the 'researcher's self' particularly in analysis in qualitative research (p.268).

One of the significant roles of the researcher in qualitative research is understanding or 'making sense of the qualitative data' (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). Scott and Morrison (2005) highlighted the importance of the role of the researcher in the process of interpreting the collected data because "the collection of information does not produce data automatically. What researchers do with information is key" (p.31). Denscombe (2003) also suggested that identifying the findings in qualitative research is "a creation of the researcher" more than the discovery of fact (p.99).

Most contemporary qualitative researchers take the philosophical belief that knowledge is constructed rather than discovered: the world is a human construction (Stake, 1995, p.99). However, there is an issue when case study research takes the position of interpretivism because a research study based on interpretivism is expected to offer the reader raw materials for constructing knowledge which should lead to generalisation (*op cit.*, p.102). Generalisation is one of the debates in relation to the limitations of case study. The issue of generalisation must be considered when case study is adopted. Bassey (1999) noted that a case study should be conducted with a view to establishing generalisation about the wider scale to which the case belongs (p.24). On the other hand, Stake (1995) claimed that the aim of case study is to establish 'particularisation' rather than 'generalisation':

The real business of case study is particularisation, not generalisation. We take a particular case and come to know it well, not primarily as to how it is different from others but what it is, what it does. There is emphasis on uniqueness, and that implies knowledge of others that the case is different from, but the first emphasis is on understanding the case itself (p.8).

Regarding the tension between 'particularisation' and 'generalisation', Scott and Morrison (2005) took Stake's position, arguing about the relationship between the findings through a case study and the reader of the case study as, "case study does not have to make any claims for generalisation. The key issue is how readers of case study make use of case study research outcomes and for varied purposes" (p.21). The relationship between the research findings from case study and the reader of a case study can be understood as 'naturalistic generalisation', in which Stake and Trumbull (1982) claimed that a case study provided the reader with good raw material for their own generalisation. This concept of 'naturalistic generalisation' was deemed appropriate in relation to the potential outcomes of the present study because its aim was also to illustrate the human activities in the school.

To illustrate the human activities, Yin (2005) stated that a case study was appropriate when the researcher wished to illuminate a particular situation in order to get a close, in-depth and first-hand understanding of it (p.381). Yin also suggested that a sound case study design involves: defining the case; selection of a single or multiple case study; and theoretical perspectives (p.384). I will explain each element in line with the research design of the present study below.

It was necessary for the researcher to define the 'unit of analysis' (Yin, 2003; Brown and Dowling, 2010), that is, the 'case' for a case study. The case for the present study was described as 'English as taught in a British international primary school in Japan in Year 5 and Year 6 (ages between 9 and 11)'. This unit of analysis needed to be investigated in-depth because the aim of case study is to examine human activities in the real life context and case study is

not merely sampling research based on the figures. Stake (1995) also stated that case study was the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, understanding its activity within important circumstances (p. xi).

As stated in the Introduction, the present study explored the enactment of the curriculum for English in a British international primary school. In the present study, 'English' refers to the subject English taught in the British international primary school in the Years 5 and 6. There were mainly three reasons why subject English had been chosen to be explored in the present study.

Firstly, English has been in a unique position in England's national curriculum along with numeracy. In order to show that "links between curriculum subjects and areas of learning deepens children's understanding by providing opportunities to reinforce and enhance learning" (DfES, 2006), English was situated as the central subject across the curriculum.

The second reason was the significance of English as the common language in the international education context. Hayden (2006) investigated a practical aspect of international education, which included the working language in the curriculum in international schools, and argued that English would remain the leading language in the studies on the curriculum in international schools in the field of international education.

Finally, it is worthwhile exploring the teaching of the subject English in an international school context because, as discussed in the literature review chapter, the English-speaking environment of international schools was the strongest attraction to parents who chose international schools against mainstream education in Japan. Despite English being critical as a language in the international education context, the detailed account of the enactment of England's national curriculum for English as a subject in international schools remained uncertain.

It would not be easy for outsiders such as myself to gain a deep understanding of how subject English is taught in a British international primary school

because many British international schools can be sensitive about their reputation and do not wish to be critically analysed. Yin (2014) emphasised that a single case study was appropriate to observe and analyse a phenomenon previously difficult for scientific investigation (p.43); hence, a single case study was adopted for the present study.

Regarding the theoretical perspectives, in order to understand the case, the present study took a position of a theory-seeking case study, which was proposed by Bassey (1999). The purpose of a theory-seeking case study was to illustrate the activities within the case in the real world and to identify patterns in the activities for theory development. In the present study, the patterns of teachers' selection of knowledge and teachers' aims for English lessons in a British international primary school are explored as in the research questions. This would contribute to developing the discussions in relation to the claims made by Michael Young in his theory of knowledge.

In summary, the present study took a position of interpretivism as its research paradigm in order to gain a deep understanding of human activities in a real life context. By taking a position of interpretivism, the researcher exists in the present research in terms of interpreting the data and generating the knowledge out of the data. A single case study approach was adopted to investigate English as taught in a British international primary school in Japan in Year 5 and Year 6 (ages between 9 and 11), which had not been researched before. For the research presented in this thesis, the following main research question and three subsidiary research questions were addressed:

Main research question

How do the teachers enact England's national curriculum for English in a British international primary school in Japan?

Subsidiary research questions

In what ways do teachers' aims for English lessons relate to the aims in the national curriculum?

In what ways is knowledge enacted in English lessons through the process

of teaching?

How do teachers select the elements from England's national curriculum for English lessons?

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3.3 Empirical Site and Sampling

There are two main types of approaches to gain access to empirical sites: formal and informal (Grinnell & Unrau, 2014). My approach to the school was a combination of the two at this initial stage. Negotiations for gaining access to the school and cooperation from the participants took almost two years. I recognised the existence of British international schools in Japan when one of the fellow students of my Master of Research (MRes) degree at the UCL IOE informed me about the Lionel British School⁹ (LBS). In fact, the fellow student was a senior staff member at the school.

Since my research design was to conduct a piece of research with a primary school that was following England's national curriculum in Japan, I applied for a guided tour of the LBS, which was organised for parents. My first visit to the school was made in November 2010. I had a conversation with the head teacher of the primary school; she appeared positive about my research and I was asked to contact her when my research design became clearer. My PhD study commenced in January 2011. Six months later I contacted the head teacher when my research methods became more specific; however, my request for conducting empirical work with the school was declined.

I subsequently submitted a request to conduct research at another British primary international school located in the west of Japan; however, this request was also declined. To make matters worse, my second request to the LBS was also declined. The most difficult part of gaining access to a British international school for my research was that there were few alternative schools for my research design because not many international schools follow England's national curriculum in Japan.

In July 2012, when browsing the LBS's website, I found that the head teacher of the primary school had been changed. I decided to make a request to the new head teacher regarding conducting my research with the primary school. She showed her interest in my research and I was asked to visit to the primary

⁹ Pseudonyms are used for the school's name and the teachers' names throughout the present study.

school so that I could explain my research to the deputy head teacher. At the meeting with the deputy head teacher, I also provided her with the Information Leaflet ensuring the confidentiality of the data and the anonymity of the school and the participants and explained that I had prepared the Informed Consent Form and the Letter for Parents in English and in Japanese. Fortunately, I was allowed to conduct my empirical work with the primary school at the meeting. To my surprise, I was asked if I was interested in working as a teaching assistant, not only conducting my research.

Thus, I was able to gain access to the LBS as I had designed my research in the end; however, designing a piece of research relying on a particular empirical site could be dangerous if the research project was rejected by the empirical site as I experienced. The process of gaining access and cooperation from empirical sites such as schools or hospitals cannot always go smoothly, and one of the most difficult aspects could be the timing of making a request to an empirical site. In my experience, I was unable to submit a request to the school until my research methods became clear enough because the school wished to know about my research methods in detail. However, some aspects of research methods cannot be designed before obtaining sufficient information about the empirical site. Although the timing of making a request to an empirical site can be an issue in conducting empirical work, this issue did not appear to have enough attention in the literature of research methods.

The LBS had around 700 pupils and students from the Nursery to sixth form with over 50 nationalities. The ratio of students' nationalities was approximately 60% British and 40% other nationalities. The countries the children in Year 5 and Year 6 came from: UK, Japan, Australia, New Zealand, France, Germany, Russia, the United States, Egypt, Romania, Poland, Ireland, Canada, Singapore, Vietnam, South Korea, China, Philippines, Taiwan, Uzbekistan, Pakistan, Switzerland, Belgium, Mongolia, Spain, Finland, Sweden, Italy, Thailand, Netherlands, and India (ethnicity not nationality). Many children had parents from two different countries, and the parents' occupations in Year 5 and Year 6 varied including: embassies, finance, consulting, airline, hotel management and entertainment.

There were three classes in Year 5 and three classes in Year 6. Year 5 had 22 pupils in each class (66 pupils in total) and Year 6 had 20 pupils in each class (60 pupils in total). The class size was kept under 21-22 pupils according to the school's regulations. After graduating from the LBS, the majority of students continue their study with universities in the UK including UCL, London School of Economics (LSE), Imperial College London, Glasgow, Manchester, Reading and Nottingham; however, a small number of students choose Japanese universities.

Regarding sampling, the target population was the teachers in the British international primary school; for example, the senior staff, the class teachers and the teaching assistants who were involved with English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the school. Year 5 and Year 6 (ages 9 - 11) were selected to be the focus because these year groups were more advanced in terms of language at primary level, hence a variety of teaching methods or resources were expected to be observed during the data collection. The class teachers in Year 5 and Year 6 were selected as the essential participants because they were the people who were teaching English in Year 5 and Year 6 at the school and they were the most appropriate people to interview. Hence, the strategy of the selection of the class teachers for the participants was the 'purposeful sampling' (Light *et al.*, 1990, p.53).

The sampling strategy adopted for the present study was in fact 'mixed purposeful sampling' according to Patton (2015). Patton's discussions on purposeful sampling strategies, described fifteen purposeful sampling strategies, including the 'criterion sampling' and the 'critical case sampling'. For the present study, a particular criterion for selecting the participants from the target population was used, which was 'all class teachers in Year 5 and Year 6 in the school'. This strategy of selecting the participants matched the concept of the 'criterion sampling' because they were selected based on 'some predetermined criterion of importance' (*op cit.* p. 238).

An interview with the head teacher of the school was also conducted towards the end of the data collection, seeking useful and important information about English lessons and overall literacy education in the school. This strategy of

selecting the participant was 'critical case sampling' because the reason for adding the head teacher as a participant was "to yield the most information and have the greatest impact on the development of knowledge" (*op cit.* p. 236). The purposeful sampling for the present study was a combination of criterion sampling and critical case sampling. When more than one purposeful sampling strategy is used in a qualitative research study, it ought to be called mixed purposeful sampling. Table 3.1 shows the background information of the participants who were the head teacher and six class teachers in Year 5 and in Year 6.

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Table 3.1: Background information of the participants

Responsibility	Where from	Teaching background
Head Teacher	Kent, England	Over 20 years of teaching in primary schools. Mathematics and Science co-ordinator in a primary school in east London. Lived in Japan since 2001 and became the head of the primary school at the LBS in 2012.
Class Teacher 1 (Literacy co-ordinator)	Cambridge, England	7 years of teaching at the LBS with Years 4, 5 and 6. Teaching in a junior school in West London prior to the LBS.
Class Teacher 2	Lancaster, England	9 years of teaching at the LBS with Years 4 and 5. Teaching in state primary schools in Lancashire prior to the LBS.
Class Teacher 3	Manchester, England	6 years of teaching at the LBS with Years 2, 3 and 5. Experience in teaching English to Japanese people in Japan. Teaching in state and private primary schools in Birmingham prior to the LBS.

Table 3.1: Background information of the participants (continued)

Responsibility	Where from	Teaching background
Class Teacher 4	Essex, England	8 years of teaching at the LBS with Years 2, 5 and 6. Teaching in state primary schools in Essex prior to the LBS.
Class Teacher 5	Belfast, Northern Ireland	7 years of teaching at the LBS only with Year 6. Experience in teaching in another international school in Japan.
Class Teacher 6	Japan	3 years of teaching at the LBS only with Year 6. Originally from Japan. Moved to England as a child. Teaching in a state primary school in Surrey prior to the LBS.

In summary, after some difficulties the researcher was able to gain access to the LBS in order to generate the data. The participants, who were the head teacher and the six class teachers in Year 5 and Year 6 at the school, were selected based on the strategy of mixed purposeful sampling with criterion sampling and critical case sampling. In the next section, I will discuss the pilot study for testing the research instruments for the data collection.

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3.4 Pilot study

The pilot study started with a pilot interview with the deputy head in January 2013. I was once told that conducting a pilot study was similar to appreciating *bonsai* plants. *Bonsai* is “the art of growing ornamental, artificially dwarfed varieties of trees or shrubs” (OED, online) which was developed in Japan in order to appreciate the whole of nature on a much smaller scale. Conducting a pilot study enabled the researcher to test the prepared research instruments and to see if the instruments were practical enough for generating the data. Oppenheim (1998) highlighted the importance of conducting a pilot study as, “studies which have been inadequately piloted or not piloted at all, will find that a great deal of effort has been wasted on unintelligible questions producing unquantifiable responses and uninterpretable results” (p.64).

Prior to the pilot study, there was a phase of pre-pilot study. The main purpose of the pre-pilot study was to decide categories and variables to investigate in lesson observations in the main study. This pre-pilot phase also helped the researcher become familiar with the environment in the empirical site, the British international primary school. Brown and Dowling (2010) discussed the importance of habituation both for the researcher and participants as, “this involves entering the setting (in whatever position one has decided to adopt) a number of times before the collection of data begins. In this way participants become accustomed to the researcher being around” (p.47).

Pre-pilot activities included visits to the school and pre-pilot lesson observations. Pre-pilot lesson observations were conducted with two Year 3 lessons, two Year 4 lessons, one Year 5 lesson and one Year 6 lesson between January and June 2013. Pre-pilot activities were a more informal exploration of the most appropriate ways of recording lesson observations. The more formal pilot study tested the research instruments, such as the interview question items. When observing the lessons in the pre-pilot phase, the following points were explored: how the lessons usually began and closed, timetable of the day, the number of children in the lessons, what topics were selected to teach in the lessons, what kind of resources the teachers used in the lessons.

Based on the information gathered through the lesson observations in the pre-pilot phase, an observation schedule was produced. When producing an observation schedule for the present study, there was an issue as to whether a structured observation schedule or unstructured observation schedule was more suitable for the present study. Structured observation schedules are often regarded as useful to look at behaviour or interaction between pupil-pupil or between teacher-pupil (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p.403). However, the categories and variables identified for the present study were not directly related to behaviour or interaction among the participants. One of the issues in relation to a structured observation schedule appeared to be a lack of flexibility and missing significant events during the lesson observations, whereas an unstructured observation schedule is often used for long-term ethnographic data collection; hence, a semi-structured observation schedule was adopted for the present study.

The semi-structured observation schedule produced for the present study had structured columns for the categories and variables and also had a free space for note-taking (see Appendix 7). This observation schedule was tested as a research instrument in the pilot study. Pilot observations were conducted with one Year 5 lesson and one Year 6 lesson in September 2013. Although the overall design of the observation schedule was not changed, the positions of the columns were re-arranged from the original version in order for the researcher to record the activities during the lessons more effectively and promptly (see Appendix 8).

The pilot lesson observations also played an important role in developing the question items for interviews with the class teachers. Having observed the lessons in the pilot study, it was realised that some of the question items were too obvious to ask. For example, the following questions were removed from the original version of the interview question items: '*Which Year/class do you have?*'; '*How many classes do you have a week?*' Also, some of the terms in the interview question items were changed because they were different from the terms that were actually used in the lessons. For example, the question

'What are the general objectives of English lessons in your school?' was changed to 'What are the general learning objectives of English lessons in your school?'

A pilot interview was conducted with the deputy head teacher at the school. My focus for the pilot interview was to test the appropriateness of the question items as Gillham (2000) argued that the point of conducting a pilot interview was to get the questions right rather than to get the interview right (p.53). In the pilot interview, the deputy head teacher asked for clarification on the following question: *'What are the distinctive features of the curriculum for English in your school?'* Based on her question, the wording of the question was changed to: *'What do you think are the features or characteristics of the curriculum for English in your school?'* Also, the following probe was added: *'Do you have any key words or key phrases for literacy education in your school?'* Although each question item ought to be clear and specific to the interviewees, the researcher did not intend to lead the interviewees' answers, so the following note was also added at the top of the interview schedule: *'There are no right answers to the questions below. Please answer or discuss freely the question items'.*

In summary, testing the interview questions and the observation schedule in the pilot study enabled the researcher to consider whether they were effective research instruments for generating data in order to answer the research questions. Visiting the school and conducting lesson observations prior to the pilot study also helped the researcher become familiar with the environment of the school. Conducting a pilot study is little discussed in case study approach; however, the benefit of conducting a pilot study or even a pre-pilot study ought not to be underestimated in case study.

3.5 Data collection Methods and the Data

The purpose of the present study was to understand human activity in a real life context, which was teachers' enactment of England's national curriculum in a British international primary school in Japan, hence, the methods of document analysis, observation and interview were deemed to be the most suitable for the data collection of the present study. Scott and Usher (2011) highlighted that document analysis, semi-structured observation and interview were suitable to capture the 'lived reality' (p.93). Further, Stark and Torrance (2005) argued that document analysis, observation and interview were the most commonly used research methods in case study, which was the methodological approach the present study adopted. The employment of document analysis, observation and interview for the present study will be explained below in detail.

The term 'document' in educational research can be defined as, "a physically embodied written text, where the containment of the text is the primary purposes of the physical medium" (Scott, 1990, p.69). Document analysis for the present study already started with my very first visit to the school in November 2010 where I collected the promotion leaflets of the school and the application pack for prospective parents. Scott (1990) highlighted that the single most important category of document in document analysis was the administrative papers, whereas McCulloch (2004) suggested that the following sources were also significant in document analysis if they were available: policy reports, committee papers, correspondence, school magazines, textbooks, log books, newspapers, local registers and visual sources such as photographs or paintings. Further, McCulloch (2004) made the point that significant documents relating to the research topic could be found unexpectedly (p.53). Hence, the present study adopted the position of McCulloch and any kinds of documents available in and outside the empirical site were collected. Table 3.2 shows the summary of the collected documents.

Table 3.2: The summary of the collected documents

Documents	Brief Description	Availability	Quantity	Level of Emphasis in this Study
Lesson plans	Detailed lesson planning sheets for each unit	Internal documents	3 units from Year 5 7 units from Year 6	Very high
National Curriculum	England's national curriculum 1988/2014	Open to public	2	Very high
Primary National Strategy	Pedagogical suggestions by the British Government	Open to public	1	Very high
Booklets	Promotional booklets for prospective pupils/parents	Open to public	5	High
School's website	Official website of the LBS	Open to public	1	High
Inspection report	Results of inspection by the ISI	Open to public	1	High
Application pack	Application forms for admission	Available as request	2	High
Children's writings	English exercise books	Private	8 children's writings from Year 5	Medium
Curriculum Map	Summary of lesson plans of all of the year groups	Internal documents	1	Medium

Table 3.2: The summary of the collected documents (continued)

Documents	Brief Description	Availability	Quantity	Level of Emphasis in this Study
Handouts	Worksheets for the children for the lessons	Internal documents	14	Medium
Timetables	Class timetables for the lessons	Internal documents	5	Medium
Photos/videos	Images of lessons and assemblies	Private	154 photos; 1 video	Medium
Twitter	Official Twitter account of the LBS	Open to public	1	Low
Facebook	Official Facebook account of the LBS	Open to public	1	Low
Leaflets	Promotional leaflets	Open to public	4	Low

The collected documents were labelled as 'very high', 'high' 'medium' and 'low' according to the level of emphasis including the frequency of their use as part of the research. For example, teachers' lesson plans, National Curriculum or school's website were analysed and cited at a high level in order to develop the argument in the thesis, whereas the information via school's Twitter or Facebook contributed as a low level to the overall research.

The documents that were most relevant to the present study were teachers' lesson plans. The lesson plans were entitled 'weekly planning sheet for literacy' and they were organised as Microsoft Word files. One weekly planning sheet, which was four to five pages long, was produced in order to teach one unit. It had detailed lesson planning including learning objectives, success criteria, and resources to use.

The lesson plans were produced by the class teachers according to each year group. Some of the lesson plans were collected as data before or during the lessons in printed copy. Towards the end of the data collection, more lesson plans were obtained from several class teachers via e-mail in the form of electronic files. Regarding the documents in relation to the school curriculum, the 'curriculum map' was collected (see Appendix 9), in which there was a table that summarised the whole weekly lesson planning sheets from the Nursery to Year 6 in the primary school.

Seven lesson observations in Year 5 and seven in Year 6 were conducted in the main study between October 2013 and May 2014. Non-participant observation was employed in order for the researcher to look directly at the activities in the lessons. During the observations, notes were taken on the prepared observation schedule aided by an A4 sized clipboard. The researcher was sitting at the back or at the corner of the classroom during the lesson observations. All the English lessons were scheduled in the morning and the duration of the lessons were usually 75 minutes long. The lessons were divided into five sections (15 minutes each) and five photocopied observation schedules were prepared for each section (see Appendix 7).

Two English lessons were often observed in the same morning, for example, on the 7th October 2013, I observed one Year 6 lesson from 9.00am to 10.15am, then I moved to a Year 5 classroom to observe the Year 5 lesson from 10.30am to 11.45am. The total number of lesson observations was 21 (5 in pre-pilot phase, 2 in pilot study, and 14 in the main study). Table 3.3 summarises the observations conducted with the school during the data collection.

Table 3.3: A summary of the lesson observations with the school

Observation No.	Date/Year	Term	Year Group	Class	Time	Phases
1	10 January, 2013	Spring	3	Purple	9.00-15.00	Pre-pilot
2	13 May, 2013	Summer	6	Red	9.00-15.00	Pre-pilot
3	20 May, 2013	Summer	4	Green	9.00-11.45	Pre-pilot
4	20 May, 2013	Summer	4	Blue	12.45-15.15	Pre-pilot
5	24 May, 2013	Summer	5	Red	9.00-13.45	Pre-pilot
6	30 September, 2013	Autumn	6	Green	9.00-10.15	Pilot study
7	30 September, 2013	Autumn	5	Green	10.30-11.45	Pilot study
8	7 October, 2013	Autumn	6	Blue	9.00-10.15	Main study
9	7 October, 2013	Autumn	5	Blue	10.30-11.45	Main study
10	28 October, 2013	Autumn	6	Red	9.00-10.15	Main study
11	11 November, 2013	Autumn	5	Red	10.30-11.45	Main study

Table 3.3: A summary of the observations with the school (continued)

Observation No.	Date/Year	Term	Year Group	Class	Time	Phases
12	24 February, 2014	Spring	6	Red	9.00-10.15	Main study
13	24 February, 2014	Spring	5	Blue	10.30-11.45	Main study
14	26 February, 2014	Spring	6	Blue	9.00-10.15	Main study
15	26 February, 2014	Spring	5	Green	10.30-11.45	Main study
16	1 March, 2014	Spring	6	Green	9.00-10.15	Main study
17	3 March, 2014	Spring	5	Red	10.30-11.45	Main study
18	4 March, 2014	Spring	6	Green	9.00-10.00	Main study
19	4 March, 2014	Spring	5	Green	11.00-11.45	Main study
20	5 March, 2014	Spring	6	Blue	9.00-10.15	Main study
21	5 March, 2014	Spring	5	Blue	10.30-11.45	Main study

The interviews with the head teacher and the class teachers were conducted between April and July 2014. The style of the interviews was face-to-face, semi-structured, and they were conducted in English. An interview with a class teacher (Class Teacher 5) was conducted in April, then an interview with a class teacher who was also a literacy coordinator (Class Teacher 1) was conducted in June. The answers from the rest of the class teachers (Class Teachers 2, 3, 4 and 6) were collected in written form between April and June 2014. The interview with the head teacher was conducted towards the end of the empirical work in July.

The interview question items were sent to all the class teachers in advance in order to generate rich data through the interviews. By receiving the questions prior to their interviews, the teachers would have time to look through the questions, which would lead them to feel easier to answer at length in the interviews. For the teachers who preferred answering in written form, some notes had to be added to the original interview question items in order to urge them to answer at length. The following sentences were added, which were the same notes mentioned orally by the researcher at the beginning of the face-to-face interviews: "There are no right answers to the questions below. Please answer or discuss freely the question items". Although the written responses were in the context of a different social dynamic to the oral responses, the teachers' written responses contributed to generate rich data because of the greater time for the teachers to reflect their perspectives and thoughts before they answered.

The venues for the interviews with the class teachers were classrooms. This was because it would be easier for the class teachers to refer to any resources or related documents during the interviews, which would enable the researcher to generate rich data. Fontana and Frey (2003) discussed the contextual and interpersonal aspects of interviews as "each interview context is one of interaction and relation; the result is as much a product of this social dynamic as it is a product of accurate accounts and replies" (p.64). The interview schedule (see Appendix 6) was sent to the class teachers and the head teacher in advance. The interviewees were also provided with the printed

version of the interview schedule in order for them to look at the question items during the interviews.

The interviews were designed to be 30 - 45 minutes long; however, the actual length varied from teacher to teacher. The interviews with the head teacher and with Class Teacher 5 were approximately 30 minutes long whereas the interview with Class Teacher 1 was over 90 minutes long. There appeared to be two influences regarding the length of the interview with Class Teacher 1: a) the relevance of the interviewee to the research topic; and b) the timing of the interview. Since Class Teacher 1 was the literacy coordinator at the school as well as a class teacher, he was keen to answer the questions at length.

Regarding the timing of the interview, the class teachers needed to create a time for the interviews. For example, the interview with the head teacher was conducted between her meetings, where she had only 30 minutes for the interview. Class Teacher 5 also had limited time for the interview because it was conducted while the children were taking a music lesson in the music room. On the other hand, the interview with Class Teacher 1 was arranged after school in his classroom, where there was little concern about his schedule or events to follow. For these reasons, the interview with Class Teacher 1 was longer than the other interviews.

The majority of the interviews were conducted towards the end of the data collection period. Conducting interviews at a later stage in the data collection enabled the researcher to conduct productive interviews. By the time of the interviews, almost all the scheduled lesson observations were finished, hence, the researcher gained a deeper understanding of English lessons in the school and the 'prompts and probes' (Gillham, 2000; Bernard, 2013) during the interviews became more specific and were to the point.

Each interview was audio recorded with two digital recorders in case of unexpected technical problems. One lapel microphone was also used for the interviewee to avoid ambient noise. The recorded interviews were transcribed by the researcher. While transcribing the recorded interviews, the researcher

noticed that the interviewees raised the tone of their voices or changed the pitch of their talk when they wished to emphasise particular points, which helped the researcher to identify key terms or phrases later in the phase of data reduction. Rapley (2007) highlighted that through the process of listening to the recorded interviews again and again the researcher began to pick up the subtle features that at first they may have failed to notice (p.50).

The class teachers and the head teacher kindly made efforts to create time for the interviews because they were willing to help the researcher with conducting the present research. The Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2011) stated voluntary informed consent as one of the responsibilities to participants. When the participants were provided with informed consent, the researcher's attitude was to ask for their help in conducting research. For example, "Can you help with my research?" was in the Information Leaflet along with the explanation in relation to anonymity, privacy and participants' right to withdraw. As a result, the researcher was offered their help as one of the class teachers said "I am happy to help you with your research however I can" (personal communication). Thus, the participants understood the right of participants, and they helped the researcher with generating the data by their own will.

In summary, methodological triangulation with the three methods: document analysis, observation and interview was employed for the present study in order to obtain 'valid and reliable multiple and diverse realities' (Golafshani, 2003, p.604). Cohen, *et al.* (2011) emphasised the strength of the use of methodological triangulation particularly for a case study that enabled the researcher to gain a more holistic view of the case where a complex phenomenon required to be illustrated in detail (p.142). However, despite the impression that the name of triangulation may give, the concept of methodological triangulation was not the triangle. Ellingson (2009) argued that the qualitative inquiry with methodological triangulation should be the crystal, which had multiple lenses. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) also highlighted the multiple scopes enabling the researcher to tell the same story from different points of view (p.5).

This multiple scope with document analysis, observation and interview enabled the researcher to depict the human activities in question in a real life context. Methodological triangulation also helped increase the validity of the present study with multiple and different sources of information. The use of methodological triangulation appeared to be suitable for the claim made by Fontana and Frey (2003), “human beings are complex, and their lives are ever changing; the more methods we use to study them, the better our chances to gain some understanding of how they construct their lives and the stories they tell us about them” (p.99).

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3.6 Ethics

Since the purpose of the present study was to explore human activities in a primary school, the ethical issues that might arise in conducting the present study included the involvement of human subjects and school-aged children; the issue of privacy of the participants; and the presence of children in the classroom. In this section, I will discuss how these ethical issues were addressed.

Ethics can be defined as “the science of morality: those who engage in it determine values for the regulation of human behaviour” (Homan, 1991, p.1). For the present study, privacy of the participants and the involvement of school-aged children were the main ethical issues. These issues were addressed through ‘informed consent’ following the guidelines set by BERA, which stated that “researchers must take the steps necessary to ensure that all participants in the research understand the process in which they are to be engaged, including why their participation is necessary, how it will be used and how and to whom it will be reported” (The British Educational Research Association, 2001, p.4). Gregory (2003) also highlighted the significance of informed consent as “research involving human subjects undertaken without the explicit consent of the researched lacks an adequate moral basis, and it would be better if the research were not undertaken” (p.35).

In order to provide the participants with informed consent, the ‘Informed Consent Form’ was produced by the researcher (see Appendix 1). The Informed Consent Form was designed for the interviewees, hence the statements included these points: whether the interviewee agreed to be interviewed; whether the interviewee agreed with the audio recording; and whether the interviewee understood the interview data was going to be treated confidentially. The ‘Information Leaflet’ was also produced by the researcher (see Appendix 2), which had detailed but concise information regarding the data collection from the participant’s point of view. For example, the purpose of the present study; brief explanations of the process of interviews and observations, anonymity of the names of school and participants, and confidentiality of the storage of the collected data. Regarding the right to

withdraw for the participants, a sentence was clearly stated in the Information Leaflet as, “You decide if you want to take part, and even if you say “yes”, you can drop out at any time or say that you don’t want to answer some questions” (see Appendix 2). These ‘Informed Consent Form’ and ‘Information Leaflet’ were both reviewed and approved by the UCL IOE Research Ethics Committee (the former Faculty Research Ethics Committee) prior to the commencement of the empirical work.

The process of providing the participants with informed consent had two steps. Firstly, there was a general announcement to all the primary school staff regarding conducting my empirical work with the school. In the initial stage of the data collection with the school, I attended the primary school staff meeting on a Monday morning, where the deputy head teacher introduced me to all the primary school staff members stating that I was a PhD researcher from UCL IOE who would be conducting my empirical work for my PhD thesis with them at the school for about one year. The class teachers and the teaching assistants in Year 5 and Year 6 had appeared to be well informed prior to the staff meeting by the deputy head teacher regarding conducting my empirical work with them.

Secondly, each class teacher and teaching assistant was informed about my empirical work individually by the researcher. The Information Leaflet played a significant role in terms of providing the participants with informed consent. It was given to the class teachers and the teaching assistants in person prior to the interviews and the lesson observations so that the researcher could explain about the ethical issues in relation to the data collection and how they would be addressed. Also, since I was allowed to spend time in the staff room in the primary school during the data collection, there were opportunities to explain about my research not only to the class teachers in Year 5 and Year 6 but also to teachers in other year groups. Thus, the participants were provided with informed consent at the formal primary staff meeting as well as through casual individual conversations.

Regarding the involvement of the school-aged children, especially about observing the lessons with the presence of the children in the classrooms, the 'Letter for the Parents' was produced by the researcher both in English and in Japanese (see Appendix 3 and 4) as the informed consent for the parents. The Letter for the Parents was also reviewed and approved by the UCL IOE Research Ethics Committee. The children were informed about the presence of the researcher orally by their class teachers in their classrooms. Also, I had been issued with the 'Certificate of Criminal Record' by the Metropolitan Police Department of Japan, which was equivalent to the 'Disclosure & Barring Service (DRB) Disclosure' (formally 'Criminal Records Bureau (CRB) Disclosure') in the UK (see Appendix 5).

The ethical issues were addressed through informed consent for the present study, however, there were some criticisms about the concept of informed consent, one of which was the practicability of informed consent (Homan, 1991). In fact, there did not appear to be a clear guideline of what level of informed consent was regarded as sufficient. For the present study, three types of documents 'Informed Consent Form', 'Information Leaflet' and 'Letter for the Parents' were prepared. Also, the head teacher and the deputy head teacher at the school approved my observational work with the school, which was considered as the 'consent by gatekeepers' (*op cit.*, p.82). However, it would be important for a researcher to make the most of every opportunity to explain his or her research to the participants in order for the participants to have a clear idea of the process of the data collection. This is because participants are a critical part of a piece of research, especially for the data collection, and whether or not a researcher can generate rich data depends on the participants' rapport and willingness to participate in the research.

In addition, the present study had consultation with the participants where a summary report of the collected data was sent to the phase leader at the primary school and the report was disseminated to the participants in order to ensure that the interview data that were transferred to scripts were sufficiently accurate. BERA highlighted the importance of consultation with the participants as "the Association considers it good practice for researchers to

debrief participants at the conclusion of the research and to provide them with copies of any reports or other publications arising from their participation” (The British Educational Research Association, 2011, p.8). The Science Council of Japan (SCJ) (2013) also stated that “scientists shall respect the dignity and rights of individuals who cooperate in their research, and shall safeguard and give proper consideration to their welfare” (p.5).

In summary, since the present study involved human subjects and school-aged children, the main approach to the ethical issues was informed consent. The participants were provided with informed consent with the Informed Consent Form, the Information Leaflet and the Letter for the Parents. To the children, oral explanation by the responsible adults (class teachers) was provided in the classrooms. Also, the researcher was issued with the legal document prior to the empirical work. These processes ensured that the present study was not contrary to any aspects of ethical issues in the educational research domain.

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3.7 Analysis

Thematic analysis and coding was used as the approach to analysis for the present study. First, the relevant data that could answer the research questions were selected from the data set based on the concept of 'data reduction' (Miles and Huberman, 2013). Data reduction was defined as, "the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that appear in written-up field notes or transcriptions" (*ibid.* pp.10-11). The collected documents were sorted according to the format, such as lesson planning sheets, websites, booklets and leaflets, handouts, children's writings. The observation data on the observation schedule were transformed into fourteen 'lesson notes' and the recorded interview data were transcribed into 'interview scripts'.

Data reduction resulted in the following seven codes: curriculum; aims; learning objectives; knowledge; resources; Japanese context; and activities. The decision of these initial main codes was based on the research questions, the theoretical framework, and the patterns identified in the data set during the data reduction. First and foremost, since the fundamental purpose of the present study was to explore how England's national curriculum for English was being taught in a British international primary school in a Japanese context, the common features across the data set with the codes 'curriculum' and 'Japanese context' needed to be investigated. The codes 'aims' and 'knowledge' were included because the theories in relation to aims and knowledge in the curriculum informed the present study, and teachers' aims for English lessons and the selection of knowledge for English lessons were addressed in the research questions.

The codes 'learning objectives', 'resources' and 'activities' were included as the data reduction progressed. In teachers' lesson plans, learning objectives were stated as more specific targets, and it was decided to distinguish aims from learning objectives. Resources that were planned to be used in the lessons were explained in detail because the lesson plans were shared by the whole year group, the code 'resource' was included to explore what types of resources were used to teach the selected knowledge. The code 'activities'

was also used in order to explore what types of activities were used in the lessons to transfer the selected knowledge. Coding with these seven codes produced seven strands across the data set, in which each strand had the common feature according to the codes.

The selected data was categorised with coding. Scott and Morrison (2005) discussed the use of coding in analysis as, “coding is used to sort and ‘break down’ the data by looking in detail at its characteristics and provide first steps in discovering that the ‘whole’ is more than the sum of the ‘parts’” (p. 33). For the actual coding activities, a piece of qualitative analysis software, Nvivo (version 10) was used. This approach to the data analysis was regarded as Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS) (Fielding & Lee, 1991).

Using specialist software was useful as Denscombe (2014) argued that such software can aid the analyses with the abilities of computers to manage the data in terms of storage of data, coding of data, and retrieval of data. Robson *et al.* (2016) make a point that one of the disadvantages of using specialised software is the time taken to become proficient in its use. The important issue in using specialised software for the data analysis was understanding its role. The specialised software helped me organise and store the collected data; however, analysing the data was still in the researcher’s hand or head as LeCompte *et al.* (1993) said, “the thinking, judging, deciding, interpreting, etc. are still done by the researcher. The computer does not make conceptual decisions, such as which words or themes are important to focus on, or which analytic step to take next” (p.276).

As the first coding proceeded, I came to realise that sub codes were necessary under the main code of ‘curriculum’. This was because when the class teachers discussed England’s national curriculum in their interviews, they often referred to the Primary Framework for Literacy (PFL), and they often discussed the national curriculum and the PFL separately. For example, one of the class teachers answered as “we’d refer partly to the national curriculum [for lesson planning] but I mean mostly to the literacy framework [the PFL]”. Since the PFL was a part of the Primary National Strategy, these two sub

codes, 'National Curriculum England' and 'Primary National Strategy' were added.

One more main code, 'writing' was added while conducting the data collection. The reason why this code was added was that the head teacher put an emphasis on writing in the school in her interview. Also, the class teachers often emphasised in their interviews about the children's writing activities in the lessons. Therefore, the main code 'writing' was added towards the end of the data collection. Scott and Morrison (2005) highlighted the role of the researcher in interpreting the data, "the collection of information does not produce data automatically. What researchers do with information is key. It is through forms of sense making by researchers that 'raw' information becomes research data" (p.31). Table 3.4 shows the summary of the created codes.

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Table 3.4: The definitions of the created codes

Codes	Sub Codes	Definition	Exclusion
Curriculum		High level influences on the school's curriculum planning	Japan's national curriculum (the Course of Study)
	National Curriculum England	Explicit reference to England's national curriculum	
	Primary National Strategy	Explicit reference to the Primary National Strategy or the Primary Framework for Literacy	
Aims		Aims of English lessons in the school	Aims of other subjects
Learning objectives		Learning objectives for the English lessons	
Knowledge		Authoritative knowledge and everyday knowledge	
Resources		Resources that were used in English lessons	

Table 3.4: The definitions of the created codes (continued)

Codes	Sub Codes	Definition	Exclusion
Japanese context		Distinctive features of being a British international school in Japan	
Activities		Tasks or activities adopted in the English lessons	
Writing		Writing as tasks in the English lessons	Writing activities other than the tasks in the lessons

In order to identify themes across the data set, Miles and Huberman (2013) highlighted the importance of seeking for the 'patterns and processes, commonalities and differences' (p.9). Regarding the style of themes, Saldana (2016) suggested that the themes needed to be an extended phrase or sentence that could summarise what the data set was about and/or what the data set meant. As a result of taking notes about the commonalities and distinctive features in the coded data, these four themes emerged: fidelity to England's national curriculum; emphasis on writing; knowledge in English lessons; the aims of English lessons.

The first theme was about the ways to select the elements from England's national curriculum by the teachers. The second theme was identified through interpreting the data that the English lessons in the school were designed to produce a piece of writing towards the end of each unit, and the structure of the lessons in each unit appeared to be one big writing project. As to the third theme of knowledge in English lessons, the process of delivering new knowledge in the lessons was identified, which had room to develop to contribute to discussions of knowledge in curriculum theory. The fourth theme of the aims of English lessons was about the relationship between the teachers' aims of English lessons and the aims in the curriculum for English.

Thus, the method of data analysis for the present study was thematic analysis with computer assisted coding. Reporting the process of analysis in qualitative data has often been regarded as difficult because many of the processes of qualitative analyses are conducted in the researcher's head. However, in order to increase the validity of a piece of qualitative research, the process of analysing the qualitative data needs to be as transparent as possible when reporting the research. There was a strategy to report a part of the process of qualitative analysis such as 'audit trail' (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), it would be necessary to create a coherent framework for reporting the whole process of qualitative analysis.

3.8 Validity

In this section, the process of increasing the validity for the present study will be discussed. Increasing the validity of qualitative research can be described as “the process of checking, confirming, making sure, and being certain” (Morse *et al.*, 2002, p.17). I will discuss the validity for the present research in particular because Lincoln and Guba (1985) discussed that there could be no validity without reliability, therefore, a demonstration of the validity would be sufficient to establish the reliability.

When considering the validity in qualitative research, there are two types of threat according to Maxwell (2005): ‘researcher bias’ (the researcher’s subjectivity in qualitative research) and ‘reactivity’ (the effect of the researcher on the research settings). Regarding the researcher bias, the researcher’s background, for example, being educated in a school in Japan, might have influenced my perspectives towards the present study; however, Denscombe (2014) stated that there was a general acceptance that some biographical details about the researcher warrant inclusion as part of the qualitative analysis (p. 273). Regarding reactivity a number of visits were made prior to conducting the main empirical work so that the staff at the LBS could habituate to the researcher and to the general concept of the present study so that the reactivity such as the ‘hawthorne effect’ (Brown and Dowling, 2010, p.39) would be reduced.

In the discussion of the validity in qualitative research, the role of the researcher has been significant. In fact, the concept of the validity could differ depending on the researcher’s view of the world. Creswell and Miller (2000) argued that the validity could be affected by the researcher’s choice of research paradigm. Since the present study took the standpoint of interpretivism in the existing research paradigm, the ways of increasing the validity for the present study would be the following three processes: methodological triangulation; length of empirical work; and thick description (*op cit.*, 2000).

Along with the methodological triangulation discussed in the earlier section, a sufficient length was spent for the empirical work with the LBS, which was conducted between September 2012 and July 2014. Although my visits to the school were usually once a week or twice a week, the overall data collection period was nearly two years as Creswell and Miller (2000) discussed that validity procedure was for the researcher to stay at the empirical site for a prolonged period of time. Also, by providing thick description based on the lesson observations and the interviews with the teachers in the school, the researcher was able to establish 'credibility' in which the setting and the themes of a qualitative study were described in rich detail (Creswell and Miller, 2000, p.128). Providing the reader with the detailed accounts would also enable the reader to have a feeling that they experienced the events described in a qualitative study, which also contribute to the 'naturalistic generalisation' (Stake and Trumbull, 1982).

Thus, methodological triangulation, sufficient length of empirical work, and thick description were used in order to increase the validity of the present study, as well as addressing the issues of researcher's bias and reactivity. Like the process of reporting the analysis in qualitative research, there did not appear to be a clear and coherent process of increasing the validity in qualitative research. The validity checklist (Maxwell, 2005) could assist in enhancing the validity of a qualitative study; however, it cannot cover every aspect of increasing the validity in qualitative research. In other words, this ambiguity may represent the elusive and flexible nature of qualitative research.

3.9 Summary

In order to address the main research question, that is, how the teachers enact England's national curriculum for English in a British international primary school in Japan, a single case study was adopted to capture the complex human activities in the school. Based on the philosophical belief of interpretivism, methodological triangulation with document analysis, observation and interview was employed in order to generate rich data to address the subsidiary research questions with the theoretical focuses of the aims in the curriculum and knowledge in the curriculum. The collected data was analysed by utilising thematic analysis with coding. The uniqueness of the present study was the empirical site which had never been investigated scientifically as a piece of research before, where gaining access and corporation required time and effort.

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Chapter 4: Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the findings of the present study as four themes: Aims in the Curriculum; Knowledge in the Curriculum; Fidelity to England's National Curriculum; and Writing in the Curriculum. The first two themes were generated a priori based on the theoretical framing that underpinned the research. The latter two themes were created based on patterns identified during the data reduction. Having addressed the four themes a concluding section presents the Concepts of Specialised Knowledge and Everyday Knowledge as a cross-cutting final focus. The chapter begins with the head teacher's view which gives their perspectives in relation to the school. For each of the four themes the findings identified during document analysis is presented first. Next, the teachers' perspectives revealed in their interviews is discussed. Finally, the findings developed as a result of analysis of the lesson observations data are presented.

4.2 The Head Teacher's Perspectives

The head teacher's perspective on subject English in the school was that the school was following with fidelity the key areas in England's national curriculum:

Literacy teaching at LBS [Lionel British School] quite strictly follows the English National Curriculum, so we follow the strategy for literacy ... that has the key components of speaking listening reading and writing ... so the emphasis right away through the school is on those key areas (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 5-8).

Whilst the head teacher emphasised that the school followed England's national curriculum, she also said that the school had the advantage in terms of practising England's national curriculum because they did not need to

implement the national curriculum as in the state schools in the UK: “we can wait and see what works and what doesn’t work” (Head teacher, interview 1, line 129); “we can pick all the best bits [from England’s national curriculum] which was what we have done with the national curriculum” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 130-131). Although the school had flexibility regarding the selection of the elements from England’s national curriculum, it was necessary for the school not to be too far away from the schools in the UK. This was because the school had children who wished to transfer to schools in the UK and there were children who needed to go to other British international schools due to their parents’ circumstances. The head teacher said, “one of our main goals of the school is that the children at LBS who are going to be moving in the school in the UK can do so smoothly” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 131-132). The school was in the position that they could be flexible in practising England’s national curriculum, however, because of the responsibility of offering children smooth school transfer in terms of curriculum, it was necessary for them to keep an appropriate balance between the contents of the English lessons in the school in Japan and the contents of English lessons in state schools in the UK.

With regard to the English lessons in the school, the head teacher’s view was that the kind of topics (specialised knowledge) the children learned was less important. Her point was that children ought to develop skills (everyday knowledge) through learning lesson topics (specialised knowledge):

The National Curriculum is actually underpinned by skills, so the history topic, if you look at the history national curriculum ... it has actually the list of historian skills, so things like understanding bias or being able to use source materials, extracting information, and opinion from source materials, those are the skills underlie, so it doesn’t matter with your learning about the Great Fire of London or the Great Fire of Edo [the former name of Tokyo] because those skills you need to impose (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 186-192).

According to the head teacher the selection of lesson topics was left largely to

the teachers' discretion. When selecting the lesson topics (specialised knowledge), the children's interest (everyday knowledge) was the most important factor: "this class, they absolutely love transport, last year's class at this stage had not interested in transport at all, but this year group love it, so she [a class teacher] would choose a text of transport" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 167-170).

For the head teacher, reading and writing were the fundamental skills to be developed in English lessons. The head teacher regarded books as the primary resources: "this lesson might be about reading skills, influence, so I'm going to choose a book and I'm going to choose the passages in the book..." (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 164- 165); "it [the National Curriculum] is a target driven so it has to be padded and enhanced with good literature" (Head teacher, interview 1, line 158).

The interview with the head teacher was conducted during a transition time of national curricula, thus the head teacher mentioned the changes in national curriculum; however, even if there were changes, these changes would not affect significantly the teachers in the ways they would teach English because the fundamental skills that the children needed to develop would remain the same: "for literacy, there is not too many ways that you can change because the children need to learn to read, and they need to learn to write, you know there's two or three different ways to approach it" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 134-136).

The head teacher's views towards the aims of English lessons was to link the practical aspects of English lessons in the classroom to the children's lives outside the classroom, saying that "it's not just literacy skills, it's a working practice so it's a combination of about using literacy to work and learn rather than just learning literacy" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 96-97). The head teacher also expected the children to utilise reading skills that they acquired in English lessons in other areas of learning: "read for understanding so that they are using that as a tool to open up doors to all different learning" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 65-66). Although the head teacher emphasised the

importance of reading and writing in her interview, she did not have a positive opinion about writing stories: “it [writing stories] is the traditional image of what schools do with writing. Our children have exposure to all different types of genres ... all different types of writing which help them as they get further up into their adulthood” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 71-74).

When the head teacher commented on developing the children’s reading skills, she tried to place value on something beyond developing the children’s reading skills: “to be able to read for meaning and comprehension not just have the mechanics of reading” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 64-65). In fact, the overall purpose of English lessons that the head teacher highlighted was developing the children’s communication skills, not developing literacy skills:

I think the key point of the literacy curriculum is to develop children who are able to communicate, so that means we are developing children who are able to articulate their ideas and that are able to explain and argue their opinion but also listening to other people ... (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 58-61).

The head teacher’s point of view on the purpose of the English lessons in the school was to develop the children’s everyday knowledge such as communication. She emphasised developing the children’s communication through learning literacy; however, communication can be conducted without language skills. The aim emphasised by the head teacher can be put in a different way such as ‘to develop the children’s ability to have a dialogue’. This is because when one wishes to have a dialogue with other people, it would be necessary for the person to have their own views, to be able to articulate the views in orally or written form, but the person also needs to have an open mind to be able to listen to other people.

Among the four language skills: reading, writing speaking and listening, the head teacher prioritised writing the most. The head teacher’s view of oracy was to develop the children’s writing, saying she strongly believed “if children can’t say it they’ll find it very difficult to write it ... what we try to develop in the

children is the ability to speak and say their sentences before they are actually expected to write it” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 11-13). In addition to the links between writing and oracy, the head teacher also mentioned the synergistic effect between writing and reading: “what we found is that the children do the most reading are the children who write with the strongest writer’s voice” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 29-31). Thus, the head teacher’s standpoint was that writing was regarded as the most prioritised skills for the children to develop among the four language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening), and reading and oracy were placed to develop the children’s writing skills.

With this emphasis on writing, the children were encouraged to start writing in earlier year groups in the school: “as soon as the children are ready to start writing, we encourage it, and that happens in the Nursery, so they are already starting ... as they’re ready, they are encouraged to write at their own pace...” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 21-25). This high emphasis on writing across the school stemmed from the links between good writing and obtaining higher grades. Developing the children’s writing was critical for them to achieve higher grades, and this factor appeared to contribute to the high emphasis on writing across the school: “in order to get the higher level of assessment in the writing curriculum, they have to show their own writer’s voice in their own writing style” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 31-33). The children were expected to produce their pieces of writing with their own ‘writer’s voice’ to achieve higher grades within the assessment system. The head teacher seemed to be trying to raise the school’s standard through developing the children’s writing.

The head teacher highlighted ‘experiencing real world activities’ as another aim of English lessons in the school. The head teacher especially regarded writing activities as a preparation for the children’s adulthood: “our children have exposure to all different types of genres so writing poetry, writing reports,

journalistic writing, recounts, instructions, all different types of writing which then help them as they get further up into their adulthood” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 71-74). In order to make the writing activities closer to real world activities, the children were exposed to a variety of writing styles in English lessons, also the children were experiencing a wide range of writings across other subjects. According to the head teacher, the children were learning about the Great Fire of London through the cross curricular links between English and history, where the children learned about the fire based on Samuel Peep’s diary, and then they recounted the event applying journalistic writing style or diary writing style to their own writings (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 176-184).

Another real world activity that the head teacher highlighted was ‘peer feedback for their writings’. The head teacher believed that peer feedback activity in the English lessons was one of the most similar activities to real world activities: “so reading someone else’s writing and giving them advice but also hearing the advice that someone else gives you can be very powerful ... and that’s reality even when you get older” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 86-87). The use of software in classrooms contributed to providing the children with opportunities to experience writing activities which were close to real world activities: “we have worked a lot this year on how to collaboratively work so they use Google Docs and Google Drive, and Google sites actually to share their work amongst them, now they know if they share it with the teacher and their friend they got their ability to actually comment on their writing as they go along” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 89-93). These peer feedback activities were aided with IT resources, which made the process of producing a piece of writing closer to the real world activities.

Thus, the head teacher’s perspectives regarding the English lessons in the school was that they were quite strictly following England’s national curriculum, although they had the advantage of being flexible towards the selection of the elements from the curriculum. This flexibility of the selection of these elements was left largely to class teachers’ discretion, which was explored under the theme of ‘Fidelity to England’s national curriculum’ in section 4.5. The head

teacher's views towards the English lessons in the school was to develop the children's everyday knowledge such as communication through learning based on lesson topics (specialised knowledge), nevertheless, the head teacher strongly believed that children's interests (everyday knowledge) ought to be reflected in the selection of lessons topics (specialised knowledge) in order to raise their motivation. The head teacher also put a high emphasis on writing because writing activities in English lessons would be preparation for the children's adulthood, therefore, the writing activities in classroom were supported by IT resources in order to make links to the writing activities in the classroom and real world activities, which showed the head teacher's standpoint of the significance of the children's knowledge outside the school.

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4.3 Aims in the Curriculum

In this section, the analyses for the data in relation to the aims of the English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the school are presented under the theme of 'Aims in the Curriculum'. This theme was formulated based on the theoretical focus of the present study, which was curriculum aims. One of the main aims of the LBS was to offer British style teaching in Japan, following England's national curriculum. The research studies on international schools in Japan discussed in Chapter 2 showed that which curriculum the school follows was a significant factor in parents choosing a school for their children. The head teacher of the LBS also emphasised first and foremost that the school was strictly following England's national curriculum in her answers to literacy education in the school.

The English lessons in the LBS were in fact planned based on England's national curriculum. The aims of English lessons were stated in teachers' lesson plans as 'success criteria'. As a result of the analysis of the success criteria and related activities, three overarching aims for the English lessons were identified: a) to develop the children's academic skills; b) to experience real world activities; and c) to develop the children's criticality to see the value and the quality of texts. Table 4.1 shows these overarching aims in examples from the success criteria and related activities in the lesson plans in Year 5 and Year 6.

Table 4.1: Three overarching aims implied through the success criteria and related activities of all lesson plans

To Develop Academic Skills	To Experience Real World Activities	To Develop Criticality
“Can I write a balanced argument, which incorporates the features of the genre?”	“Becoming a biographer!”	“Discuss positive features a piece of writing from yesterday; then discuss how improvements can be made”
“Back up reasons with examples from my own reading habits”	“Conduct interview as ‘press conference’”	“Which pieces of writing did I most enjoy? Can I explain what made the writing so successful and enjoyable?”
“All children to sort and order the sentence strips and decide which ones can be discarded”	“Can I write in journalistic style?”	“Can I respond positively to the opinions of others?”
“Use a phrase card when [the children] make their point”	“Can I write a newspaper headline?”	“Share their rough drafts with a partner, evaluating what is great about it and what could be improved”
“To express opinions persuasively with supportive evidences by selecting appropriate facts from the ‘statistics fact sheet’”		
“Carry out interviews with [children’s] partner and make notes”		

In the success criteria and related activities in relation to developing academic skills, the children were expected to write texts, being aware of arguments in their own writings: “Can I write a balanced argument, which incorporates the features of the genre?” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 5, Year 6), and the children were supposed to learn how to use the supportive examples to make the arguments more persuasive: “back up reasons with examples from my own reading habits” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 2, Year 5). The children were also expected to identify and understand coherence in a piece of writing: “all children to sort and order the sentence strips and decide which ones can be discarded” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 1, Year 5). These success criteria and the related activities appeared to be focusing particularly on writing.

Not only for writing, the activities in relation to discussions were also seen in the success criteria and related activities for developing the children’s academic skills. The children were expected to express their opinions in English lessons using particular phrases for discussions: “each child has a phrase card which they must use when making their point” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 5, Year 6). Along with using the particular phrases, the success criteria stated that the children would need to express their opinions persuasively with supportive evidence: “to express opinions persuasively with supportive evidences by selecting appropriate facts from the ‘statistics fact sheet’” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 5, Year 6).

Activities exploring research skills were also included in the success criteria and related activities for developing the children’s academic skills. The children were asked to formulate questions for an interview to obtain information. The interviews were recorded with a view to using the information for their own writings: “children to carry out interviews with their partner and make notes, including direct quotes so that they have examples of direct speech for their piece of journalistic writing” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 9, Year 6); “design questions which enable me to gather sufficient interesting information to form a biography?” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 4, Year 6). Thus, the success criteria and related activities for developing the children’s academic skills included activities focusing on these three aspects: writing,

discussion and research.

The success criteria and related activities for experiencing real world activities included activities to experience jobs that exist in the real world. There was a clear statement to experience a professional job in the activities; for example, “becoming a biographer!” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 4, Year 6). Also, there was an activity aimed at experiencing a similar situation to a professional job: “interview conducted as “press conference”, i.e. questions and time are limited” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 4, Year 6). There were success criteria and activities to become a scenario writer or a journalist: “after the drama element, [the children] write their own scenarios for things that might happen” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 6, Year 6); “Can I write in journalistic style?” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 9, Year 6); “Can I write a newspaper headline?” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 9, Year 6). In order to provide the children with experience of real world activities, the success criteria and related activities were designed similar situations to professional jobs in the real world.

The activities stated in the success criteria often required the children to evaluate their peers’ writings. Through these activities of giving feedback to each other on their writings, the children were expected to develop their criticality towards the value and the quality of different types of texts.: “Discuss positive features of a piece of writing from yesterday; then discuss how improvements can be made” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 1, Year 5); “Which pieces of writing did I most enjoy? Can I explain what made the writing so successful and enjoyable?” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 4, Year 6). The success criteria also included activities of editing and revising the children’s own writings based on feedback from their peers: “share their rough drafts with a partner, evaluating what is great about it and what could be improved” (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 8, Year 6).

As a result of document analysis for the aims of English lessons, the success criteria and related activities were designed to develop the children’s academic skills such as writing, discussion and research; experiencing real world activities through the activities that were similar to professional jobs in the real

world; and developing the children's criticality through peer feedback activities. The analysis of the interviews with the class teachers regarding the aims of English lessons in the school revealed that there were two types of aims: to develop the children's literacy skills; and to develop the children's skills beyond literacy. Table 4.2 shows these two types of aims for English lessons and the examples from the interviews with the head teacher and with the teachers.

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Table 4.2: Two types of aims of English lessons implied by the teachers

	To Develop Literacy Skills	To Develop Skills Beyond Literacy
Head teacher	<p>“To be able to read for meaning and comprehension”</p> <p>“Our children have exposure to all different types of genres”</p>	<p>“We are developing children who are able to articulate their ideas and that are able to explain and argue their opinion but also listening to other people”</p>
Class teachers	<p>“[To be] able to use reading strategies independently, for example, skimming and scanning, reading for meaning”</p> <p>“[To gain] ability to structure a story from scratch without support”</p> <p>“Analysing texts and becoming better writers”</p>	<p>“Being able to just effectively communicate but also be creative and have the flexibility and being able to adapt to different situations with communication”</p> <p>“What we try to promote really is the love of literacy”</p> <p>“[We are] encouraging the children to find a passion for reading”</p> <p>“We need to be thinking of what’s going to be relevant for our kids in the future”</p> <p>“[I’d like the children to develop their] critical thinking and problem solving”</p> <p>“[I’d like the children to write] creatively which can be accessed by the audience through the correct use of grammar, sentence structure and punctuation”</p>

In the interview with the teachers, the development of the children's literacy skills was one of the main aims of the English lessons: "[to be] able to use reading strategies independently, for example, skimming and scanning, reading for meaning" (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, lines 81-82); "[to gain] ability to structure a story from scratch without support" (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, line 83); "general objectives are analysing texts and becoming better writers I think" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 63). In the school, the development of the children's literacy was assessed by the framework produced by the British government. As the head teacher mentioned that developing the children's writing could contribute to achieving higher grades, the class teachers also conceived that achieving targets in the assessment frameworks was another critical aim of English lessons: "we use the APP (Assessing Pupils' Progress) kind of levelling documents to base our assessment of the children, so in terms of skills that we want them to be able to have, we follow that" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 198-200); "I would like all children to reach their expected level of attainment by the end of the year in both reading and writing" (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 92-93); "[we are] ensuring the child understands what they have achieved and what their next steps are" (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, lines 154-155).

Most of the class teachers, however, emphasised that they wished the children to acquire skills beyond literacy through English lessons, that is everyday knowledge for their lives in the future: "we need to be thinking of what's going to be relevant for our kids in the future" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, line 110-111); "I think giving the skills that the children are actually going to use when they graduate eventually" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 113-115); "[I'd like the children to develop their] critical thinking and problem solving" (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, line 62). The head teacher and the literacy co-ordinator both highlighted that acquiring 'communication skills' was the ultimate purpose of the English lessons, along with everyday knowledge: "as a broader sense, I think being able to just effectively communicate but also be creative and have the flexibility and being able to adapt to different situations with communication" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 200-202).

One of the communication skills the class teachers raised particularly in their interviews was the awareness of the reader: “[I’d like the children to write] creatively which can be accessed by the audience through the correct use of grammar, sentence structure and punctuation” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 76-77); “[I’d like [to] develop the children’s] awareness of audience and purpose” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 39). When the head teacher mentioned developing the children’s communication skills, what she emphasised was the children’s ability to articulate opinions and to listen to other people’s opinions. Thus, there was a difference between the head teacher’s view and the class teachers’ views towards developing the children’s communication skills. The head teacher highlighted speaking and listening to develop the children’s communication skills whereas the class teachers were more focusing on developing these skills through reading and writing.

The class teachers also felt that the children had positive feelings towards literacy: “what we try to promote really is the love of literacy” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, line 7); “[we are] encouraging the children to find a passion for reading” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 36); “I’d like them [the children] to be reading books that they love and enjoy” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 95). In order to enjoy English lessons, the environment of classroom appeared to be important for the class teachers, especially when the children were trying to write with imagination: “as long as they [the children] are writing, they can sit on the floor, they can sit on the carpet at the back, they can sit on chair ... they should be comfortable because I think if they are not comfortable, it’s not very conducive for creativity” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 183-186).

The analysis of the observed lessons identified that two aims in English lessons were conducting activities: a) ‘to experience leadership’ and b) ‘to develop the children’s imagination’. Regarding experiencing leadership, a pupil-led lesson was conducted in Year 6 during the unit of ‘balanced arguments’. One pupil took over a lesson from the class teacher to do the ‘football pitch debate’ activity with a debate theme, ‘men can make a better soldier than women’. The debate was totally led by the pupil, and the class teacher and the teaching assistants watched the lesson sitting by the window

in the classroom. The pupil seemed to find it hard to control the class when the rest of the children were too excited about expressing their opinions during the debate. When the pupil-led lesson came to an end, the class teacher summarised the debate and some of the children commented on the pupil's brilliant leadership during the lesson. The pupil who led the lesson seemed very pleased receiving the positive feedback from her peers, and the pupil who experienced class management seemed to gain confidence through the experience (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No.11, Year 6).

In this lesson for the unit of balanced arguments, the children who participated in the football pitch debate were holding the slips that had phrases such as 'I'd like to comment on...' or 'I agree to...' which they needed to use when they expressed their opinions. Therefore, one of the main objectives for this lesson was to practise these discussion phrases in an actual debate in order to develop the children's discussion skills. However, for the pupil who led the lesson, the main aim for the lesson was to 'experience leadership by leading a lesson', and this was not directly linked to developing the pupil's literacy skills. Further, the senior staff members of the school were informed about this pupil-led lesson in advance, and the deputy head of the primary school came to the classroom to observe how the pupil was managing the lesson. So, the aims of the English lesson were experiencing leadership through the pupil-led lesson as well as practising the discussion phrases in a football pitch debate (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 11, Year 6).

Along with activities for experiencing leadership, some activities that aimed for the children to develop their imagination were identified. In a Year 5 lesson for the unit of horror story, the class teacher carried out 'show & tell' in order for the children to feel a sense of fear. At the beginning of the lesson, the class teacher told the children that he had a new pet over the weekend, which was a scorpion and it was inside a cardboard box, which had two holes in each side. The truth was the box was filled with clothes and there was no scorpion inside. Some children put a hand in one hole and tried to reach the scorpion. From the other side, the class teacher was putting his hand in and one of the children touched his hand. The child screamed, thinking he had touched the

scorpion. Then, the class teacher revealed the truth. The children were suddenly disappointed and started to accuse the class teacher of telling a lie to them. The class teacher apologised and explained the purpose and reason why he did this, which was for them to feel a sense of fear. Then, the class teacher asked the following questions: “How did you feel when you put your hands in the box?” and “What was your physical reaction when you were scared?” (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 2, Year 5).

In this lesson, the children not only volunteered to try to touch the ‘scorpion’ but also the rest of the children experienced the sense of fear watching this activity. Also, the class teacher drew the curtains before the lesson started and the classroom was darker than usual. Towards the end of this unit of horror, the children were asked to produce their own horror stories, and the activities throughout the unit were designed in order to prepare them for producing their own stories. The purpose of this particular activity was not for developing the children’s writing, however, this activity would help the children’s developing their imagination for the sense of fear when they produced their own stories.

Another activity that was designed to develop the children’s imagination was also identified in a Year 6 English lesson for the cross curricular topic of the Second World War. The activity was designed based on the events that had happened to the Jewish people during the Second World War. Some children were asked to wear badges for half a day in the school. The children who were going to wear the badges were carefully chosen by the class teacher and the teaching assistant in advance. All of the staff members in the school were also informed about the nature and the purpose of the activity in advance. The children who wore the badges were not allowed to use new laptops during their writing activities in the classroom and they were not allowed to collect their water bottles without permission during the lesson. The purpose of the activity was to sense a certain emotion in relation to discrimination. After the lesson, one of the pupils who was asked to wear the badges told me that she felt very scared while wearing the badge because other children said bad things to her. The nature of this activity included rather delicate issues, and personally I doubt the necessity of the activity for experiencing discrimination in this way in

English lessons (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 10, Year 6). However, this was another example of the teachers' aims to develop the children's skills beyond literacy such as imagination (everyday knowledge) in the English lessons.

In summary, although developing the children's literacy was recognised as one of the aims for the English lessons, the ultimate aim that was identified across the data was to develop the children's knowledge beyond literacy. The knowledge beyond literacy that the children brought into the school such as communication, imagination and criticality was developed further through related activities in the English lessons. The knowledge beyond literacy that can be applied to the children's adulthood was also developed in the English lessons. For example, the children were expected to learn how to develop an argument in their writings, express their views in discussions or explore on a particular topic, which can be utilised as academic skills when they continue to study in their adulthood. Activities that were similar to real world activities and an activity that focused on developing the children's leadership were also identified in the English lessons. These findings suggested that acquiring the specialised knowledge was not the ultimate purpose for the English lessons. Developing the specialised knowledge that formed the subject such as English grammar, spelling or punctuation was one aspect of the aims for the English lessons, however, the teachers' perspectives towards the aims for the literacy were more on developing the children's everyday knowledge that they brought into the school and developing the everyday knowledge that would be applied in the children's adulthood.

4.4 Knowledge in the Curriculum

Placing knowledge in the curriculum includes a discussion in relation to what kinds of knowledge children ought to learn in schools. In Chapter 2, a debate over two perspectives with regard to placing knowledge was discussed, which were: children ought to acquire specialised knowledge in schools; and children ought to develop personal qualities such as imagination or confidence in schools as well as acquiring specialised knowledge. In this section, analyses of the data are presented under the theoretical driven theme, Knowledge in the Curriculum. Since the LBS was following England's national curriculum, the elements of what to teach were selected from the documents of England's national curriculum. However, the selection of the elements and the resources used in English lessons implied the teachers' intention of what they would like the children to acquire in English lessons.

The knowledge children ought to learn through the teaching of England's national curriculum was outlined in National Curriculum in England: Framework for Key Stages 1 to 4 (DfE, 2013) as the 'statutory requirements'. The knowledge to be learned for the subject English was stated in the English Programmes of Study: Key Stages 1 and 2 (DfE, 2013), which focused on spoken language, reading and writing, and vocabulary development. The English Programmes of Study: Key Stages 1 and 2 (DfE, 2013) stated the importance of teaching English grammar in English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 as, "explicit knowledge of grammar is, however, very important, as it gives us more conscious control and choice in our language. Building this knowledge is best achieved through a focus on grammar within the teaching of reading, writing and speaking" (p.64). Table 4.3 shows the grammatical concepts stated in lesson plans in the school and the statutory requirements of grammatical concepts stated in the English Programmes of Study: Key Stages 1 and 2.

Table 4.3: A comparison of the grammatical concepts in lesson plans and in statutory requirements

School Year	Categories	Grammatical Concepts in Lesson Plans	Grammatical Concepts in Statutory Requirements
Year 5			Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, then, after that, this, firstly].
	Text	First person	Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time [for example, later], place [for example, nearby] and number [for example, secondly] or tense choices [for example, he had seen her before].
	Sentence	Sentence openers, connections, main clauses, subordinate clauses, subordinating conjunctions, conjunctions	Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun. Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] or modal verbs [for example, might, should, will, must].
	Word	Adjectives, verbs, plurals, suffixes	Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes [for example, -ate; -ise; -ify]. Verb prefixes [for example, dis-, de-, mis-, over- and re-].
	Punctuation	The use of commas	Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis. Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity.
	Terminology for pupils	Not indicated	Modal verb, relative pronoun, relative clause, parenthesis, bracket, dash cohesion, ambiguity.

Table 4.3: (Continued)

School Year	Categories	Grammatical Concepts in Lesson Plans	Grammatical Concepts in Statutory Requirements
Year 6	Text	Paragraph and sentence markers, sentence structures, first person, third person, use of tense (present tense, past tense), the use of Standard English.	<p>Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence], and ellipsis.</p> <p>Layout devices [for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text].</p>
	Sentence	Sentence openers, connectives, conjunctions, connections	<p>Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence [for example, I broke the window in the greenhouse versus The window in the greenhouse was broken (by me)].</p> <p>The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, the use of question tags: He's your friend, isn't he? or the use of subjunctive forms such as If I were or Were they to come in some very formal writing and speech].</p>

Table 4.3: (Continued)

School Year	Categories	Grammatical Concepts in Lesson Plans	Grammatical Concepts in Statutory Requirements
Year 6	Word	Adjectives	<p>The difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, find out – discover; ask for – request; go in – enter].</p> <p>How words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms [for example, big, large, little].</p>
	Punctuation	Speech punctuation (dialogue, action, description), punctuation (apostrophes, commas)	<p>Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses [for example, It's raining; I'm fed up].</p> <p>Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists.</p> <p>Punctuation of bullet points to list information.</p> <p>How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity [for example, man eating shark versus man-eating shark, or recover versus re-cover].</p>
	Terminology for pupils	Not indicated	Subject, object, active, passive, synonym, antonym, ellipsis, hyphen, colon, semi-colon, bullet points.

In Year 5, at text level, grammatical concepts such as sentence openers and the use of person were seen in lesson plans, whereas the use of tense and the phrases in relation to time, place and number were suggested in the statutory requirements. At sentence level, relative clauses, adverbs and modal verbs were suggested in the statutory requirements, whereas the use of clauses, conjunctions and adjectives were seen in the curriculum for English. At word level, the use of suffix and plurals were seen in lesson plans, however in the statutory requirements, verb prefixes were also suggested. For punctuation, only the use of commas was covered in the lesson plans from the statutory requirements. Regarding the terminology of grammar for pupils, no items were indicated in lessons plans from the statutory requirements (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 1-3, Year 5).

In Year 6, at text level, layout devices for texts and the markers for cohesive paragraphs were suggested in the statutory requirements. In lesson plans, paragraph and sentence markers, sentence openers were seen as stated in the requirements. In lesson plans, the use of 'Standard English' was also indicated particularly for the topic of journalistic writing (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 9, Year 6). At sentence level, formal and informal speech as well as the use of passive were suggested in the statutory requirements, and in lesson plans, direct and reported speech, open questions, the use of clauses, use of tense and use of connectives were indicated (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 4-10, Year 6).

At word level, only adjectives were indicated in lesson plans whereas formal and informal vocabulary (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 8, Year 6), synonyms and antonyms were suggested in the statutory requirements. For punctuation, the misconception of the use of apostrophe known as 'grocer's apostrophe' was featured in lesson plans for the topic of WW2 (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 7, Year 6). In the statutory requirements, specific items of punctuation such as semi-colon, colon, dash, bullet or hyphens were suggested. Like Year 5, none of the terminology of the grammar for the pupils in the statutory requirements was indicated in lesson plans. Thus, the lesson plans in the school did not fully cover the statutory requirements in England's national

curriculum in terms of teaching English grammar, and the items of grammatical concepts indicated in lesson plans were less than those in the statutory requirements in England's national curriculum.

The English Programmes of Study: Key Stages 1 and 2 also stated the importance of the balance between fiction and non-fiction regarding the selection of resources for the curriculum for English in schools as "all pupils must be encouraged to read widely across both fiction and non-fiction to develop their knowledge of themselves and the world in which they live" (p.4). Table 4.4 shows the genres of resources stated in lesson plans according to lesson topics.

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Table 4.4: The genres of resources according to lesson topics

School Year	Lesson Topics	Fiction Used in Lessons	Non-fiction Used in Lessons
Year 5	Greek myths	<i>The Storyteller: The Theseus and the Minotaur</i> (video)	
	Significant authors	<i>Charlie and Chocolate Factory</i> by Roald Dahl (book) <i>Giant Peach</i> by Roald Dahl (book) <i>The Snail and the Whale</i> by Julia Donaldson (book) <i>Diary of the Wimpy Kid</i> by Jeff Kinney (book) Tom Gates series by Liz Pichon (book)	
	Horror stories	Extracts from a range of horror stories, Victorian horror stories	
Year 6	Autobiography and biography		Famous Britons: Emily Pankhurst, William Adams, Walter Tull, Mary Anning, William Tyndale, Luol Deng, Thomas Andrews, John Peel, Don McCullin, Alan Turing, Pete Best, Tim Berners-Lee, Charles Rennie Mackintosh (pictures)
	Balanced argument		<i>BBC Newsnight</i> (video), Mosquito sound (video)
	Crime mystery	<i>The Westing Game</i> by Ellen Raskin (book) <i>Get a Clue</i> by Agatha Christie (video) <i>Dead Man's Mirror</i> by Agatha Christie (video)	

Table 4.4: (Continued)

School Year	Lesson Topics	Fiction Used in Lessons	Non-fiction Used in Lessons
Year 6	Flashbacks WW2	<i>The Chronicles of Narnia: The Lion, the Witch and the Wardrobe</i> by C.S. Lewis (video) <i>Hana's Suitcase</i> by Karen Levine (book)	
	Formal and informal	<i>Fawlty Towers</i> (video)	
	Journalistic writing	<i>The Machine Gunners</i> by Robert Westall (book) <i>An elephant in the Garden</i> by Michael Morpurgo (book)	Newspaper articles during the WW2 <i>The T-Mobile welcome Back</i> (video)
	Nature poetry		Photos taken by the children

In Year 5, all of the resources were fiction for the three topics, 'Greek myths', 'significant authors' and 'horror stories' (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 1, 2, and 3, Year 5). In Year 6, non-fiction resources were indicated for the topics of 'autobiography and biography'; 'balanced arguments'; and 'nature poetry' (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 4, 5, and 10, Year 6). For the topics of 'crime mystery', 'flashback WW2' and 'formal and informal', all the resources indicated were fiction (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 6, 7 and 8, Year 6). Only for the topic of 'journalistic writing' were both fiction and non-fiction resources indicated (Documents, Lesson plan, No. 9, Year 6). This suggested that the teachers were not using both fiction and non-fiction resources for each topic; therefore, 'to read widely across both fiction and non-fiction' stated in the English Programmes of Study: Key Stages 1 and 2 was achieved by selecting a wide range of topics.

With regard to the context of the resources used in English lessons, almost all of the resources were selected from the British context in both Year 5 and Year 6. In Year 5, a British television series 'Storyteller' was indicated for the topic of Greek myths, and British Victorian horror stories were suggested for the topic of horror stories. Also, four authors were mentioned for the topic of significant authors, in which three authors were British (Roald Dahl, Julia Donaldson and Liz Pichon) and one author was American (Jeff Kinney). In Year 6, almost all the authors and public figures indicated in the lesson plan were selected from the British context except Ellen Raskin (the United States) and Karen Levine (Canada). Visual resources such as 'BBC Newsnight' or 'Fawlty Towers' were also selected from the British context. Resources that were related to the Japanese context were indicated for the topic of nature poetry; however, these photos were taken by the children during their school trip to Mt. Takao (a mountain in Japan), and these photos were used as stimulus for writing a poem, not as new knowledge. Thus, while a balance between fiction and non-fiction in resources was achieved, most of the resources were selected from the British context.

The analysis of the interviews with the teachers revealed that the class teachers' views towards the selection of lesson topics were similar to the head

teacher's comments in terms of the influence of the children's interests on the ways to select the topics. The class teachers conceived that the children's interest was the most important factor when selecting lesson topics because the success of the lessons would depend on the children's motivation: "we're trying to make the interest levels high and the engagement high in lessons, and we do that through trying to plan a curriculum that will appeal to the children we have in the school" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 10-12); "as teachers we get together and decide ... what would stimulate them" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 240-241); "the children in Year 6 loved the balanced arguments unit and I think they would benefit enormously from [it if we have] more time to debate the topics they are passionate about" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 84-86).

Although lesson topics were selected based on the children's interests in the school, the overall contents of the English lessons were not too far away from those of the schools' in the UK. This was because the lesson topics were selected from the PFL in the Primary National Strategy or from the documents published by the then Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA): "we'd refer partly to the National Curriculum but I mean mostly to the Literacy Framework" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 93-94). This use of England's national curriculum and the related documents for the selection of lesson topics also ensured the standard of English lessons in the school: "the same types of units are done [in the Lionel British School] as a school in the UK" (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 47-48); "[the National Curriculum] provides a framework for what to teach and all children in the UK and in British schools around the world are teaching the same" (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 54-56).

Even though it was not necessary for the school to follow England's national curriculum, the school tried not to be too far away from the schools in the UK in terms of the contents and the standards of English lessons. In the course of the present study, there were significant changes in primary education in England, and the British government introduced a new national curriculum in 2014. It would be informative to illustrate the teachers' views towards the new

national curriculum 2014 in terms of what to teach in English lessons: “the focus will be a lot more on Britain ... it is important that children learning a British Curriculum do have a bit more knowledge about Britain” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 64-68); “there is an emphasis on real life contexts throughout” (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, line 54); “[it’s] good that Shakespeare has been introduced early to get the pupils ready for secondary school” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 67-68).

Most of the class teachers’ comments towards the new national curriculum 2014 were positive whereas one class teacher was not convinced about the new feature in relation to the grammatical concepts in the new national curriculum 2014: “there is a brand new focus on things like grammar and punctuation and spelling, and personally I think grammar is quite important, but whether I think it’s an important skill for children I’m not so sure” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 51-53). This class teacher’s answer appeared to be contradicted because he conceived English grammar was important, however grammar was not important skills for the children. This can be explained in relation to the class teachers’ comments about the aims of English lessons, where the teachers regarded that acquiring useful and long-lasting skills beyond literacy was more important than merely developing their literacy skills. This class teacher seemed to feel that teaching English grammar was not linked enough to the aims of English lessons that the teachers were pursuing. Thus, one of the possibilities to make the teaching of English grammar more attractive to teachers would be to connect the activities of grammar to developing the children’s skills beyond literacy such as communication skills.

Nevertheless, teaching English grammar continued to be one of the main areas in the content of the curriculum for English as the teachers said: “to be aware of grammatical features to apply with increasing accuracy when speaking and writing” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 72-73); “past and present tense very common mistakes that keep coming up in writings” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 263-264). In fact, this school had a specific reason to enhance teaching the English grammar in English lessons, which was the

children with EAL: “we have lots of EAL children within the school that need more basic, structured lessons, where simple skills are taught, for example, phonics, spelling patterns, tenses” (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, lines 73-75).

Regarding resources, the teachers were concerned about a good balance between genres and selecting from a wide range of genres: “I think it’s important to have something like this document [the National Curriculum] which shows that [genre]. Hopefully we still have a good balance between fiction, non-fiction and poetry” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 118-120); “I feel personally it [the National Curriculum] focuses too much on non-fiction particularly in the lower years” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 34-35). This could reflect the suggestion stated in the English Programmes of Study: Key Stages 1 and 2 with regard to a wide range between genres. Also, the class teachers mentioned in their interviews that visual tools were essential resources along with the books: “of course we use books and often we watch video clips on the white board” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 325-326); “[I use] a range of things, sometimes video clips, sometimes websites possibly yeah books definitely of course” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 104-105).

Whilst the class teachers regarded books as primary resources, the class teachers said that they would not use ‘textbooks’ for the English lessons: “we don’t have like a series of textbooks, generally you know in the UK, it’s just not a big part especially in literacy” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 349-350); “it may cut out the time but I think teachers would argue that the quality of the teaching is not the same” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 356-358). This question about ‘textbooks’ emerged out of the context that the researcher was educated in. In most of the primary schools in Japan, regardless of state or private, textbooks used in English lessons were reviewed by the Japanese government in advance. In the LBS, the teachers were selecting the elements from England’s national curriculum published by the British government; however, the class teachers had negative opinions towards ‘textbooks’ especially if the Government published them: “I’ve got a feeling it wouldn’t be that popular, no ... teachers see it as part of their job to make it their own lessons, make it personal ... I’d like to try and see what it was like but that’s

what I think and would feel like” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 355-360).

In the observed lessons, a culturally extended lesson was carried out in Year 6. In Class Teacher 5’s class, the children and Class Teacher 5 were sitting on the carpet in a circle and they were reading poems written in English language and in Irish language. The children seemed to be reading a poem in Irish for the first time, and Class Teacher 5 was teaching the children how to pronounce the poem in Irish. Every child had two handouts. One was A3 sized paper which had three poems written in English; *Things I like* by Colette Nic Aodha; *The Painting* by Oscar Wilde; and *News* by Colette Nic Aodha. The other handout was A4 sized paper, which had a poem *Rudai a Thaitnionn Liom* by Colette Nic Aodha in Irish. First, they were reading the poems in English on A3 sized handout, and then Class Teacher 5 read the poems out loud in the Irish language (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 13, Year 6).

The lesson was extended culturally by learning poems written in the Irish language. Class Teacher 5 originally came from Northern Ireland and seemed to have a strong identity about being Irish and was passionate about teaching Irish culture to the children. Thus, a contradicted result was identified between the teachers’ answers in their interviews and the analyses for the lesson plans and the observed lessons. While the teachers emphasised the adaptation of England’s national curriculum according to the Japanese context, little resources in relation to the Japanese context were used in the English lessons, and the culturally extended lesson observed was not related to the Japanese context.

As a result of the observed lessons, a process of acquiring new knowledge was identified. First of all, the lesson topic that the children were going to be learning was introduced to the whole class by reading a text or watching a video clip. In a Year 5 class, Class Teacher 3 introduced an excerpt from a story of Greek myths entitled *Heracles*. She displayed the text on the interactive white board so that all children in her class could read it (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 3, Year 5). Also, in a Year 6 class, Class Teacher 4 played a video clip about how to punctuate direct speech on the interactive whiteboard to

introduce the idea of 'punctuation' to the whole class (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 9, Year 6). As a whole class, the children read a text or watched a video clip to understand the general idea of what they were going to be learning. At this initial stage, the teachers were also clarifying some key words that would be used throughout the units. In Year 5, in the very first lesson for the brand new topic of Greek myths, Class Teacher 3 explained the word 'genre' to the whole class using handouts, which she put on each group of desks before the lesson had started (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 3, Year 5). The main purpose for the children at this stage was to take in new information as a whole class; therefore, the type of activity at this stage can be described as 'intake as a whole class'.

In the next stage, the children were asked to read the text or to watch the video clip once again individually. In Class Teacher 1's class in Year 5, the children were asked to read the extract of a story of Greek myths, *Heracles* individually and also silently (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 2, Year 5). Also, in Class Teacher 4's class in Year 6, the children were asked to watch the video clip about how to punctuate direct speech, once again individually with their individual iPads and earphones (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 9, Year 6). At this stage, the unit of activities moved from as a whole class to individual; however, the children were still taking in the new information. Therefore, the type of activity at this stage can be described as 'intake individually'. The teachers were also frequently clarifying some vocabulary at this stage, for example, in Class Teacher 2's class in Year 5, Class Teacher 2 often stopped the children's individual reading activity and asked the children the meaning of the words such as 'clever' and 'persuasive' in the text (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 6, Year 5).

After reading texts or watching video clips as a whole class and individually, the nature of the activities changed from taking in to producing. In this stage, the children were asked to tell a summary of what they just had read or watched in pairs or in groups with three children. In Year 5, after the individual reading of the extract from *Heracles*, Class Teacher 2 made pairs and small groups and asked the children to tell a summary of the story to their partners

(Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 4, Year 5). At this stage, the main purpose was to produce a summary based on what they had read or watched in order to tell someone; therefore, the type of activities in this stage can be described as 'producing for interaction'.

Then, in the next stage, the children were asked to identify the features or characteristics of the topic and to use them to complete their own tasks. The nature of activities moved to application. In Year 5, Class Teacher 3 asked the children to discuss in pairs these two questions; "What is a myth?" and "What features do they include?" Also, the children were asked to find examples of the settings, the main events, the characters, and the ending part in the extract of *Heracles* (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 3, Year 5). In Class Teacher 1's class in Year 5, with the same topic of Greek myths, after identifying the characters in the extract of *Heracles*, the children were asked to write the names of the characters they had found into the table on their handouts (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 5, Year 5). In this stage of application, the children were asked to write the features of Greek myths that they had just identified to complete the tables on their handouts, in other words, the children started to use the new knowledge that they had just learned to solve the problems. In this stage of application, the activities for utilising new knowledge were carried out immediately after learning the new knowledge.

Towards the end of the lessons, the children were asked to recall what they had learned about the features of the topics during the lesson as a whole class. In Year 5, Class Teacher 3 asked the children which genre they had learned in the lesson today, and the children answered 'horror' all together with lively voices (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 1, Year 5). Also, in Year 6, towards the end of the lesson, Class Teacher 4 summarised the lesson briefly and asked the whole class these questions: "What have we done?" and "What is something that we need to remember from today?" Some of the children answered how to punctuate the direct speech correctly, including the use of apostrophes and commas (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 9, Year 6). Table 4.5 summarises the process of acquiring new knowledge in English lessons.

Table 4.5: The process of acquiring new knowledge in English lessons

Nature of Activities	Levels of Unit	Examples of Activities
Intake	Whole class	Reading a text displayed on the interactive whiteboard. Reading a text on handout. Watching a video clip played on the interactive whiteboard.
Intake	Individual	Reading the text on handout individually. Watching the video clip with iPad individually.
Produce	Pairs	Summarising the text that the children had read. Telling the summary to their partners.
Application	Individual	Identifying the features of the topic in the text. Applying the identified features to their tasks.
Recall	Whole class	Recalling the new knowledge that they learned.

In the process of accruing new knowledge, there were five phases, and the activities were taking place: as whole class; in pairs; and individually. At the beginning and the end of the process, the unit was whole class, which was the largest. When the children produced a summary based on the new knowledge, they were interacted in pairs, and the activities were conducted orally. In the phase of application of the new knowledge, the activities were carried out individually in written form.

Thus, the data revealed that new knowledge to be taught in English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 was formed by selecting lesson topics from the PFL in the Primary National Strategy in England's national curriculum, which contributed to learning specialised knowledge. Selecting lesson topics from the documents of England's national curriculum assured that the contents of the curriculum for English were similar to those of the schools' in the UK. This was because the school had the children who were going to transfer to the schools in the UK, so the schools needed to have a balance between being flexible and teaching similar contents as the schools in the UK. However, the data revealed that the lesson topics were selected according to the children's interests for their motivation, which was everyday knowledge that the children brought into the school. This influence by the children on the selection of knowledge for English lessons cannot be ignored. Although the teachers 'select' the elements from England's national curriculum, the children may 'decide' knowledge to be taught in English lessons.

Regarding the culturally extended curriculum in the Japanese context that the teachers emphasised in the interviews, the data revealed that few resources based on the Japanese context were used in the English lessons; there was only one lesson that used the photos that the children took during their school trip to Mt. Takao as stimulus for creating poems. On the contrary, most of the resources used in the English lessons were selected from the British context, despite the fact that these resources were carefully selected to have a good balance between different genres. In the only one culturally extended lesson observed in the course of the data collection, the context was Irish culture, which was the class teacher's hometown. Therefore, as the examples the

teachers raised in the interviews, the culturally extended curriculum in the Japanese contexts was conducted in other subjects such as history, and little evidence of the Japanese context was identified in English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the school.

In summary, the children were expected to develop their ability to apply new knowledge as well as acquiring new knowledge. The children were learning specialised knowledge such as English grammar, punctuation and vocabulary that were related to the lesson topics, however, the children were asked to utilise the specialised knowledge in their own tasks or writings. Regarding the selection of the specialised knowledge such as English grammar or lesson topics, the comparison between the grammatical concepts in the lesson plans in the school and in the statutory requirements showed that the teachers were not following the statutory requirements in detail, and there were negative views towards teaching of English grammar in English lessons. This suggested that the teaching of grammar did not match the aims of English lessons that the teachers were seeking, where the teachers wished to develop the children's everyday knowledge beyond literacy. Also, the everyday knowledge that the children brought into school such as personal interests had an influence on the selection of the lesson topics by the teachers. Although the children were acquiring the specialised knowledge in the English lessons, the teachers' views towards the aims for the English lessons and the everyday knowledge that the children brought into the school affected the specialised knowledge that was taught in the English lessons. In the next section, the details of the selection of elements from England's national curriculum will be discussed.

4.4 Fidelity to England's National Curriculum

The head teacher said that the school was quite strictly following England's national curriculum. She also said that the school could be flexible in terms of practising the national curriculum, because it did not have to implement the national curriculum as state schools in the UK do. The class teachers emphasised that they were in a position of being able to select the elements from the national curriculum and add their ideas because their school was independent, being outside the UK. In this section, the details of the selection of elements from England's national curriculum and the teacher's perspectives towards its application to English lessons in the school are presented under the theme of Fidelity to England's national curriculum, which emerged through the process of data reduction.

As a result of analysis of the English lesson planning sheets, patterns of the selection of learning objectives from England's national curriculum for the English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 were identified. Learning objectives for each unit were stated according to three categories: text level; sentence level; and word level. The learning objectives were taken from the Core Learning in Literacy by Strand in the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy. Table 4.6 shows the learning objectives stated in a lesson plan for a unit of Greek myths in Year 5.

Table 4.6: The learning objectives stated in a Year 5 lesson plan for a unit of Greek myths

Text level	Sentence level	Word level
<p>Objective 2 (Listening and responding)</p> <p>“Analyse and evaluate how speakers present points effectively through use of language and gesture”</p> <p>Objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts)</p> <p>“Understand underlying themes, causes and points of view” “Compare different types of narrative and information texts and identify how they are structured” “Explore how writers use language for comic and dramatic effects”</p> <p>Objective 8 (Engaging and responding to texts)</p> <p>“Compare how writers from different times and places present experiences and use language”</p> <p>Objective 9 (Engaging and responding to texts)</p> <p>“Reflect independently and critically on their own writing and edit and improve it”</p>	<p>Objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation)</p> <p>“Adapt sentence construction to different text types, purposes and readers” “Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences (Year 6 objective)”</p>	<p>“Taught through weekly spellings and 1 word level session, outside of the literacy hour”</p>

<p>“Use different narrative techniques to engage and entertain the reader” “Select words and language drawing on their knowledge of literary features and formal and informal writing”</p> <p>Objective 10 (Text structure and organisation)</p> <p>“Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis”</p>		
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In Table 4.6, six headings of 'key areas' were selected from the Core Learning in Literacy by Strand in the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy: learning objective 2 (Listening and responding); learning objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts); learning objective 8 (Engaging and responding to texts); learning objective 9 (Engaging and responding to texts); learning objective 10 (Text structure and organisation); and learning objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation). Table 4.7 compares the selected learning objectives and the original learning objectives in the Core Learning in Literacy by Strand in the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy.

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Table 4.7: A comparison between learning objectives in the lesson plan and in the Primary Framework for Literacy

Selected Learning Objectives for the Lesson Plans	Original Learning Objectives in the Primary Framework for Literacy
<p>Learning objective 2: Listening and responding</p> <p>“Analyse and evaluate how speakers present points effectively through use of language and gesture.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 2: Listening and responding</p> <p>“Analyse the use of persuasive language.”</p> <p>“Identify different question types and evaluate their impact on the audience.”</p> <p>“Identify some aspects of talk that vary between formal and informal occasions.”</p>
<p>Learning objective 7: Understanding and interpreting texts</p> <p>“Compare different types of narrative and information texts and identify how they are structured.”</p> <p>“Explore how writers use language for comic and dramatic effects.”</p> <p>“Compare how a common theme is presented in prose.”</p> <p>“Understand underlying themes, causes and points of view.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 7: Understanding and interpreting texts</p> <p>“Compare different types of narrative and information texts and identify how they are structured.”</p> <p>“Explore how writers use language for comic and dramatic effects.”</p> <p>“Make notes on and use evidence from across a text to explain events or ideas.”</p> <p>“Infer writers' perspectives from what is written and from what is implied.”</p> <p>“Distinguish between everyday use of words and their subject-specific use.”</p>

<p>Learning objective 8: Engaging with and responding to texts</p> <p>“Reflect on reading habits and preferences and plan personal reading goals.”</p> <p>“Compare how writers from different times and places present experiences and use language.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 8: Engaging with and responding to texts</p> <p>“Reflect on reading habits and preferences and plan personal reading goals.”</p> <p>“Compare the usefulness of techniques such as visualisation, prediction and empathy in exploring the meaning of texts.”</p> <p>“Compare how a common theme is presented in poetry, prose and other media.”</p>
<p>Learning objective 9: Creating and shaping texts</p> <p>“Reflect independently and critically on their own writing and edit and improve it.”</p> <p>“Experiment with different narrative form and styles to write their own stories.”</p> <p>“Vary the pace and develop the viewpoint through the portrayal of action and selection of detail.”</p> <p>“Use different narrative techniques to engage and entertain the reader.”</p> <p>“Select words and language drawing on their knowledge of literary features and formal and informal writing.”</p> <p>“To adapt writing for different readers and purposes by changing vocabulary, tone and sentence structures to suit.”</p> <p>“To discuss and edit writing for clarity and correctness.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 9: Creating and shaping texts</p> <p>“Reflect independently and critically on their own writing and edit and improve it.”</p> <p>“Experiment with different narrative forms and styles to write their own stories.”</p> <p>“Vary the pace and develop the viewpoint through the use of direct and reported speech, portrayal of action and selection of detail.”</p> <p>“Adapt non-narrative forms and styles to write fiction or factual texts, including poems.”</p> <p>“Create multi-layered texts, including use of hyperlinks and linked web pages.”</p>

<p>Learning objective 10: Text structure and organisation</p> <p>“Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 10: Text structure and organisation</p> <p>“Experiment with the order of sections and paragraphs to achieve different effects.”</p> <p>“Change the order of material within a paragraph, moving the topic sentence.”</p>
<p>Learning objective 11: Sentence structure and punctuation</p> <p>“Adapt sentence construction to different text types, purposes and readers.”</p> <p>“Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences.”</p> <p>“Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways.”</p> <p>“To be able to punctuate sentences accurately, including using speech marks.”</p> <p>“Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 11: Sentence structure and punctuation</p> <p>“Adapt sentence construction to different text-types, purposes and readers.”</p> <p>“Punctuate sentences accurately, including using speech marks and apostrophes.”</p>

The analyses for Table 4.7 identified that there were four tendencies when the teachers selected the learning objectives from the PFL: a) not all the learning objectives in the PFL were selected; b) some of the learning objectives were selected without changes; c) some of the learning objectives were omitted; and d) some new learning objectives were created and added by the teachers.

For the Year 5 lesson plans, the teachers selected six key areas out of twelve from the PFL. In the selected learning objective 7 (understanding and interpreting texts), these two learning objectives were adopted from the PFL without any amendments: “compare different types of narrative and information texts and identify how they are structured”; and “explore how writers use language for comic and dramatic effects”, whereas the teachers omitted these three learning objectives: “make notes on and use evidence from across a text to explain events or ideas”; “infer writers' perspectives from what is written and from what is implied”; and “distinguish between everyday use of words and their subject-specific use”. Instead, the teachers added these new learning objectives to the lesson plan: “compare how a common theme is presented in prose” and “understand underlying themes, causes and points of view” (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 1, Year 5).

Table 4.8 shows the learning objectives stated in a lesson plan for a unit of balanced arguments in Year 6 (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 5, Year 6). Like the learning objectives in the Year 5 lesson plan, the learning objectives were selected from the Core Learning in Literacy by Strand in the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy.

Table 4.8: The learning objectives stated in a Year 6 lesson plan for a unit of balanced arguments

Text level	Sentence level	Word level
<p>Objective 6 (Word structure and spelling) “Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen”</p> <p>Objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts) “Recognise rhetorical devices used to argue, persuade, mislead and sway the reader”</p> <p>Objective 8 (Engaging and responding to texts) “Compare how writers from different times and places present experiences and use language”</p> <p>Objective 9 (Creating and shaping texts) “In non-narrative, establish, balance and maintain viewpoints”</p> <p>Objective 10 (Text structure and organisation) “Use varied structures to shape and organise text coherently” “Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis”</p>	<p>Objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation) “Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways” “Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences”</p>	<p>Objective 6 (Word structure and spelling) “Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen”</p>

In Table 4.8, six headings of key areas were selected for the lesson plan: learning objective 6 (Word structure and spelling); learning objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts); learning objective 8 (Engaging and responding to texts); learning objective 9 (Creating and shaping texts); learning objective 10 (Text structure and organisation); and learning objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation). Table 4.9 compares the selected learning objectives and the original learning objectives in the PFL in Year 6.

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Table 4.9: A comparison between learning objectives in the lesson plan and in the Primary Framework for Literacy in Year 6

Selected Learning Objectives for the Lesson Plan	Original Learning Objectives in the Primary Framework for Literacy
<p>Learning objective 6: Word structure and spelling “Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 6: Word structure and spelling “Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen.”</p>
<p>Learning objective 7: Understanding and interpreting texts “Recognise rhetorical devices used to argue, persuade, mislead and sway the reader.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 7: Understanding and interpreting texts “Recognise rhetorical devices used to argue, persuade, mislead and sway the reader.” “Appraise a text quickly, deciding on its value, quality or usefulness.” “Understand underlying themes, causes and points of view.” “Understand how writers use different structures to create coherence and impact.” “Explore how word meanings change when used in different contexts.”</p>
<p>Learning objective 8: Engaging with and responding to texts “Compare how writers from different times and places present experiences and use language.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 8: Engaging with and responding to texts “Compare how writers from different times and places present experiences and use language.” “Read extensively and discuss personal reading with others, including in reading groups.” “Sustain engagement with longer texts, using different techniques to make the text come alive.”</p>

<p>Learning objective 9: Creating and shaping texts</p> <p>“In non-narrative, establish, balance and maintain viewpoints.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 9: Creating and shaping texts</p> <p>“In non-narrative, establish, balance and maintain viewpoints.”</p> <p>“Set their own challenges to extend achievement and experience in writing.”</p> <p>“Use different narrative techniques to engage and entertain the reader.”</p> <p>“Select words and language drawing on their knowledge of literary features and formal and informal writing.”</p> <p>“Integrate words, images and sounds imaginatively for different purposes.”</p>
<p>Learning objective 10: Text structure and organisation</p> <p>“Use varied structures to shape and organise text coherently.”</p> <p>“Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 10: Text structure and organisation</p> <p>“Use varied structures to shape and organise text coherently.”</p> <p>“Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis.”</p> <p>“Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways.”</p>
<p>Learning objective 11: Sentence structure and punctuation</p> <p>“Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways.”</p> <p>“Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences.”</p>	<p>Learning objective 11: Sentence structure and punctuation</p> <p>“Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways.”</p> <p>“Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences.”</p>

The analysis for Table 4.9 revealed that the tendency of selecting learning objectives was similar to the ways in Year 5, except that there were no learning objectives added by the teachers. Like Year 5, not all the learning objectives were selected, and the learning objectives were either adopted without amendments or omitted. However, no new learning objectives were added by the teachers.

Thus, both Year 5 and Year 6 groups selected the learning objectives for English lessons from the Core Learning in Literacy by Strand in the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy, and some of the learning objectives stated in the lesson plans were adopted without changes. The analysis for the selection of the learning objectives revealed that decisions about whether new learning objectives were added were made within each year group rather than a whole school. In fact, the teachers in the school had a strong sense of working as a 'team' in each year group: "we tend to work closely in our year groups, we plan weekly, fortnightly to discuss every lesson in our team so that we are all happy about the lessons" (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 82-84); "it depends on the year groups you're in, in my year group, we meet and plan based on the units that are in the National Curriculum for Year 6 ... and then as a year group, we plan a unit together that meets the objectives" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 17-20).

The analysis of the selection of the key areas from the Core Learning in Literacy by Strand in the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy revealed that some of the key areas were selected repeatedly whereas some key areas were not selected at all. Table 4.10 shows which key areas were selected for lesson plans according to lesson topics.

Table 4.10: The key areas selected for each lesson topic

School Years	Lesson Topics	Key Areas in the Primary Framework for Literacy											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Year 5	Significant authors							✓		✓		✓	
	Horror stories							✓	✓	✓		✓	
	Greek myths		✓					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Year 6	Autobiography & Biography		✓				✓			✓		✓	
	Balanced arguments						✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
	Crime mystery						✓	✓		✓		✓	
	Second World War		✓				✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	
	Letters		✓				✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	
	Journalistic writing							✓		✓	✓	✓	
	Poetry		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		

Key areas

- 1) Speaking
- 2) Listening and responding
- 3) Group discussion and interaction
- 4) Drama
- 5) Word recognition
- 6) Word structure and spelling
- 7) Understanding and interpreting texts
- 8) Engaging with and responding to texts
- 9) Creating and shaping texts
- 10) Text structure and organisation
- 11) Sentence structure and punctuation
- 12) Presentation

The analysis for Table 4.10 revealed that out of twelve key areas in the PFL: 1 speaking; 2 listening and responding; 3 group discussion and interaction; 4 drama; 5 word recognition; 6 word structure and spelling; 7 understanding and interpreting texts; 8 engaging with and responding to texts; 9 creating and shaping texts; 10 text structure and organisation; 11 sentence structure and punctuation; 12 presentation, the learning objective 9 'creating and shaping texts' was selected for every unit in both Year 5 and in Year 6.

The learning objective 7 'understanding and interpreting the texts' and the learning objective 11 'sentence structure and punctuation' were also selected highly in both Year 5 and Year 6, whereas the learning objective 1 'speaking', the learning objective 4 'drama', the learning objective 5 'word recognition' and the learning objective 12 'presentation' were not selected at all for the curriculum for English in Year 5 and Year 6. This suggested that the learning objectives related to reading and writing in the PFL tended to be selected more frequently than learning objectives based on speaking and listening activities. This tendency of selecting the learning objectives may indicate that oracy has less place than literacy in the curriculum for English in Year 5 and Year 6.

The learning objectives selected from the PFL were not specific enough for the day-to-day English lessons in the school; therefore, the selected learning objectives needed to be 'translated': "these [learning objectives from the Primary Framework for Literacy] are quite broad objectives for a unit so as a team we then break them down into child friendly objectives for each lesson" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 77-79). As a result, the weekly learning objectives were produced by the teachers based on the selected learning objectives from the PFL. Table 4.11 shows the weekly learning objectives for the unit of Greek myths in Year 5 (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 1, Year 5).

Table 4.11: The weekly learning objectives In a Year 5 lesson plan for the unit of Greek myths

Lesson Week	Weekly Learning Objectives	Relevant Key Areas
1	“To begin to understand the features of a myth”	7
2	“To understand the features of Greek myths”	7
3	“To create a character profile which engages the reader”	8
4	“To be able to edit and improve my writing”	10
5	“To be able to identify and sequence the key events in a myth”	7
6	“To be able to plan a myth which incorporates the relevant features”	10
7	“To be able to plan a myth which incorporates the relevant features”	10
8	“To write an introduction which captures the interest of the reader”	9
9	“To be able to write the build up for a story”	9
10	“To be able to write the main event for a story”	9
11	“To be able to write the resolution for a story”	9
12	“To be able to write the ending for a story”	9
13	“To be able to edit and improve my writing”	10

The analyses for Table 4.11 revealed that the most relevant key areas implied in the weekly learning objectives were: 7 'Understanding and interpreting texts'; 8 'Engaging with and responding to texts'; 9 'Creating and shaping texts'; and 10 'Text structure and organisation'. These key areas intended to develop reading and writing, and in the process of achieving these weekly learning objectives, key areas such as 5 'Word recognition'; 6 'Word structure and spelling'; 11 'Sentence structure and punctuation' would need to be covered. However, key areas related to speaking and listening such as 1 'Speaking'; 2 'Listening and responding'; 3 'Group discussion and interaction' 4 'Drama' or 12 'Presentation' were not implied in the weekly learning objectives created by the teachers.

Although the key areas related to speaking and listening were not selected from the PFL or implied in the weekly learning objectives produced by the teachers, a number of activities related to speaking and listening, especially the activities based on discussions, were indicated as 'suggested activity' in lesson plans. For example, for the unit of Greek myths in Year 5, the activities based on discussions were stated as "to discuss anything they already know about Greek myths; to show them the short video clip of *Theseus and the Minotaur* and then spend some time discussing the story and its features" (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 1, Year 5). In Year 6, for the unit of balanced arguments, the activities based on discussions were also seen in the 'organisation' section as, "then discuss and take ideas from the class – reveal its use and share the positive and negatives of a device like this" (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 5, Year 6). Therefore, even though the key areas related to speaking and listening were not stated as learning objectives in lesson plans; the activities based on speaking and listening were stated as 'suggested activity' in lesson plans.

When the present study was being conducted, English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the school were planned based on England's National Curriculum, which was introduced to most of the state schools in England in 1988. The comments from the teachers regarding the National Curriculum 1988 were

positive in general: “[I] agree with the basics of it. It [the National Curriculum 1988] is straightforward” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 154-155); “[the National Curriculum 1988] is good as it provides a framework” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, line 54); “[I] agree with the main principles [of the National Curriculum 1988]” (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, line 47); “collage is good” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 54); “[learning] objectives are good” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 34). Thus, the teachers in the school did not have objections regarding the use of the National Curriculum 1988.

Some of the teachers raised several issues in relation to the organisation and the contents of the National Curriculum 1988: “statements are very general” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 52); “[the National Curriculum 1988] focuses too much on non-fiction” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 34-35). Class Teacher 4 pointed out that the statements in the National Curriculum 1988 were very general and Class Teacher 5 mentioned the balance between fiction and non-fiction; however, the class teachers appeared to solve the issues by producing the weekly learning objectives based on the learning objectives selected from the PFL or by selecting resources from a wide range of genres for lesson plans.

The head teacher noted in her interview both that the national curriculum was followed quite strictly but also that there was the flexibility in practising England’s national curriculum. The class teachers’ views towards its application in the lessons were similar to the head teacher’s response on the flexibility: “we need to use it [the National Curriculum] as a base because we are a British school” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, line 61); “the National Curriculum is used as a basis for planning and teaching lessons” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 45-46); “the National Curriculum is always our starting point to ensure we are progressive with the units we are teaching” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 44-45); “we use the National Curriculum levels to inform our planning” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 54-55). Four class teachers said that they were using England’s national curriculum as a base.

The class teachers also said that they could be selective towards the elements of England's national curriculum and that the flexibility they had was a positive factor for planning their lessons: "we do have a bit more freedom to adapt or not use parts as we wish" (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 56-57); "we are in a position to be freer with our curriculum" (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 55-56); "it's quite nice because you can pick and choose within reasons" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, line 118); "we tend to make it our own curriculum by cherry-picking the best bits" (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 56-57); "although many of the units will have the basis from the National Curriculum, we can add our own twists" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 67-68).

The class teachers raised the reason for being able to be selective about the elements in England's national curriculum. One was the type of school the LBS was, a private and independent British international school, and the other reason was the geographical environment of the school, which was outside the UK: "we have the advantage of being able to adapt a little bit to our setting and make things applicable to our place as an international school in Asia and in Japan" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 65-66); "with being a British school, the National Curriculum is used as a basis for planning and teaching lessons" (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 45-46).

One of the common responses from the class teachers in their interviews was that they were in a position to adapt the elements of England's national curriculum or added their own twists to the elements according to their context, which was being a British international school in Japan. However, the analysis of the learning objectives created and added by the class teachers in lesson plans revealed that these were not adapted to their context. Table 4.12 shows the learning objectives created and added by the class teachers to the Year 5 lesson plan for the topic of Greek myths (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 1, Year 5).

Table 4.12: The learning objectives added by the teachers to a Year 5 lesson plan

**Learning Objectives
Added by the
Teachers**

- “Understand underlying themes, causes and points of view”
 - “Compare how writers from different times and places present experiences and use language”
 - “Use different narrative techniques to engage and entertain the reader”
 - “Select words and language drawing on their knowledge of literary features and formal and informal writing”
 - “To adapt writing for different readers and purposes by changing vocabulary, tone and sentence structures to suit”
 - “To discuss and edit writing for clarity and correctness”
 - “Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis”
 - “Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences”
 - “Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways”
 - “To be able to punctuate sentences accurately, including using speech marks”
 - “Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences”
-

The analysis for Table 4.12 revealed that there were no elements related to Asian or Japanese context in the learning objectives that were created and added by the teachers, despite the class teachers' comments in relation to adaptation of the elements of England's national curriculum according to their context. In fact, when the teachers mentioned the extended curriculum in a Japanese context, they talked about the examples from other subjects, not English: "we have been trying with other elements of like Japanese culture and things like that, we've been teaching in other subjects like history, which will motivate children and get them interested" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 16-19).

When selecting elements from England's national curriculum, the decisions were largely left to the class teachers' discretion, and the selection of the elements were carried out at the meetings for producing lessons plans: "I think she [the head teacher] trusts the experience of the staff to be able to decide, you know we have a lot of experienced teachers particularly and they can decide what units would be best" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 245-247); "we have 'planning meetings' to go through what we are about to teach in the next few weeks and then those meetings we often have had time to look at the previous planning ..." (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 76-78).

In the actual process of selecting the elements from England's national curriculum, the class teachers referred to England's national curriculum, particularly to the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy: "we also use the National Literacy Framework. This is where our objectives are selected from" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 45-46). Further, the data revealed that the National Literacy Strategy that had been introduced to most of the state schools in the UK in 1998 was still regarded as a highly important document for planning English lessons:

We'd refer partly to the National Curriculum but I mean mostly to the Literacy Framework, which isn't, now an old document, it still exists. Well, it's kind of passed it's time but I think a lot of teachers still do refer

to that because that gives you the ideas for units of, you know topics really ... you can still find it online (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 93-96).

The class teachers were also using the documents produced by the then QCA, for selecting lesson topics:

The QCA documents, they are suggestions traditionally, when the QCA existed, it doesn't exist anymore but they did suggest programmes of studies so that you could base like your skills teaching around a kind of three to four week unit of work, and some of those are perfectly fine we still teach some those like, you know journalistic style writing something like that ... (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 235-239).

This use of documents suggested that the class teachers in the school continued to use the documents in England's national curriculum once they found them useful for planning English lessons, even if the documents were published decades ago, or the organisation that published the documents no longer existed, because they believed that the 'essence' in these documents have not changed: "a lot of this kind of thing changes quite regularly anyway ... a lot of it is just very similar anyway, but it's just been worded differently, presented differently" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 185-186).

Along with the flexibility towards the selection of elements from England's national curriculum, another advantage with regard to teaching English in a British international school in Japan was raised by the teachers, which was the implementation of national tests:

This school, the primary school, we don't tend to put a huge amount of emphasis on the SAT exams. I think in some schools in the UK, they [SATs] can take-over in Year 6, you can dominate the whole curriculum, that's a shame because a lot of the learning goes towards the specific test rather than you know just overall aims of literacy so, you know I'm quite happy in

this school, we don't tend to too much exams focus (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 222-227).

Although it was not mandatory for the LBS to implement the national tests, they still could not be too far away from the schools in the UK because of the children who were going to transfer to the schools in the UK: “we are a British school so we need to be able to accept and send children to the schools in the UK who run the British National Curriculum and that we need to be able to provide smooth transition so it's not completely different” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 61-64). Therefore, even though it was not necessary for the school to follow the statutory requirements stated in England's national curriculum, the school's responsibility, which was to transfer these children to the schools in the UK smoothly, had a significant influence on the English lesson planning.

Also, because of the context of the school, the class teachers did not consider the introduction of the new national curriculum in 2014 as a significant event to the school:

If you were in the UK, this would be something that would have affected the school a lot more I think. We've I think we had one training session where we got together with the staff and had a look at some of the new documents. But it's really just sort of we are aware and doesn't impact us that we have to change anything, I think. (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 174-178).

In fact, the class teachers did not appear to be well prepared for the changes as of July 2014: “only from, you know, you do your own personal reading online and things like that” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, line 173); “only just starting to look at the new proposals for the 2014 curriculum, so not that knowledgeable yet!!” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 61-62), “at this stage, I couldn't comment as I haven't looked into the new curriculum enough” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 61-62); “I don't know too much about it yet to be

perfectly honest” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 50). The attitude of the class teachers in the school towards the major transition for England’s national curriculum was still ‘somebody else’s problem’ at this point.

Contrary to Class Teacher 2’s response that she was not that knowledgeable yet, all of the teachers knew about the major changes to the National Curriculum 2014, pointing out: “focus will be a lot more about Britain” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, line 64); “an emphasis on real life contexts” (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, line 54); “brand new focus on grammar, punctuation and spelling” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 51-52). In fact, the head teacher’s comments towards the new National Curriculum 2014 appeared to summarise the overall responses of the teachers: “we can wait and see which elements will be successful in England ... but we cannot wait too long because we need to be able to provide smooth transition for the pupils who are going to move to the schools in the UK” (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 129-132). Thus, the children who were going to transfer to the schools in the UK or to other British international schools had significant influence on the school’s curriculum when a national curriculum was enacted in a different context.

The analysis of the observed lessons revealed that the teachers were conducting elements of the key areas that were not selected for lessons plans. In a Year 5 English lesson for the topic of Greek myths, Class Teacher 3 asked the children some questions about the feature of a myth, then the children discussed in pairs and wrote down the possible answers to these questions on the individual whiteboards, (Observation, Lesson observation note, No. 3, Year 5). In Year 6, Class Teacher 5 displayed an extract from the book, *The Westing Game* by Ellen Raskin on the interactive whiteboard and explained the activity, which was to listen to the detective story together as a whole class, and then to discuss and identify the suspect in a detective story (Observation, Lesson observation note, No. 8, Year 6). This suggested that although the key areas 1 ‘Speaking’ and 3 ‘Group discussion and interaction’ in the PFL were not selected as learning objectives for lesson plans, the activities based on these key areas were planned by the teachers as ‘suggested activities’ for the

lesson plans, and the suggested activities were carried out in the actual English lessons.

In fact, the teachers emphasised that they were trying to adopt activities based on speaking and listening as much as they could in English lessons: “we always try to build in some speaking and listening activities before the children write” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 132); “[we often do] role play, hot seating, debate, lots of pair discussion work, peer feedback, discussion of text as a whole class...” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 131-132); “they might do an activity of you know a series of quiz questions or partner discussion lot of time to discuss between the children” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 513-515). Therefore, although there was little place for the key areas based on oracy in lesson plans, the teachers conducted the key areas based on oracy in actual lessons.

With regard to the activities for oracy, the school had a particular reason to have many speaking and listening activities in English lessons, which was that the school started to intake more Japanese national children and children with EAL: “we are trying to incorporate more speaking and listening with the growing numbers of EAL children” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 86-87); “some of my Japanese children aren’t very good at communicating in longer sentences, often one word answers so I try to have a speaking and listening session wherever possible” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 90-92); “the school is accepting more Japanese nationals and that means that language has to be bigger focus for us, so that would always start with speaking and listening aspects” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 255-257).

This increased intake of Japanese national children or EAL children was partly because of the worldwide change in economic situation and the events related to the Fukushima earthquake in 2012: “the type of children that the school is accepting is changing a little bit since a lot of UK or American or Australian nationals left Tokyo after the financial difficulties ... when they [the children] go home all the conversation would be Japanese and reading Japanese books the

challenge for us is to give them rich experience of kind of hearing and speaking English firstly before they can develop other skills” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 253-262). Thus, the changes in demographic backgrounds of the children in the school due to the economic and social events in Japan had influence on planning English lessons, especially to enhance speaking and listening activities in English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the school.

The key area 5 ‘Word recognition’ was also not selected at all as learning objectives in lesson plans; however, the teachers were practising this key area associated with learning vocabulary by giving feedback on children’s writings in their English exercise books. During a unit of Greek myths in Year 5, the learning objective for this lesson was “to research and collect information about the Greek gods”, and one pupil wrote about Apollo in his English exercise book; however, he spelled ‘apollo’ instead of ‘Apollo’. Also, the pupil wrote a sentence as, ‘poseidones symbols is trident, dolpins and Horses’. The class teacher made correction to his writing in the exercise book, pointing out the use of small letters and capital letters, and also pointed out the use of singular and plural, ‘is’ and ‘are’. Underneath the pupils’ piece of writing, the teacher made overall comments and highlighted to make sure the use of small letters and capital letters as: “really good research, [the pupil’s name]. I think this information will be useful. Check for capital letters” (Documents, English exercise book, No. 2 Year 5).

The key areas 4 ‘Drama’ and 12 ‘Presentation’ were also not selected as learning objectives in lesson plans; however, the activities related to these key areas were observed in the actual lessons. During the unit of balanced arguments in Year 6, one of the classes was practising a script of a play that was created by the class teacher for their presentation at a coming assembly. The script was about a debate show with the theme, “Are iPads good for learning?” The children were holding their individual iPads that displayed the script while rehearsing their short play (Observation, Lesson observation notes, No. 12). Therefore, the key areas 4 ‘Drama’ and 12 ‘Presentation’, which were not selected as learning objectives, were actually carried out in the actual

English lessons. Thus, even though not all of the key areas were selected from the PFL as learning objectives, the teachers covered all of the key areas in the actual English lessons.

However, the activities based on the key areas 4 'Drama' and 12 'Presentation' were observed only once during the data collection for the present research; therefore, the number of the activities in relation to these key areas were not as high as the activities based on writing and reading. The teachers said that they wished to adopt more drama activities for English lessons when being asked what kind of activities they would like to do more in their lessons: "further drama based activities. This engaged the children and helps them to become more expressive when speaking, when reading and in writing" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 140-141); "probably drama, speaking and listening activities ... I think we focus, sometimes focus too much on writing and I think if you can't speak say in a certain way, it's impossible to write in that way ... so I think there should be more a balance on speaking and listening and drama" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 75-80). Table 4.13 compares the key areas selected as learning objectives for lesson plans and the key areas observed in the actual English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6.

Table 4.13: A comparison of key areas selected for lesson plans and observed in actual lessons in Year 5 and Year 6

	Key Areas in the Primary Framework for Literacy											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Selected for lesson plans		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Observed in the actual lessons	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Key areas

- 1) Speaking
- 2) Listening and responding
- 3) Group discussion and interaction
- 4) Drama
- 5) Word recognition
- 6) Word structure and spelling
- 7) Understanding and interpreting texts
- 8) Engaging with and responding to texts
- 9) Creating and shaping texts
- 10) Text structure and organisation
- 11) Sentence structure and punctuation
- 12) Presentation

Table 4.13 revealed that the key areas that were not selected from the PFL for lesson plans were still carried out in the actual lessons. In fact, all of the key areas in the PFL were covered in the actual English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the school. Thus, there were different outcomes regarding the fidelity of the enactment of England's national curriculum between the class teachers and the actual lessons. The class teachers said that they were using England's national curriculum only as a basis, and they were in the position of being able to select the 'best' elements from England's national curriculum. In the process of the selection of elements from England's national curriculum to the curriculum for English in the school, the class teachers selected the key areas related to speaking and listening far less than the key areas related to reading and writing. However, in the actual lessons, all of the key areas in the PFL were covered by the teachers.

In summary, although the activities in the actual English lesson covered all of the key areas, the selected elements from England's national curriculum for their lesson plans did not reflect what the class teachers would like to teach in English lessons. For example, the key area 'Drama' was not selected for the lesson plans at all in Year 5 and Year 6 even though the teachers said that they wished to increase drama activities in the English lessons. The highly selected elements for the lesson plans were grammar, spelling, punctuation, reading and writing, which was the specialised knowledge that formed the subject. The analysis revealed that the reason for this tendency was the children who were supposed to transfer to the schools in the UK, where the elements to be taught in the English lessons could not be too far away from the schools in the UK. Thus, the particular situation that the children brought into the school contributed to the teachers' decision-making when selecting elements from England's national curriculum.

4.5 Writing in the Curriculum

The key areas based on writing were selected from England's national curriculum for all of the lesson plans in the data as the head teacher highlighted that writing was encouraged across the school. The English lessons were also designed to produce children's individual pieces of writing towards the end of a unit. Recognising the high emphasis on writing across the data, in this section, the teachers' perspectives towards writing activities in English lessons along with the roles of writing in English lessons are presented under the theme of Writing in the Curriculum. The findings are presented in line with the two roles of writing in English lessons: one was 'utilising linguistic features in written texts', which was seen in the theory of literacy discussed in the Literature Review chapter. The other role of writing in English lessons was: to offer the children opportunities to experience real world activities, which was the pattern identified in the process of data reduction.

The analysis of the 'success criteria' stated in all lesson plans in Year 5 and Year 6 revealed that there were five types of writing activities: identifying writing styles; applying writing styles; grammar and vocabulary; engaging to the reader; and evaluation. Table 4.14 shows the five types of writing activities implied in the success criteria and the examples stated in lesson plans in Year 5 and Year 6 (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 1-9, Year 5 and 6).

Table 4.14: Five types of writing activities implied in the success criteria

Types of Activities	Examples of Success Criteria in Lesson Plans
Identifying writing styles	<p>“Can I identify the features of an effective ending to bring a murder mystery story to a conclusive ending?”</p> <p>“Can I identify formal writing styles?”</p> <p>“Can I identify informal writing styles?”</p> <p>“Can I recall the features of journalistic writing?”</p> <p>“Can I identify the features within a newspaper article?”</p> <p>“Can I recognise metaphors, similes, alliteration and personification?”</p>
Applying writing styles	<p>“Use ideas from the extracts read to help me write descriptively and in the style of the author”</p> <p>“Include the features of diary writing identified in the previous session”</p> <p>“Can I write an autobiography including all the key features?”</p> <p>“Can I write a balanced argument which incorporates the features of the genre?”</p> <p>“Can I apply the features of an effective mystery story when writing my own story?”</p> <p>“Can I apply the features of an effective ending to bring a murder mystery story to a conclusive ending?”</p> <p>“Can I write in journalistic style?”</p> <p>“Can I write a poem which makes use of poetic devices such as: simile, metaphor, alliteration and personification?”</p>
Grammar and vocabulary	<p>“I can write complex sentences that are punctuated correctly with commas”</p> <p>“Can I punctuate direct speech accurately?”</p> <p>“Use at least 3 good adjectives”</p> <p>“Can I use puns?”</p>

Engaging
to the reader

“Can I write concisely and precisely, making the purpose of my letter clear?”
“Can I write descriptively and with imaginative detail to entertain the reader?”
“[Begin sentences with] interesting sentence openers”

Evaluating texts

“Can I evaluate a text using my knowledge of the features of journalistic writing?”
“Can I explain what made the writing so successful and enjoyable?”

There were two types of success criteria in relation to writing styles. One was to 'identify' the writing styles, the other was to 'apply' the writing styles to their own writings. Therefore, the children were asked to use the writing styles that they identified in texts from various genres in their own original writings. By applying the identified writing style to their own writing, the children were experiencing the use of acquired new knowledge. The success criteria also focused on 'grammar and vocabulary', which was an essential skill to produce a piece of writing. The children were required to realise that there was a reader of their writings and to communicate with the reader through their writing by making the purpose of their writing clear or by deploying writing strategies to amuse the reader. Evaluating texts from various genres also required the children to utilise the new knowledge that they acquired in English lessons with texts in texts from the real world outside the classroom.

In lesson plans, 'suggested activities' for writing were also stated (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 1-9, Year 5 and 6). The analysis of the suggested activities in relation to writing revealed that particular types of writing activities were focused according to the phases of lesson weeks. Table 4.15 shows the types of writing activities focused in the suggested activities according to lesson weeks. Lesson weeks were divided into five stages: weeks 1-3; weeks 4-6; weeks 7-9; weeks 10-12; and weeks 13 and 14.

Table 4.15: Transition of writing activities according to lesson weeks

Lesson Weeks	Types of Writing Activities	Examples of Suggested Activities in Lesson Plans
1-3	Identifying a style of writing	<p>“Complete a table of features of a given myths.”</p> <p>“Write features that Roald Dahl uses in his writing into exercise books.”</p> <p>“Make notes on the sheet as the children watch a film.”</p> <p>“Write down the name of the most likely suspect and post it in a secret box.”</p>
4-6	Planning for a piece of writing	<p>“Produce a plan for their piece of writing.”</p> <p>“Plan ideas for new character and write a paragraph.”</p> <p>“Plan a letter of complaint ...”</p> <p>“Children to write the feedback into the individual children’s books and give back to the child.”</p>
7-9	Applying the style to their own writings	<p>“Plan and write in the style of the author.”</p> <p>“This will be written in the style of the author ...”</p> <p>“Children to read the feedback and change their trigger where appropriate.”</p>

10-12	Completing writings	<p>“Write the ending part of their story.”</p> <p>“Leave children's final piece of writing on the tables and open all classrooms.”</p> <p>“Share examples of why they enjoyed others’ writing.”</p>
13-14	Evaluating writings	<p>“Evaluate against success criteria sticker and get a partner to do the same.”</p> <p>“Compare their rough draft against the class list of the features of diary writing which they produced the previous day.”</p> <p>“Ask a partner for feedback.”</p> <hr/>

In the introductory phase, the weeks between 1 and 3, the main tasks were to identify a style of writing and to understand the current lesson topic. In the weeks between 4 and 6, the children were asked to plan a piece of writing and to improve their writings through peer feedback. In the weeks between 7 and 9, the children were expected to apply the writing style that they had identified in the previous phases to their own writings. They continued sharing their writings with peers for feedback.

In the weeks between 10 and 12, the children were expected to complete their pieces of writing. In the final stage, the weeks 13 and 14, the children were expected to reach the level where they could evaluate peer's writings or other texts related to the lesson topic. In the process of carrying out the suggested activities for producing their own pieces of writing, the children were asked to identify a style of writing; to apply the style to their own writings; and to develop their criticality. Also, the children were sharing their writings with peers for feedback throughout the phases except the introductory phase. These characteristics of 'identifying a writing style'; 'applying the writing style to their own writings'; and 'evaluating writings' were commonly seen in the success criteria for writing stated in lesson plans. Thus, the analyses for the success criteria and the suggested activities revealed that writing had a role for the children to utilise new knowledge that they acquired in their own writings.

In lesson plans, 'weekly learning objectives' were also stated, which were produced by the teachers in order to 'interpret' the learning objectives selected from the PFL. The analysis of the weekly learning objectives in all lesson plans in Year 5 and Year 6 revealed that writing was highly emphasised in lesson plans, and the emphasis on writing in weekly learning objectives reflected the tendency of the choice of key areas from the PFL. Table 4.16 shows which words were most frequently used in the weekly learning objectives in all of the lesson plans in Year 5 and Year 6.

Table 4.16: The most frequently words used in weekly learning objectives in all of the lesson plans

No.	Words	Counts
1	write/writing	34
2	features	22
3	use/used/using	20
4	able	17
5	plan/planning	17
6	story	17
7	identify	16
8	style	10
9	language	9
10	understand/understanding	9

In Table 4.16, the words 'write/writing' were used most frequently in the weekly learning objectives, which were produced by the teachers based on the selected learning objectives from the Core Learning in Literacy by Strand in the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy. For example, the weekly learning objectives such as: "to write an introduction which captures the interest of the reader" (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 1, Year 5); or "to share work with peers and experience a range of writing" (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 4, Year 6). This suggested that the activities based on writing were most emphasised in the weekly learning objectives that were produced by the teachers.

The word 'feature' was the second most frequently used. In the English lessons, especially in the earlier weeks of the units, the children were often asked to identify or understand the overall features of the writing styles seen in the topic: "to understand the features of Greek myths" (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 1, Year 5). Then, the words 'use' and 'able' came in third and fourth places respectively. The weekly learning objectives often started with the phrases 'to use' or 'to be able to' such as: "to use direct and reported speech in journalistic writing" (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 9, Year 6); "to be able to edit and improve my writing" (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 1, Year 5); "to be able to write the opening of a story" (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 3, Year 5).

The words 'plan', 'story', 'identify' and 'style' were also used very often in the weekly learning objectives. This can imply the 'identify' type of activities where the children find the features of the writing style in a text in a particular genre. These most frequently used phrases in the weekly learning objectives also suggested the 'application' type of activities where the children use the identified features in their own pieces of writing: "rewrite the letter in a formal style, consequently having to identify the informal phrases for themselves and making appropriate changes" (Documents, Lesson plans, No. 8, Year 6).

With regard to teachers' perspectives towards writing in English lessons, like the head teacher, the class teachers also shared the idea of the synergistic effect between writing and speaking: "so it's following the model ... if you can't say the sentence you won't be able to write" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 28-29); "[the 1988 National Curriculum] recognises the importance of speaking and listening, this is vital if a child is going to write fluently" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 55-56); "I think if you can't speak in a certain way, it's impossible to write in that way" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 76-77); and the class teachers also perceived that there was a strong link between reading and writing: "[I'd like to teach] more of a focus on reading. Good readers, make good writers" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 83); "I try to get the idea across that the more they read the better the writing is" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 220).

Following their beliefs of the synergistic effect between writing and speaking, the class teachers said they were carrying out speaking activities prior to the writing activities in English lessons: "we always try to build in some speaking and listening activities before the children write" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 132); "just giving them the opportunity to have time to discuss and talk through things before actually you come to the writing style, so usually quite a good build up before anything has to be written down" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 33-35).

In English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the school, the writing activities were often aided by IT resources, and the class teachers had positive opinions because the IT resources enabled the children and the teachers to write and feedback to each other more effectively and productively: "they can edit their work and change it and move it around. It's a lot more flexible, so that's been a big one" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 345-346); "children in my class continue writing at home and often send me work, that they have worked on, via shared document on Google" (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 174-175); "they generally feel like they can write more [with laptop or iPads] and it's easier to write for most of them ... my motivation for them is to write, so if it

makes them write quicker and they can write more then I think it's better” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 127-133).

In the real world, IT facilities such as PCs, smartphones, tablets, seem to be becoming a significant part of writing activities. The class teachers conceived that the environment of writing activities with the aid of the IT resources in the classrooms was similar to their lives outside the classroom: “often we'd have the laptops, the children would be working on the laptops, and over the last two or three years I think it's become much bigger part of the literacy lessons” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 408-409); “that's what they are doing at home that what they would do when they get out into the real world when they graduate I think that's the kind of where it's going to be” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 461-463).

However, the class teachers were facing an issue when using the IT resources for writing activities in English lessons, which was the modernisation of the lesson topics: “they [the children] do have some lessons about how to write letters but actually that's probably a bit outdated now and needs to be changed them to like how to do an email” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 546-548). Also, the class teachers expressed some concerns that typing was taking over handwriting: “the kids are doing a lot more writing on word processing rather than hand writing ... I think the most of the class are more comfortable with like word processing than hand writing now” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 339-340); “handwriting and punctuation has got worse for some children when they have to write by hand” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 137-138); “I don't think handwriting is very important so I don't really care about handwriting” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 129-130).

In terms of themes for writing, what the class teachers wished to teach more was creative writing rather than functional writing: “children, younger children should be doing more creative writing than functional things like writing letters” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 36-37); “writing creatively which can be accessed by the audience through the correct use of grammar, sentence

structure and punctuation” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 76-77). Further, the class teachers wished to develop the children’s humanistic growth through writing activities: “to feel confident with writing for a variety of purposes and to feel confident with taking risks, and trialling new writing styles” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 93-94); “we try to make our literacy lessons relevant to the children with a real purpose to writing” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, line 45); “I’d like them to enjoy writing and I’d like them to have a positive approach to writing and also to be happy or confident to experiment with writing and play round with it” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 90-92).

The analysis for the observed lessons revealed that the speaking activities were actually carried out prior to writing activities as the class teachers were saying in their interviews. Table 4.17 shows the number of speaking activities that were conducted before writing activities in the observed English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6.

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Table 4.17: The number of speaking activities before writing activities in all of the English lessons

Observed lessons	Years	The number of speaking activities before writing
1	Year 5	1
2		3
3		1
4		2
5		2
6		4
7		1
8	Year 6	1
9		2
10		1
11		Speaking activities only (no writing activities)
12		Speaking activities only (no writing activities)
13		Speaking activities only (no writing activities)
14		1

The speaking activities for this analysis were defined as when the children were asked by the teachers to 'discuss' with their peers, and the writing activities were defined as when the children were asked to 'write' or 'type' for their tasks. In Year 5, speaking activities were conducted prior to writing activities in every lesson. In Year 6, there were three lessons that had no writing activities because they were conducting other activities such as drama activities and a football pitch debate; however, in the rest of the lessons, which had writing activities, speaking activities were observed prior to writing activities. Therefore, the statements from the class teachers with regard to conducting speaking activities before writing activities in English lessons were carried out in the actual English lessons.

One of the class teachers explained the reason that the English lessons needed to have a plenty of speaking activities: "we have quite a high element of children who don't have English as their first language or who don't have English spoken at home as regularly as it might be in the UK, that's a big element like speaking and listening we try to make big part of every lesson" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 24-28). Therefore, the EAL children or the children with different linguistic environments in Japan and in the UK influenced the balance between writing activities and speaking activities in English lessons.

In summary, through writing activities, the children were learning English grammar, vocabulary and writing styles, which was the specialised knowledge for the subject. However, the findings revealed that the children were asked to apply the acquired subject knowledge to their own pieces of writing in the English lesson. The children's ability to utilise the acquired specialised knowledge was being developed through the writing activities in the English lessons. It was identified that knowledge beyond the specialised knowledge such as communication and criticality was also being developed through the writing activities. The children were asked to engage to the reader and to develop their 'writer's voice' in order to communicate with the reader in their writings. Peer feedback, which was similar to real world activities, was often adopted to evaluate texts or other children's writings in order to develop the children's criticality.

The teachers in the school shared a strong belief of the synergy effect between writing and speaking as 'if the children did not have the ability to speak well, they would not be able to write well', and the analysis revealed that the teachers were actually conducting speaking activities prior to writing activities in English lessons. However, the school had a particular reason for having to have plenty of speaking activities in English lessons, which was the children with English as an additional language. Thus, the findings also revealed that the children's different linguistic backgrounds which they brought into school (everyday knowledge) had an influence on the contents and the structure of the English lessons.

4.6 The Concepts of Specialised Knowledge and Everyday Knowledge

As a summary of the chapter, the findings identified as a result of the analysis for the data are discussed under the cross-cutting theme, the Concepts of Specialised Knowledge and Everyday Knowledge, which was formulated based on the theoretical focus. The findings of the four themes have shown that acquiring the specialised knowledge was not the ultimate aim of the English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the school. Although the teachers perceived that teaching of the specialised knowledge that formed the subject was an essential part of the English lessons, the development of the children's knowledge beyond literacy was more valued by the teachers. The teachers enacted England's national curriculum in the English lessons, aiming to develop the children's everyday knowledge that they brought into the school such as communication or imagination, and also the children were acquiring knowledge beyond literacy such as criticality or leadership in the English lessons, which were expected to utilise in their future in the real world. In order to develop the children's ability to apply the newly acquired specialised knowledge, many of the writing activities were designed to utilise the new subject knowledge in their own pieces of writing. Thus, this main finding disagreed with the claim made by Young that acquiring the specialised knowledge should be the purpose of schooling (Young, 2009).

In fact, the specialised knowledge for the English lesson was the selected elements from the documents of England's national curriculum, which was influenced by the everyday knowledge that the children brought into the school. This should not be overlooked because this influence of the everyday knowledge, such as personal interests or different language backgrounds for the formation of the specialised knowledge for the English lessons did not support the claim made by Young that the specialised knowledge was superior to the everyday knowledge (Young, 2012). The reason for the superiority of the specialised knowledge was that the everyday knowledge was limited to children's experience (*op cit.*); however, the findings revealed that the everyday knowledge through the children's experience affected the decision-making of

the selection of the specialised knowledge. Thus, the theory of knowledge developed by Young did not fully apply to the English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the British international primary school. In the next chapter, the overarching main finding and the findings in each theme will be discussed further in relation to the theoretical framework.

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Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusions

5.1 Overview of the Main Findings

This final chapter discusses how the findings of the research relate to the study's theoretical framework, and how the research is located in the field. Firstly, an overview of the main findings and results identified through the analyses are outlined. Then, there is a discussion of the main findings. Key empirical studies that informed the present study are revisited in order to reflect on the new perspectives that my findings reveal. This chapter concludes with the implications of the present study for aims and knowledge in the curriculum.

- The analysis of the teachers' enactment of England's national curriculum for the subject English in Year 5 and Year 6 in LBS revealed a mismatch between aims and knowledge. The teachers' main aim for the English lessons was to develop the children's knowledge beyond literacy. This was to some degree in tension with the proposition that the main purpose of schooling should be acquiring specialised knowledge. The children's everyday knowledge had an influence on teachers' decision-making in relation to selecting the specialised knowledge that was part of England's national curriculum.
- There was discrepancy between the teachers' perspectives expressed in the interviews and the findings that were obtained as a result of the observed lessons, particularly for the following two points: a) the flexible use of England's national curriculum; and b) the curriculum as 'culturally extended'. The teachers emphasised that they were in a position of being selective towards the elements in England's national curriculum, however, all of the key areas were observed in the actual lessons. The curriculum as 'culturally extended' was mentioned in the teachers' interviews whereas little resource from the local context was observed in the lessons.

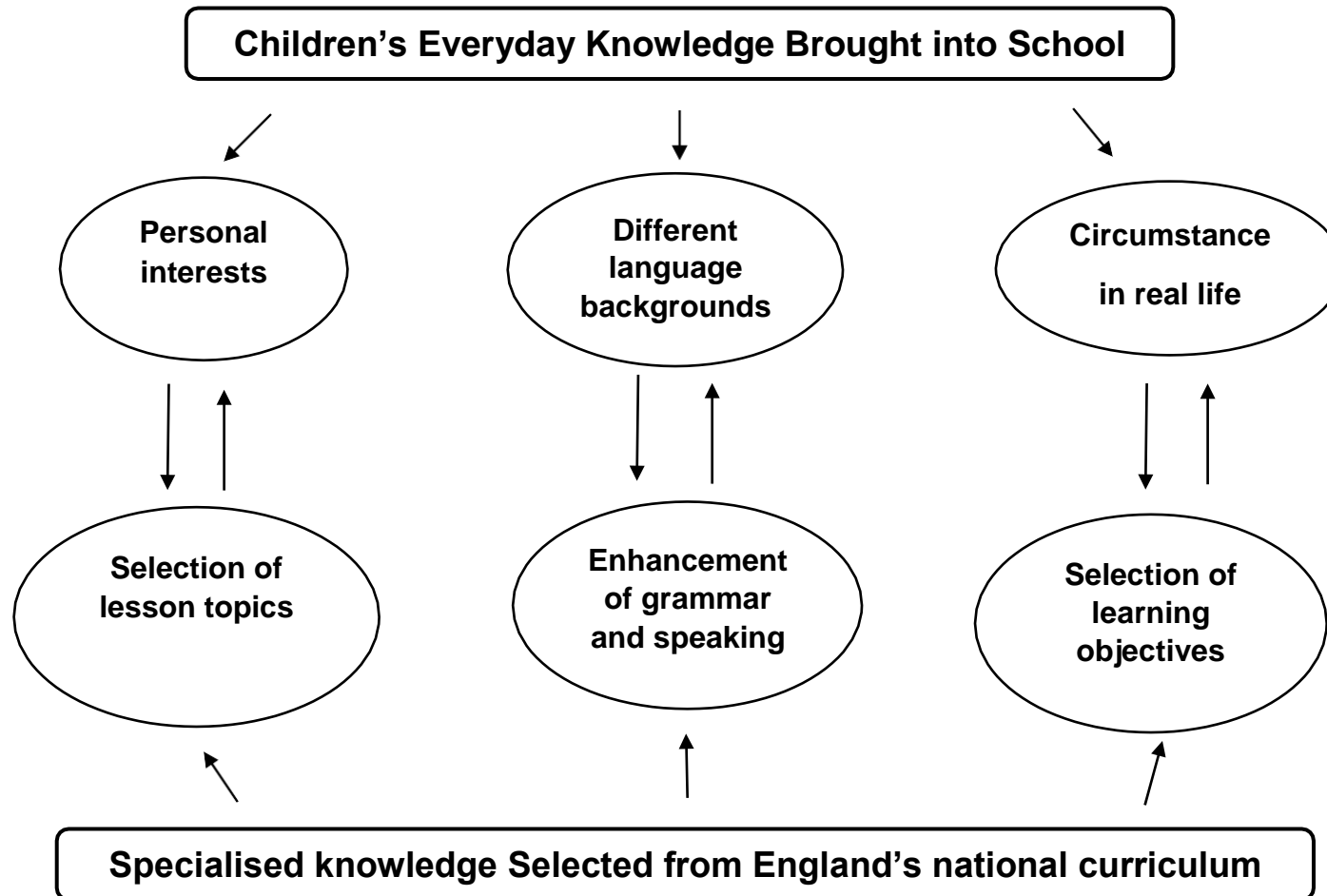
5.2 Influence of Everyday Knowledge on Specialised Knowledge

Regarding the specialised knowledge that was being taught in the English lessons, there was uncertainty about the superiority of the specialised knowledge to the everyday knowledge because of the ways of selecting the specialised knowledge from England's national curriculum. Although the teachers were selecting the elements from the documents of England's national curriculum, the children's everyday knowledge that they brought into the school, for example, their personal interests or different language backgrounds affected the teachers' decision-making of the selection of the specialised knowledge from the national curriculum. The selection of learning objectives from key areas were also affected by the children with certain circumstance, which was to transfer to the state schools in the UK. Therefore, although the school did not follow England's national curriculum as state schools in the UK, the teachers were planning the English lessons not too far away from the state schools in the UK in order to provide the children smooth transition.

Figure 5.1 summarises the influence of the everyday knowledge that the children brought into the school on the selection of the specialised knowledge from England's national curriculum.

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Figure 5.1: Influence of the children's everyday knowledge on the selection of specialised knowledge from England's national curriculum



All of the lesson topics for the Year 5 and Year 6 English lessons were selected from the English Programmes of Study: Key Stages 1 and 2, which corresponded to the concept of specialised knowledge developed by Young (2013) in which he argued that the specialised knowledge should be generated as a form of subject, and it was transmitted in school. However, the teachers admitted that the decisions for selecting lesson topics were often made based on the children's interests. The reason for taking the children's everyday knowledge into account for the selection of lesson topics was to make the English lessons as appealing as possible to the children in order to raise the children's motivation.

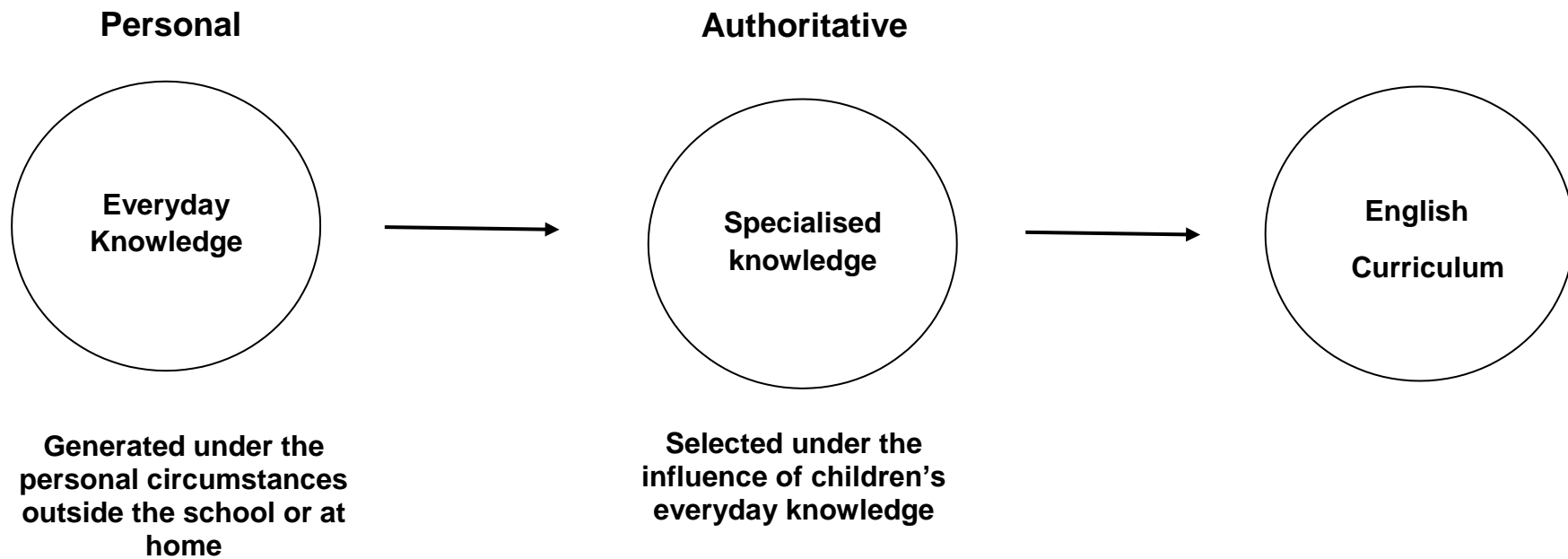
One of the essential components of an international school was having children with different nationalities and language backgrounds, and the existence of the children with different language backgrounds required the teachers to enhance the teaching of English grammar and speaking activities in the English lessons. The elements from the statutory requirements in England's national curriculum such as grammatical concepts, vocabulary and punctuation were taught in the English lessons, which were also the specialised knowledge that formed the subject. The analyses for the interviews with the teachers revealed that there was an increase of teaching of grammar in the English lessons because of the existence of the children with different language backgrounds. The everyday knowledge that the children brought into the school affected the contents of the English lessons as well as the selection of the specialised knowledge from the national curriculum.

Also, the children with a certain situation in their real lives such as a plan to transfer to the schools in the UK influenced the planning for the English lessons. Offering the children a smooth transition to the schools in the UK was one of the school's fundamental responsibilities as a British international school in Japan. Although the teachers stressed in their interviews that they were in a position to be able to select elements from England's national curriculum, the teachers' preferences were not fully reflected in the selection of the elements. For example, the English lessons were planned based on the learning objectives from the PFL in the Primary National Strategy, where the key area

based on drama was not selected at all for the teachers' lesson planning sheets despite that the teachers expressed in their interviews that they wished to increase drama based activities in the English lessons.

The findings of the present study revealed that the teachers took the children's everyday knowledge into account when selecting the specialised knowledge from England's national curriculum. The influence of children's everyday knowledge for the selection of specialised knowledge from the national curriculum did not support the claim made by Young (2007), which was that specialised knowledge was superior to everyday knowledge. In the theory of knowledge proposed by Young, everyday knowledge was inferior to specialised knowledge because specialised knowledge "helps us [the learner] go beyond our individual experiences" (Young, 2013b, p. 196). The teachers in LBS, however, conceived that the children's interest was a significant factor for selecting the lesson topics, and the structure of the English lessons were adapted because of the children with different language backgrounds. In the enactment of England's national curriculum for English in Year 5 and Year 6 at LBS, the everyday knowledge that was acquired through children's personal experiences and that the children brought into school was as 'powerful' as specialised knowledge. Figure 5.2 shows the relationship between everyday knowledge, specialised knowledge, and the curriculum.

Figure 5.2: The relationship between everyday knowledge, specialised knowledge, and the subject English curriculum



In Figure 5.2, the everyday knowledge that the children brought into the school influenced the selection of the specialised knowledge to be taught from England's national curriculum. The everyday knowledge such as personal interests or different language backgrounds was acquired through experience in the children's personal environment. The everyday knowledge was not replaced by the specialised knowledge because the children's everyday knowledge was a factor for the teachers' decision-making of selecting the specialised knowledge from the national curriculum. Further, the teachers' claimed aims for the English lessons were to develop the children's knowledge beyond literacy.

Thus, this existence of the children's everyday knowledge when selecting the specialised knowledge from the national curriculum did not prove the superiority of the specialised knowledge being taught in the English lessons. The everyday knowledge that the children brought into the school such as personal interests; different language backgrounds; and a certain situation in the children's real lives influenced the selection of the specialised knowledge from England's national curriculum as well as the structure of the English lessons. Although the specialised knowledge selected from England's national curriculum was taught and transmitted in the English lessons, the children's everyday knowledge that was generated outside the school and at home were considerable factors for the selection of the specialised knowledge.

5.3 Everyday knowledge as Aims in the Curriculum

The teachers were aware of the importance of the teaching of specialised knowledge in the English lessons. However, within the two types of aims for the English lessons that predominated in the teaching of English: a) to develop the children's specialised knowledge of literacy; and b) to develop the children's knowledge beyond literacy, the teachers considered that the development of the children's knowledge beyond literacy was the ultimate aim for the English lessons. The teachers' perspectives were not in line with the claim made by Young, which was that the purpose of the schooling should be acquiring specialised knowledge (Young, 2009; 2011). On the contrary, the teachers' views regarding the aims for the English lessons supported the claim made by Brown and White (2012), where they argued that children ought to develop everyday knowledge in school as well as specialised knowledge and that acquiring specialised knowledge should not be the primary aim of schooling.

Placing more value on the development of the children's knowledge beyond literacy can be connected to an essential part of primary education, which is character development. As I argued about the commonalities between Russell, Dewey and Makiguchi in the Literature Review, Russell (1926) was aware that there was a distinction between the concepts of acquiring knowledge and developing children's character, but he claimed that the aim of developing children's character ought to be superior to acquiring knowledge. The teachers' perspectives towards the aims for the English lessons appeared to be consistent with this claim made by Russell.

Some activities that were observed in the English lessons had a close link to the concept developed by Dewey (1902). In the English lessons, the children were experiencing certain emotions such as fear or undertaking activities similar to real world professional jobs such as biographer and journalist in order to develop their knowledge beyond literacy. These activities that focused on 'experience' were observed both in the teachers' lesson plans and in the actual lessons, however, in the actual lessons, the children were asked to

apply the new knowledge not only experiencing real world activities. For example, in a unit of journalistic style of writing, the children were frequently asked to give feedback to each other on their writings and to evaluate different types of texts as well as applying the style of writing to their own pieces of writing.

The activities that aimed to develop the children's knowledge beyond literacy in relation to research or criticality corresponded with one of the aims in the curriculum proposed by Makiguchi, for which he claimed that the aim of education was to guide the learning process for children to be able to acquire methods of research and methods for children's own learning (Makiguchi, 1930/1979). In those activities, the children were asked to formulate questions for conducting an interview to obtain information with a view to reporting in their own writings. Thus, the teachers' enactment of England's national curriculum in Year 5 and Year 6 in the school corresponded more with the theoretical concepts regarding the aims in the curriculum proposed by Russell, Dewey and Makiguchi such as putting more value on developing the children's knowledge beyond the specialised knowledge; connecting children's experience in the process of learning; and exploring the methods of research skills.

The teachers' aims for the English lessons such as developing the children's knowledge beyond literacy were, however, different from the fundamental reason for the establishment of the LBS. Despite the fact that the aim of this particular school has been to offer education based on England's national curriculum in British style teaching, the teachers' aims for the English lessons were the development of the children's knowledge beyond the specialised knowledge such as communication; research; or criticality, which can be said to be 'universally applicable knowledge'.

In fact, the aims that have been considered in curriculum theory were universally applicable: to create wise citizens of a free community (Russell, 1938); for continuous humanistic growth (Dewey, 1916); to accomplish children's happiness (Makiguchi, 1930/1979); and to have a flourishing life (Reiss and White, 2013). Although the original aim of the school was closely

related to a particular country, the teachers' aims for the English lessons were to develop the children's knowledge beyond the specialised knowledge, which were universally applicable.

The teachers' universally applicable aims for the English lessons however did not appear to be incorporated well in the learning objectives stated in England's national curriculum. The twelve key areas stated in the PFL in the Primary National Strategy provided the specialised knowledge that formed the subject English, and these teachers' claimed aims for English lessons did not have a specific place in the key areas. The findings through the triangulation of methods of present study revealed that the development of the children's knowledge beyond literacy were indicated in lesson plans (document), the development of the children's everyday knowledge was valued by the teachers (interview), and the activities for developing the children's knowledge beyond literacy were being carried out in the actual English lessons (observation). This suggested that it would be necessary to have a clear concept and a place in order to accomplish these universally applicable aims in England's national curriculum.

One of the research studies discussed in Chapter 2 also showed the importance of developing children's knowledge beyond specialised knowledge in primary schools. The study conducted by FitzPatrick et al. (2014) reported the six strands of priorities for the curriculum at primary level. Among the six strands, only one strand of priority was the specialised knowledge, and the most important priority regarded by the respondents (mostly primary teachers) was 'skills for life'. FitzPatrick et al. argued that skills for life included 'thinking', and 'learning', where children ought to learn "growing plants, preparing food, cleaning"; "budgeting and paying bills"; "life and safety skills"; and "craft skills, such as sewing and knitting" (p.275).

In the English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the LBS, the teachers also aimed to develop the children's 'thinking' and 'learning'. The children were expected to develop their criticality, where they were frequently asked to feedback to each other and critically evaluate various texts. Also, they were undertaking the activities that would be a preparation to conduct a piece of research, where the

children were formulating interview questions and conducting interviews with a view to incorporating the information to their own writings. FitzPatrick et al. discussed that 'thinking' included the skills of analysis, synthesis and evaluation, and learning skills was to form learners who know how to learn throughout their lives (*op cit.* p.276).

In the six strands of priorities identified in the study, the development of children's communication was ranked at the second place. Developing the children's communication was raised as the ultimate aim for the English lessons by the head teacher and the class teachers in the LBS, where the children were expected to communicate with the reader in their writings as well as by articulating their opinions orally and listening to other people. FitzPatrick et al. highlighted that the respondents valued the development of children's oral competence across languages in order to help children to 'find their voices' and to 'express themselves'.

The development of oral competence and finding children's own voices were also observed in the English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the LBS. In Year 6, the children were learning poems written both in English language and in Irish language with a class teacher who was originally from Northern Ireland. Also, the head teacher said that it was important for the children to be able to develop their 'writer's voice' to express themselves in their own writings because this could contribute to achieving higher grades in assessment. The development of communication was highly prioritised both in the findings of the research study by FitzPatrick et al. and in the findings through the analysis of the present study with the LBS.

The strand of priority based on the specialised knowledge, "to develop literacy and numeracy skills" (*op cit.*, p. 275) appeared in fourth place. However, the responses in relation to the development of literacy and numeracy skills included phrases such as 'foundation skills' or 'basic skills', which could suggest that acquiring the specialised knowledge was not expected to be enhanced. The priorities ranked in fifth place and sixth place, 'motivation and engagement' and 'the sense of identity and belonging', were also identified in the findings as a result of the analysis for the English lessons in Year 5 and

Year 6 in the LBS. In the findings of the present study, the teachers conceived that the children's motivation was highly important, and the lesson topics were selected based on the children's interests. Like the findings of the present study, FitzPatrick et al. reported that the respondents in the study said that children's motivation was "vital to successful implementation of a curriculum" (*op cit.* p. 279). In the LBS, almost all of the resources that were being used in the English lessons were selected from the British context, which appeared to foster the children's sense of identity and a sense of belonging as pupils of a British international school.

The strand of priority that was not identified in the findings of the present study was 'well-being' although this strand was ranked highly at third place in the research study. FitzPatrick et al. highlighted that this strand of priority included not only 'psychological well-being' but also 'physical well-being'. The respondents in the research study also mentioned the concepts of 'happiness', 'self-confidence' and 'success' as priorities for the curriculum at primary level. Reiss and White (2013) discussed that the concept of 'human flourishing' in the 'aims-based curriculum' can be replaced by well-being, also Makiguchi (1930) concluded that the aim of education was children's happiness. The concept of well-being was regarded highly prioritised for the curriculum at primary level, however, the concepts of 'well-being', 'happiness', 'human flourishing' were not identified in the findings of the English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in LBS. Hence, it would be worthwhile to have a place and to incorporate the concept of well-being in the curriculum for English lessons.

5.4 Fidelity to England's National Curriculum

In the interviews with the teachers, the head teacher's first remark in the interview was that the school was quite strictly following England's national curriculum. The head teacher also mentioned a flexible approach to the use of England's national curriculum in the school. The class teachers unanimously answered in their interviews that they were using England's national curriculum only as a basis for their lesson planning.

The findings through the analysis for the selection of elements from England's national curriculum by the class teachers showed that all of the key areas in England's national curriculum were observed in the actual lessons. There was a flexible approach to the use of England's national curriculum, however, they were also following the curriculum quite strictly. Therefore, the head teacher's views summarised the enactment of England's national curriculum in the English lessons in the school. The findings through the analysis for the selection of elements from England's national curriculum also showed that oracy had less place in teachers' lessons plans. In this section, the possible reasons for the teachers' perspectives towards the fidelity to England's national curriculum and the place of oracy in the English lessons will be discussed.

The head teacher's remark with regard to following England's national curriculum quite strictly in the school can be understood better if we revisit the research studies on international schools in Japan, which were discussed in Chapter 2. Although a number of research studies on international schools in Japan have been conducted, many of which focused on parents' school choice, exploring the reasons why parents made a decision to send their children to an international school against the mainstream of education in Japan.

Most of the research studies that looked at parents' school choice in relation to international schools in Japan concluded that parents chose an international school because of its curriculum, and its learning environment in terms of

language (MacKenzie, Hayden and Thompson, 2003; MacKenzie, 2009; 2010). These research studies also highlighted that which curriculum was adopted in international schools was a significant factor for parents to choose an international school for their children. As for the LBS, being a British international school that follows England's national curriculum from the Nursery to the sixth form would be an attraction to parents. As the head teacher of the LBS, it would be beneficial for the head teacher to emphasise that the school is quite strictly following England's national curriculum when she was asked questions regarding literacy education in the school.

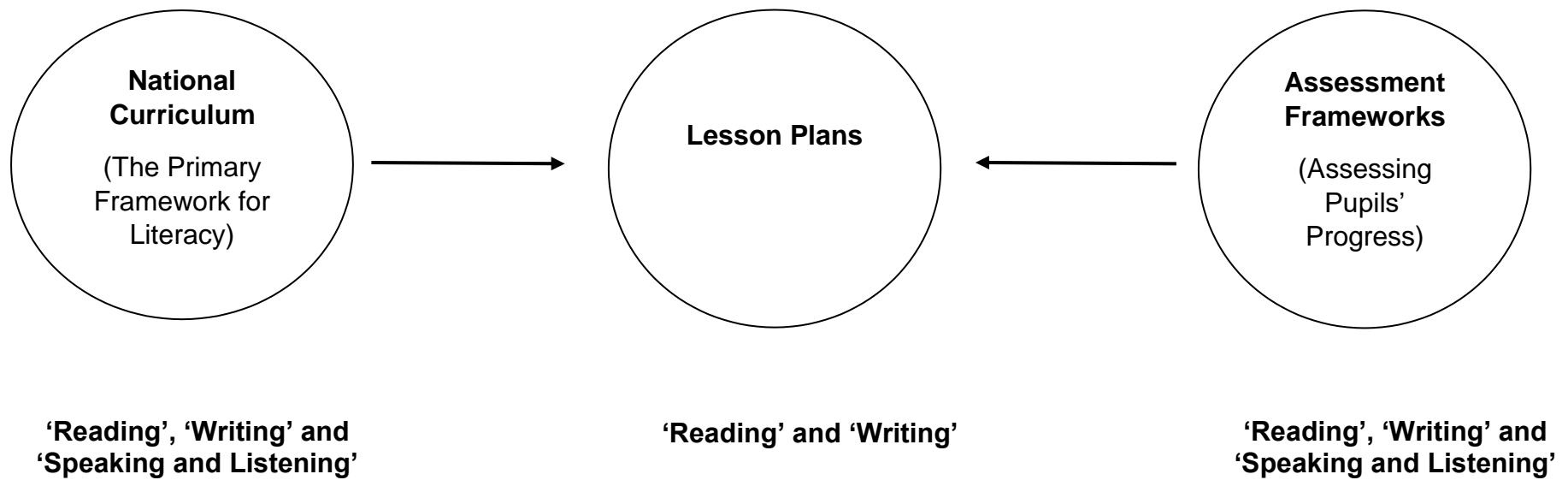
The head teacher and the class teachers mentioned the flexible use of England's national curriculum. The class teachers especially said that they were in a position of being able to select the best elements in England's national curriculum and that they adapted the elements or added their own ideas to the elements. In fact, the analyses for teachers' lesson plans revealed that the key areas based on 'reading' and 'writing' were frequently selected from the PFL in the Primary National Strategy, despite the fact that the PFL stated key areas based on the four language skills: 'reading', 'writing', and 'speaking and listening'. In teachers' lesson plans, the key areas based on 'speaking and listening' had less place compared to the key areas based on 'reading' and 'writing'. For example, the key area based on 'drama' was not selected at all for teachers' lesson plans, even though the teachers answered in their interviews that they wished to conduct more activities based on drama in English lessons.

This tendency in the selection of key areas from England's national curriculum for teachers' lesson plans, where the key areas based on reading and writing were more frequently selected than the key areas based on speaking and listening, corresponded with the answer from the head teacher in relation to the enhancement of writing across the school. In the interview, the head teacher said that writing was encouraged even in earlier year groups in the Nursery in the school because developing the children's 'writer's voice' would be a critical element in order to achieve higher grades in assessment. However, the Assessment Focuses Criteria in the APP, which was the assessment

frameworks that the school was following, focused equally on the four language skills, 'reading', 'writing' and 'speaking and listening'. Further, one of the Assessment Focuses Criteria in the APP focused specifically on drama, "talking within role-play and drama" (DCSF, 2010, p.16). Thus the findings revealed that despite the fact that the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy and the APP stated the elements based on the four language skills, 'reading', 'writing', and 'speaking and listening', the class teachers tended to select the key areas based on 'reading' and 'writing' for their lesson plans. Figure 5.3 shows the lower place of the elements based on 'speaking and listening' in teachers' lesson plans.

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Figure 5.3: Less emphasis of the elements based on speaking and listening in teachers' lesson plans



In Figure 5.3, the elements based on speaking and listening had less emphasis only in teachers' lesson plans whereas both the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy and the APP included the elements based on reading, writing, and speaking and listening. However, although the key areas based on speaking and listening were less selected than the key areas based on reading and writing from England's national curriculum, the teachers were aware that it was necessary for them to enhance activities based on speaking and listening in English lessons because of the children with EAL in the school. Also, the teachers shared a common belief of a synergetic effect between speaking and writing that 'if the child cannot say the sentence the child will not be able to write', and they carried out activities based on speaking prior to writing activities in the actual English lessons.

Along with the lesser place for the elements of speaking and listening in teachers' lesson plans, the activities based on speaking and listening were given less authoritative or formal status in the teachers' lesson plans. In the lesson plans, the activities based on speaking and listening were stated only as suggested activities. This corresponded with the discussions regarding oracy in England's national curriculum introduced in Chapter 2, where Beard (1999) argued that the place of oracy was not being totally accommodated in England's national curriculum. However, the issue was not the place of oracy in the national curriculum pointed out but the place of oracy in teachers' lesson plans (the curriculum for English) in the school when there was the authoritative place for oracy both in England's national curriculum and in the assessment frameworks.

The teachers' high emphasis on oracy and the ways of conducting the activities based on speaking and listening also matched the argument in relation to oracy which was looked at in Chapter 2. Tabor (1991) argued that although oracy had been practised by children in classrooms to a significant degree, it had a less authoritative place in the teaching of English. Likewise, although the teachers selected less the elements of speaking and listening from England's national curriculum for their lesson plans, all of the twelve key areas stated in the PFL, including the key areas based on speaking and

listening, even drama, were covered in the actual English lessons. In order to reflect the significant place of oracy in the actual English lessons, it would be worthwhile to give it a distinctive place in lesson plans because the status of oracy in lesson plans was not consistent with what was observed in the actual English lessons.

In summary, the head teacher and the class teachers both mentioned the flexible approach to the use of England's national curriculum, however, there was also a remark from the head teacher that they were quite strictly following England's national curriculum. The findings through the analysis for the selection of elements from England's national curriculum for teachers' lesson plans showed the flexible approach, however, all of the key areas were covered in the actual English lessons. These findings supported the head teacher's views. There was a flexible approach to the use of England's national curriculum, however, they were also following England's national curriculum in the school quite strictly.

Regarding the selection of elements from England's national curriculum, the ways of selecting key areas from the PFL for lesson plans by the teachers did not reflect the balance between 'reading', 'writing' and 'speaking and listening' stated in the Primary National Strategy: the Primary Framework for Literacy and in the APP. As a result, the selection of key areas from the PFL for teachers' lesson plans did not reflected the significant place of oracy in the actual English lessons. In order to have a consistent the curriculum for English between England's national curriculum, teachers' wishes and actual lessons, it would be necessary to create more authoritative place for the elements based on speaking and listening in teachers' lessons plans.

5.5 Creating Links between Specialised Knowledge and Everyday Knowledge

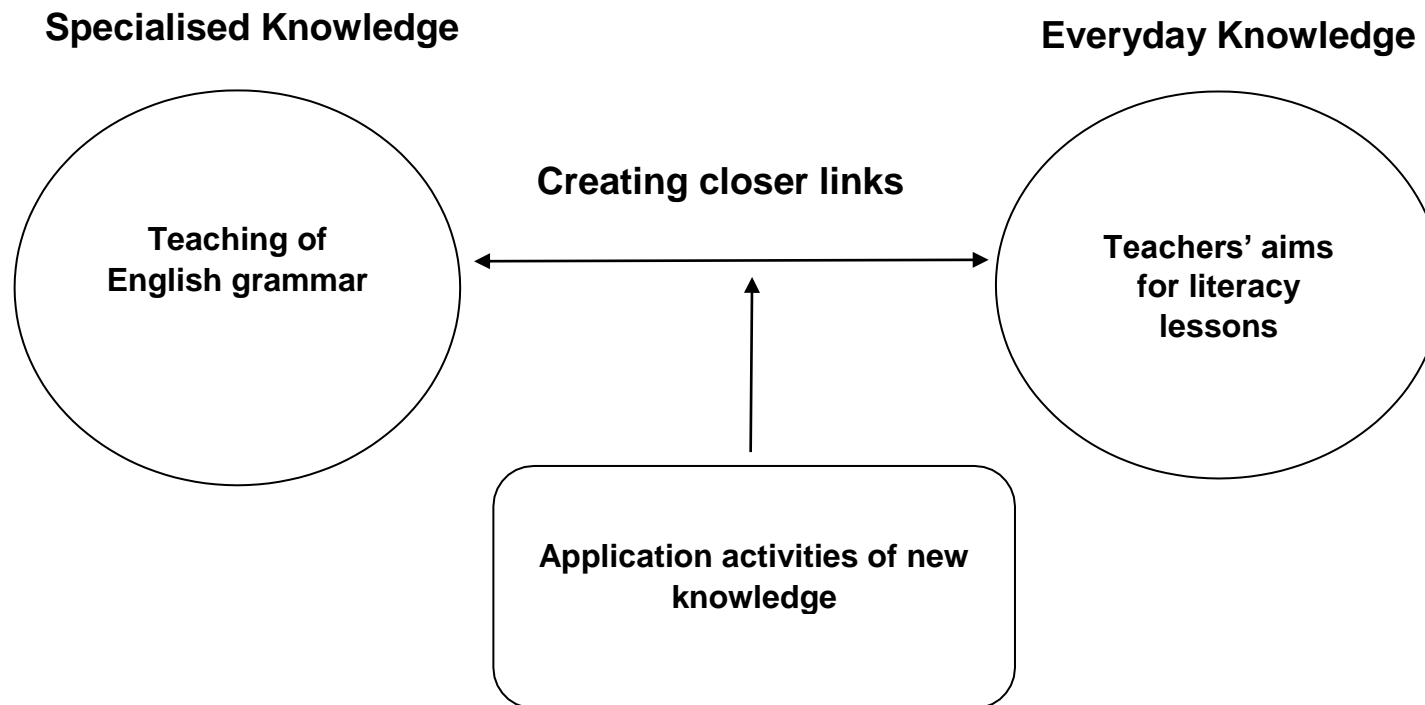
With regard to the teaching of specialised knowledge in the English lessons, teaching of English grammar was one of the essential aspects of the specialised knowledge being taught. For the English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 in the LBS, there was a reason to enhance the activities based on English grammar, which was the EAL children. However, the statutory requirement of English grammar in England's national curriculum was not fully followed in teachers' lesson plans, and one of the class teachers expressed a concern about teaching of English grammar, particularly in the early year groups. This lack of enthusiasm towards the teaching of English grammar can stem from the mismatch between the teaching of English grammar and the teachers' claimed aims for the English lessons. The teachers said that the ultimate aim for the English lessons was to develop the children's knowledge beyond literacy such as communication, which was regarded as everyday knowledge. Unless the teaching of English grammar (teaching the specialised knowledge) has a close link to the teachers' claimed aims for the English lessons (developing the children's everyday knowledge), these negative views towards teaching English grammar (the specialised knowledge) cannot be transformed.

In order to create links between the teaching of English grammar (specialised knowledge) and the teachers' aims for English lessons (everyday knowledge), the activities that were designed to apply and utilise newly acquired specialised knowledge in children's real lives can be encouraged. In the observed lessons, a process of delivering new knowledge was identified, where the children were often asked to apply the acquired specialised knowledge such as writing styles or characteristics of a genre to their own tasks and writings. By conducting these activities, children would be able to develop their ability to utilise the specialised knowledge in their real lives outside school. I would like to call these type of activities 'application activities'.

Figure 5.4 shows the relationship between teaching English grammar (specialised knowledge) and the teachers' aims for English lessons (developing children's everyday knowledge), connected with application activities of newly acquired specialised knowledge.

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Figure 5.4: Creating links between the teaching of English grammar (teaching specialised knowledge) and teacher's aims for English lessons (developing everyday knowledge)



In Figure 5.4, teaching of English grammar that was to teach specialised knowledge and the teachers' aims for English lessons that was to develop everyday knowledge had a link to each other with the application activities of newly acquired knowledge. It would be worthwhile to establish a clear concept of applying and utilising the specialised knowledge in children's real lives outside school and to create sample application activities based on the concept of creating connection between teaching specialised knowledge and developing children's everyday knowledge.

Regarding the knowledge that children brought into the school (everyday knowledge), an unexpected result was identified in relation to the culturally extended curriculum. Prior to generating the data, there was a presumption that the English lessons in LBS were culturally extended because the school was in the Japanese context. The school's website also stated that the school's curriculum was culturally extended in the Japanese context. Further, the teachers at LBS answered in their interviews that a number of activities adopted for their lessons were inspired by the Japanese context. Since the school was located in Japan and all of the teachers and the children resided in Japan, the everyday knowledge that the children and also the teachers brought into the school must have been related to the Japanese context, however, little everyday knowledge from the Japanese context was observed in the English lessons.

In the observed English lessons, one Year 6 lesson had an aspect of the culturally extended curriculum, where the children were learning poems written in English language and in Irish language. This culturally extended curriculum was carried out by a class teacher who was originally from Northern Ireland, which suggested that the everyday knowledge of the teacher's personal background was brought into the English lesson. However, little everyday knowledge that the teachers and the children acquired through living in the Japanese context was brought into the English lessons, despite the high emphasis by the teachers on the culturally extended curriculum in the Japanese context.

Most of the resources used in the English lessons were selected from the British context despite the fact that the teachers emphasised that the use of different texts from a variety of topics and having good balance between fiction and non-fiction were beneficial for the English lessons. In fact, the examples of the culturally extended curriculum in relation to the Japanese context raised by the teachers in their interviews were not from English lessons. The examples raised by the teachers were from history lessons such as teaching the Great Fire in London and the Great Fire of Edo (the former name of Tokyo) through a comparison of the two events. There appeared to be a difference with regard to the culturally extended curriculum in the Japanese context between subjects. It suggested that when enacting a national curriculum in a different context, the degree of the culturally extended curriculum in the local context would differ from subject to subject.

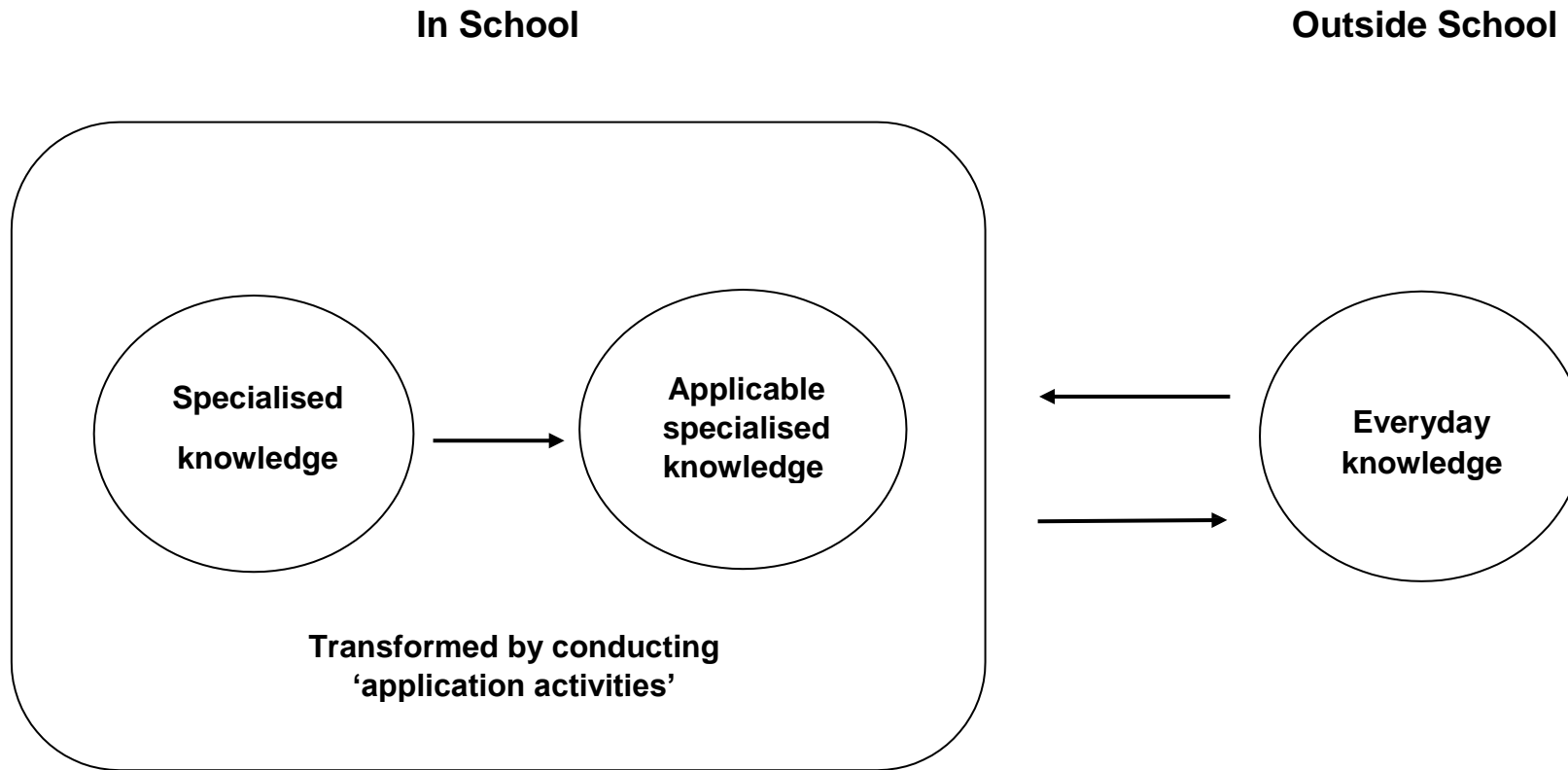
Regarding the concept of knowledge in school, a common pattern was identified in writing activities in the English lessons. The English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 at LBS were planned based on the selected key areas based on reading and writing from the PFL. The children were supposed to produce a piece of writing such as horror stories, myths, and poems towards the end of each unit, which seemed that each unit was designed as a big writing project for the children. There was no doubt that the development of the children's writing was an essential area in English lessons. One of the findings identified through the analyses for writing activities in the English lessons was that the children were applying newly acquired knowledge to their own tasks and writings. This aspect of writing activities in the English lessons will be discussed further in relation to the theory of knowledge below.

In the process of acquiring new knowledge, the specialised knowledge such as writing styles and features of a certain genre was not merely transmitted to the children. After familiarising themselves with the specialised knowledge, the children were asked to apply the specialised knowledge to their own tasks and writings in the English lessons. I called this type of activities 'application activities' in the section 5.4. By undertaking these application activities, the specialised knowledge became the knowledge that the children would be able

to utilise in their real lives. After conducting the application activities, the children learned how to apply and utilise the specialised knowledge in their real lives, and the specialised knowledge transformed into 'applicable specialised knowledge' for the children. Although this applicable specialised knowledge was supposed to be utilised in children's real lives, it differs from the concept of everyday knowledge in the sense of where everyday knowledge was generated (outside the school) and what environment contributed to generate everyday knowledge (personal experience). Figure 5.5 shows the relationship between specialised knowledge and applicable specialised knowledge, and everyday knowledge.

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Figure 5.5: Three concepts of specialised knowledge, applicable specialised knowledge, and everyday knowledge



In Figure 5.5, there are two concepts of knowledge in school and there is one concept of knowledge outside school. In school, the specialised knowledge that formed literacy was transmitted to children. Outside school, everyday knowledge was generated as Young stated, “the context-dependent knowledge that is developed in the course of solving specific problems in everyday life” (Young and Muller, 2015, p.114). However, there was another concept of knowledge in school between specialised knowledge and everyday knowledge. The children were learning how to apply the newly acquired specialised knowledge through undertaking application activities, and the specialised knowledge was not merely transmitted knowledge but it became ready to utilise or was ‘applicable’ in the children’s real lives. This transformation of the specialised knowledge into applicable specialised knowledge was a preparation for children to utilise the newly acquired knowledge in their adulthood, which was what the teachers aimed for.

This transformation of specialised knowledge into applicable specialised knowledge was identified through analysing the process of acquiring new knowledge in writing, however, it must have been seen in reading, listening and speaking in the English lessons. Also, it would be necessary to have a clear concept of ‘application activities’ that enabled the children to utilise the newly acquired specialised knowledge because the ‘application activities’ would create a link between teaching the specialised knowledge and teachers’ claimed aims for English lessons as well as transforming the specialised knowledge into ‘applicable specialised knowledge’ for children to utilise in their real lives.

5.6 Conclusions

The teachers' aim and knowledge being taught in the lessons did not match the enactment of England's national curriculum for subject English in Year 5 and Year 6 at LBS. The teachers' main aim for English lessons was developing the children's knowledge beyond literacy not acquiring specialised knowledge. Also, the present study identified the significant influence of the children's everyday knowledge that they brought into the school on the selection of specialised knowledge from England's national curriculum and that specialised knowledge was not superior to everyday knowledge in the enactment of the national curriculum. These findings of the present study contribute to knowledge in the field of curriculum studies. This present study was the first research that reported the enactment of England's national curriculum in a British international primary school in Japan in detail, which can also pave the way to explore the practice of a national curriculum in different context in the realm of international education.

Regarding the research question of the teachers' aims and the aims in the national curriculum, the teachers aimed to develop the children's knowledge beyond specialised knowledge of literacy, and there was a negative view towards teaching of English grammar among the teachers. The present study suggested creating solid links between teaching the specialised knowledge and developing children's knowledge beyond the specialised knowledge by conducting 'application activities' in the lessons. Application activities of newly acquired knowledge were identified through the analysis for the process of acquiring new knowledge in the English lessons, and the application activities that required children to utilise the specialised knowledge can be a preparation for their adulthood, which the teachers stated as an aim for the English lessons. The concept of well-being that was regarded as a highly important aim for the curriculum at primary level in a research study was not observed in the lesson plans, teachers' interviews and observed lessons in the English lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 at LBS. Well-being can include joy or happiness through learning literacy, therefore, it would be worthwhile to explore the ways to develop children's well-being in English lessons.

Regarding the research question of the knowledge enacted in English lessons, the children's everyday knowledge brought into the school was considered when selecting the elements from England's national curriculum. Children's everyday knowledge such as personal interests, different language backgrounds or children's circumstances in their real lives had a commonality that it was generated in their 'personal' environment outside the school. This influence of the children's everyday knowledge on the selection of the specialised knowledge from the national curriculum did not support Young's claim that specialised knowledge was superior to children's everyday knowledge. However, it may be necessary for the teachers to be aware that they were taking children's everyday knowledge into account when selecting elements from the national curriculum so that the selected elements have a good balance between increasing the level of children's interest and teaching the specialised knowledge that children ought to learn in classroom.

It would also be worthwhile to have a clear distinction between the two concepts of acquiring the specialised knowledge and utilising the acquired specialised knowledge. Acquiring the specialised knowledge ought not to be the ultimate purpose of education because the purpose of education ought to be cultivating wisdom *based on* knowledge. This cultivated wisdom could contribute to the society; however, I would rather support the claim made by Makiguchi (1930) that the society ought to contribute to education because the purpose of education is to seek every individual's human flourishing.

Regarding the research question of the selection of the elements from England's national curriculum, the selected elements from the national curriculum in teachers' lesson plans leaned heavily to reading and writing despite the fact that the documents of England's national curriculum including the assessment frameworks focused on four language skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening. The elements based on speaking and listening (oracy) from England's national curriculum could have a clearer place in teachers' lesson plans because the findings of the present study revealed that all of the key areas stated in the PFL were taught in the actual English lessons. It would also reflect the balance of four language skills stated in the documents of

England's national curriculum.

Thus, although the teachers emphasised that they were in a position to select the 'best elements' from England's national curriculum, the tendency of the selection of elements from the national curriculum was selecting the elements related to reading and writing more frequently than the elements based on speaking and listening, and the concept of what the best elements in England's national curriculum was ambiguous. With regard to what are the 'best elements' in England's national curriculum to international schools outside the UK, exchanging views towards the practices of England's national curriculum between international schools in different contexts would be valuable. There has been a campaign to visit British international schools around the world among the COBIS member schools, however, little collaborated activities were seen between the British international schools in Japan, needless to say exchanging views in relation to the enactment of England's national curriculum in their schools.

Also, the curriculum for English in a British international school outside the UK could be more culturally extended by selecting a wide range of resources from different contexts. The findings of the present study revealed that most of the resources were selected from the British context although the teachers emphasised that they enhanced the culturally extended curriculum in the school. Even though one of the English lessons hinted at ways to extend the curriculum for English culturally, where a class teacher originally came from Northern Ireland taught poems by using the same poem written in different languages (English and Irish), there is still room to extend the curriculum for English culturally. For example, literature from the British context and from the Japanese context can be compared and contrasted in an English lessons.

In order to extend the curriculum for English culturally especially according to local culture, there was an issue of England's national curriculum being as a national curriculum. England's national curriculum was designed mainly for state schools in England, therefore, it was not designed as an international curriculum. Despite that, England's national curriculum has been the most common curriculum taught in international schools around the world in

different contexts. This could cause mismatches regarding teaching a national curriculum in different international contexts. In order to increase the applicability of England's national curriculum to an international context, it may be necessary for the BSO in the British government to produce supplementary documents that include internationally-minded elements, which was an essential concept in international education. For example, adding the elements of understanding universal values, common heritage of human beings or commonalities between the children's home countries for the subject English.

When I reflect on the present study, there were some limitations in relation to the data-collection with LBS. When the data-collection began, I was still working at a university, which enabled me to visit the school only once in a week on Monday. This allowed me to observe the lessons only once in a week. If I had been able to visit the school consecutively during the data collection, there would have been more holistic data of lesson observations of each unit. It might have had an influence on the findings, especially the findings in relation to the selection of the elements from the national curriculum. In Chapter 4 (Findings Chapter), I argued that the activities based on all of the key areas in the PFL were seen in the observed lessons including the activities based on the key areas 'Drama' and 'Presentation'. Both of the key areas 'Drama' and 'Presentation' were not selected in the teachers' lesson plans, however, the activities based on the both of key areas were seen once in the observed lessons respectively. If I had been able to observe more of the lessons of the unit, the number of the activities based on the key areas 'Drama' and 'Presentation' might have been more than once, which would have enabled me to highlight more the difference between the analysis for the teachers' lesson plans (documents) and the analysis for the actual lessons (observations).

Also, if I had worked as a staff member of the school, I could have had an insider-look during the data-collection. When I visited the school to explain my research to the deputy-head teacher in order to ask access to the school for my empirical work, I was asked if I was interested in working as a teaching assistant not only conducting research at the school. I was strongly interested

in working as a teaching assistant at the school, however, again, I was working at a university then, so it did not happen. I still have a regret that I missed the opportunity to be more involved with my empirical site, which could lead to generating the data set through an insider-look. Generating the data set being an insider might have had an impact on the research design for the present study. Although I was allowed to access to the children's exercise books of subject English in order to analyse the teachers' comments on the children's writings, if I was working as a staff member in the school, I could have collected more detailed information in relation to the teachers' assessment on children's works, which would have enabled me to explore the relationships between the curriculum, pedagogy as well as assessment in the English lessons.

The timing of designing research methods and making contact with the school was also challenging. When I visited the school for the first time joining a guided tour for prospective parents, my research methods were not clear enough in detail to discuss with the primary staff. Detailed research methods may not be finalised until gaining access to the empirical site, which is a dilemma. However, this made me realise the importance of having a clear idea on research methods and being able to explain the research methods in as much detail as possible when approaching a possible empirical site because this is the information that the gate-keepers would like to know.

In my case, although the research methods had not been finalised in detail when first approaching LBS, there were a number of research instruments that I could prepare prior to my first visit to the school. These were the documents such as an information leaflet, informed consent forms, and the draft letters for parents (English and Japanese versions). I was also issued with the 'Certificate of Criminal Record' by the Metropolitan Police Department of Japan in an early stage of my research. The information leaflet particularly had an explanation in relation to ethical issues that might have occurred in the course of empirical work. By showing the senior staff from the school these prepared documents, I was able to give them reassurance regarding my empirical work with the school. Although not all of the documents were used for the data-collection, for example, the school did not ask me to show the

Certificate of Criminal Record or to send letters to parents, preparing these documents in the safest way increased my confidence about conducting my data-collection and the present research as a whole.

For further research, since the present study focused on the enactment of England's national curriculum for subject English in a British international school, the enactment of England's national curriculum in other subjects, especially in history or geography can be explored because the differences were identified in relation to the culturally extended curriculum between these subjects. Also, exploring the enactment of England's national curriculum in other subjects in an international school would provide the holistic information of the practice of England's national curriculum in a different context. Applying the research design and the theoretical frameworks of the present study to other British international schools in different countries would be a comparative study on the enactment of England's national curriculum for subject English in different contexts around the world. Nevertheless, more research studies that report the detailed information of the enactment of England's national curriculum in different contexts would be needed because England's national curriculum is the most common national curriculum being taught in different contexts internationally.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Sample of Informed Consent Form for the Teachers



Leading education
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University of London

INFORMED CONSENT FORM for participation in research

English education in a British international school in Japan

April 2013~

I have read the information leaflet about the research. (please tick)
I agree to be interviewed. (please tick)
I understand that information acquired through the interview will be treated
as confidential and will be anonymised. (please tick)

I agree to the interview being audio recorded and to its contents being used
for research purposes. (please tick)

Name _____

Signed _____ date _____

Researcher's name Tetsuko Watanabe

Signed _____ date _____

Appendix 2: Sample of Information Leaflet

Information leaflets: page 1/4



Leading education
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Institute of Education
University of London

English Education in a British International Primary School

A research project
April 2013~

Information for the Lionel British School



My name is Tetsuko Watanabe.
I am a PhD research student at the
Institute of Education, University of London.
Please will you help with my research?

This leaflet tells you about my research project.
I hope the leaflet will also be useful, and I would be
pleased to answer any questions you have.

Information leaflets: page 2/4

Why is this research being done?

The purpose of this research as a whole is to investigate the implementation and practice of the National Curriculum and pedagogy of English in a British international primary school in Japan.

Who will be in the project?

The main participants will be; the teachers of English, the teachers and pupils in the English lessons.

What will happen during the research?

I would like to conduct; interviews, observations, document analysis and questionnaires in the project.

Interviews: There will be several or more interviews of up to 30 to 45 minutes duration to answer the prepared question items.

Observations: There will be several or more observations of the English lessons in which I sit in the corner of the classroom taking notes silently.

Document analysis: I would like to look at information in the school websites, pamphlets, handouts, course descriptions, pupils' books or assessment reports if it is ok.

Questionnaires: I may conduct one or more small scale questionnaires for the teachers at BST.

Information leaflets: page 3/4

What questions will be asked?

I will ask about mainly; learning tasks, materials, activities, classroom organization or assessment.

What will happen to you if you take part?

If you agree, I will record some of the interviews and type them up later. I am not looking for right or wrong answers, only for what everyone really thinks.

Could there be problems for you if you take part?

I hope you will enjoy talking to me. Some people may feel upset when talking about some topics. If they want to stop talking, we will stop.

I will treat all information as confidential – I will keep recorded materials and notes in a safe place, and will change all the names in my reports and the name of the BST so that no one knows who said what.

If you have any problems with the project, please tell me Tetsuko Watanabe (twatanabe@ioe.ac.uk).

Will doing the research help you?

The research will mainly collect ideas to help adults, children or other researchers who have similar interests or help me to learn to be an independent researcher so that I may do more research in the future which will help other people.

Information leaflets: page 4/4

Who will know that you have been in the research?

My supervisor and myself will know. But we will not tell anyone else what you tell me unless we think someone might be hurt. If so, I will talk to you first about the best thing to do.

And, this project has been reviewed by the Faculty Research Ethics Committee of the Institute of Education, University of London.

Do you have to take part?

You decide if you want to take part and, even if you say 'yes', you can drop out at any time or say that you don't want to answer some questions. You can tell me that you will take part by signing the consent form.

Will you know about the research results?

I will send you a short report once I complete the project.

Thank you for reading this leaflet.

Researcher's name: Tetsuko Watanabe

Email: twatanabe@ioe.ac.uk

Phone: +81 (0)80 1234 5678 (Japan)

+44 (0)78 1234 5678 (UK)

Appendix 3: Sample Letter to Parents (English)



Leading education
and social research
Institute of Education
University of London

Dear Parents

I am a PhD research student at the Institute of Education, University of London, looking at English education at primary school level.

The purpose of this research as a whole is to investigate the implementation and practice of the National Curriculum and pedagogy of English in a British international primary school in Japan.

The main participants will be: the teachers of English, the teachers and pupils in the English lessons between the ages of 9 to 11. In the project, activities such as interviews to the English teachers, observations of English lessons, document analysis of children's works will be conducted. All information will be treated as confidential and anonymised. It will take 2 to 3 years to complete the project.

This research project has been reviewed by the Faculty Research Ethics Committee of the Institute of Education, University of London, and your response to this request constitutes your informed consent to your children's participation in this research project.

If you have further queries on this project, please contact me at twatanabe@ioe.ac.uk.

Thank you for your children's valuable contribution to this research project.
Yours faithfully,

Tetsuko Watanabe

Appendix 4: Sample Letter to Parents (Japanese)



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University of London

保護者各位

拝啓

早春の候、ますますご清栄のこととお喜び申し上げます。

わたくしは、ロンドン大学大学院教育研究所博士課程で初等教育課程の英語教育を研究しております。この度、英国系インターナショナルスクールにおける英語教育に関する研究プロジェクトを行うことになりました。

この研究プロジェクトの目的は、英国のナショナルカリキュラムが日本のインターナショナルスクールでどのように実践されているか、教授法も含めて研究するものです。

この研究プロジェクトの主な参加者は、初等科の英語教師、9歳から11歳までの英語のクラスの生徒と教師になります。研究プロジェクトでは、英語教師へのインタビュー、授業観察、お子様が授業内で書かれた文書の研究などが行われます。すべての機密は保持され、学校を含めたすべての名前は匿名になります。この研究プロジェクトは、2年から3年後の終了を予定しております。

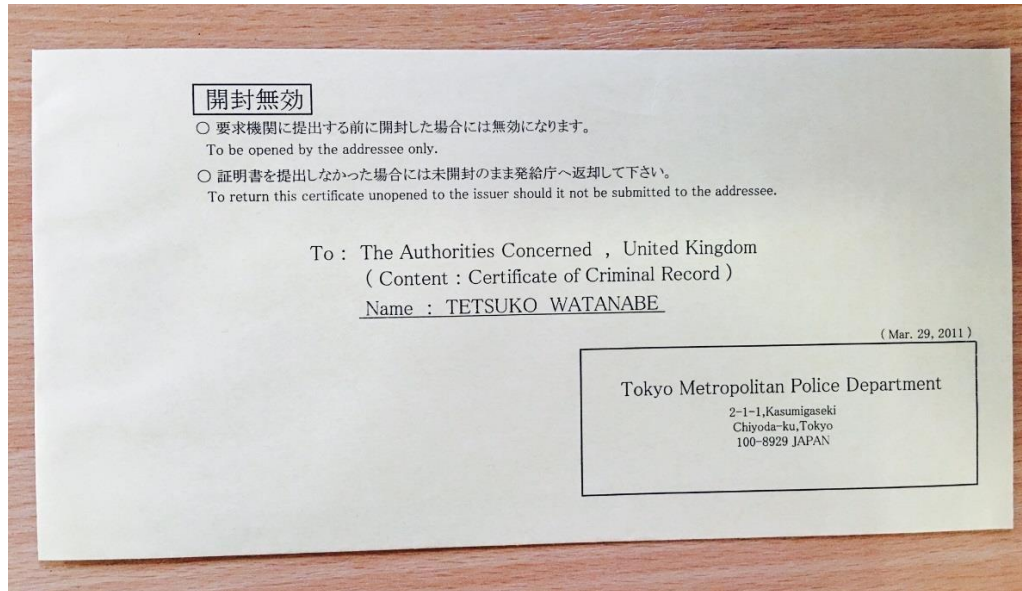
この研究プロジェクトは、ロンドン大学大学院教育研究所の研究倫理委員会の承認のもとに行われており、このインフォームドコンセントにご署名頂くことは、お子様の研究プロジェクトの参加を承認されることを意味いたします。

もし、ご不明な点がございましたら、わたくし (twatanabe@ioe.ac.uk)までご連絡ください。お子様の研究プロジェクトへの参加を心よりお願いし、また感謝申し上げます。

敬具

渡辺哲子

Appendix 5: Sample of the 'Certificate of Criminal Record'



Appendix 6: Sample of Interview Questions

Interview questions on teaching of literacy

Hello, my name is Tetsuko Watanabe. I am a PhD researcher at the Institute of Education, University of London. I am carrying out a research project about the characteristics of curriculum and teaching of literacy in a British international primary school in Japan. Findings from the research will help the Institute in studying curriculum and pedagogy and I am really interested in hearing what you think on this topic of literacy education. This questionnaire should take about 20 minutes. If you have any queries on this questionnaire, please feel free to contact me onto (twatanabe@ioe.ac.uk). Thank you very much for taking your time.

General information about the class

- Which Year and class do you currently teach?
(Year: Class:)
- How many children do you have in your class?
(Girls: Boys: Total:)
- How many children do you have in your class whose first language is not English? ()
- Which countries are they from? ()

There are no right answers to the questions below. Please answer or discuss freely the question items.

The literacy curriculum

- What do you think are the features or characteristics of the literacy curriculum in your school?
- How do you apply the National Curriculum English to the literacy curriculum in your school? (What kind of elements do you select from the National Curriculum English to produce the literacy curriculum in your school?)
- To what extent do you agree or disagree to the current/existing NC English? And why?
- To what extent do you agree or disagree to the new NC English 2014? And why?

Learning objectives of literacy

- What are the general learning objectives of literacy in your school? (e.g. understanding the grammar, developing critical thinking, etc.)

- How do you decide the learning objectives for the day-to-day lessons in your school?
- Which language skills (e.g. reading, writing, discussing, etc.) would you like to teach more often in your lessons? And why?
- Where would you like the children to be at the end of the year in terms of literacy?

Materials, resources and facilities

- What kind of materials and resources do you usually use in literacy lessons? (e.g. handouts, in-house materials, newspapers, websites, books, DVDs, CDs, etc.)
- What do you think are the good materials and resources? (Could you name or give me an example, if applicable?)
- What kind of ICT facilities do you usually use in literacy lessons? (e.g. PCs, interactive white boards, OHPs, iPods, iPads, mobile phones, etc.)
 - Do you have any preference in the ICT facilities?
 - What do you think are the weaknesses or limitations in the use of ICT facilities?

Activities in literacy lessons

- What kind of activities do you often do in literacy lessons? (e.g. Show and Tell)
- What kind of activities would you like to do or try (for particular topics) in literacy lessons?

Classroom organisations

- Do you arrange desks and chairs differently for particular topics? (What kind of topics are they? How do you arrange your classroom?)
- Do you teach literacy outside?

Assessment (formative)

- What elements do you take into account most when you comment on children's works or writings in their books?

Thank you very much!

Appendix 7: Sample of Observation Schedule (Pre-pilot)

No. _____ Date _____ Year _____ Class _____ Time : ~ : _____ CT _____ TA _____ .
 Lesson topic _____
 L.O. _____ .

Time	Organisations Formation	Place CT TA	Activities	Resources / Facilities	Notes

Appendix 8: Sample of Observation Schedule (Post-pilot)

Mrs

No. _____ Date 4/Mar/2014 Year 5 Class G Time 11:00-11:15 Number of pupils _____

Mrs. _____
 Mr. _____

Topic _____ L.O. _____ how to tell _____

Time	Pupils			Teacher			Notes	
	Place	Formation	Activities	Materials/Facilities	Place	Activities		Materials/Facilities
11:00	Carpet	5人 9=11 Carpet.	読む	hardout myths script	Desk	読む out loud	hardout EWB hardout EWB w/LD.	L.O. To be able to write a character profile.
		↓	answer			内容の ask		
			↓					

Appendix 9: Sample of the 'Curriculum Map'

	T1a	T1b	T2a	T2b	T3a	T3b
N						
R	Basic Literacy skills and Speaking and Listening (4) Non-fiction – Labels, lists, captions (8) Narrative: stories with familiar settings (8)	Poetry – Phase 1 Letters and Sounds activities (4) Narrative: predictable and patterned language (12) Narrative: familiar settings (8) Christmas Activities (4)	Instructions (7) Narrative: traditional tales (5) Poetry: Pattern & rhyme (5)	Narrative: traditional tales (6) Poetry: Simple poetry, Poems on a theme Writing Focus: letter/ postcard and diary	Non-fiction – Linked to Topic 'Our World' information about different countries Narrative – Under the sea, Fantasy worlds	Recounts Poetry: on a theme
1	Labels, lists, captions Poetry Stories with predictable patterns Instruction writing	Creative writing Narrative: predictable and patterned language (12) Narrative: familiar settings Play scripts letter writing	Traditional fairy tales (Recounts) Retelling	Stories with familiar Settings (Recounts) Retelling	Info. Texts Writing a story	Instructions Reports Poetry – using the senses
2	Stories with familiar settings (8) Poetry: patterns on a page (12) Creative writing (4)	Instructions (12) Non-chronological reports (13)	Poetry: silly stuff (8) Narrative (12) Creative writing (4)	Explanation texts (12) Stories with familiar settings (8) Creative writing (8)	Narrative: Author focus (12) Information texts (8)	Poetry: riddles (8) SATs Prep
3	Settings (11) Character (6)	Poetry: shape (8) Broadcast (6)	Dialogue and plays (6) Narrative: myths (12)	Instructions (6) Poetry: performance (6)	Information texts	Play scripts Letters
4	Play scripts (11) Journalistic writing (13)	Narrative: cultural stories (11) Explanation texts (12)	Narrative: historical (16)	Poetry: forms (8) Non-chronological reports (11) Mixed genre writing (4)	Persuasion	Narrative: Stories that raise issues
5	Significant Authors (16) Narrative: Horror (16)	Recounts: formal/informal (12)	Poetry: Seasons (8)	Narrative: myths (12) Film narrative (8)	Persuasion (11)	Poetry: classic/narrative (12)
6	Letters: formal (9) Narrative: Crime Mystery (7) Poetry: Nature (6)	Biography & Autobiography (10) Narrative: Flashbacks (8)	Journalistic Writing (8) Argument/debate (7)	Movie Scripts: drugs (10)	Grammar Revision of genres	Poetry

Narrative
Non-fiction
Poetry

Appendix 10: Samples of English Lesson Plans

Lesson Plan No. 1: Lesson Topic 'Greek Myths' (Year 5)

<p>Text: Greek myths including video of <i>The Storyteller</i> version of Theseus and the minotaur</p>	<p>Genre: Myths</p>	<p>Text level:</p> <p>Objective 2 (Listening and responding)</p> <p>Analyse and evaluate how speakers present points effectively through use of language and gesture.</p> <p>Objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts)</p> <p>Understand underlying themes, causes and points of view.</p> <p>Compare different types of narrative and information texts and identify how they are structured.</p> <p>Explore how writers use language for comic and dramatic effects.</p> <p>Objective 8 (Engaging and responding to texts)</p>	<p>Sentence level:</p> <p>Objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation)</p> <p>Adapt sentence construction to different text types, purposes and readers.</p> <p>Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences.</p> <p>Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways.</p>	<p>Word level:</p> <p>Taught through weekly spellings and 1 word level session, outside of the literacy hour)</p>
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	<p>Compare how writers from different times and places present experiences and use language.</p> <p>Objective 9 (Engaging and responding to texts)</p> <p>Reflect independently and critically on their own writing and edit and improve it.</p> <p>Use different narrative techniques to engage and entertain the reader.</p> <p>Select words and language drawing on their knowledge of literary features and formal and informal writing.</p> <p>Objective 10 (Text structure and organisation)</p> <p>Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis.</p>		
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Throughout the first week gather words for a class word bank that the children can use when writing their own myths.

	Learning Objective	Context / Activity	Success criteria what you need to do to achieve the learning objective	Organisation Activity, resources, differentiation in brief	Plenary effective questions
1	To begin to understand the features of a myth	Greek myths (Theseus and the Minotaur)	Watch a video clip carefully. Pick out the main characters and plot line of a story. Discuss <i>general</i> ideas about a genre.	Introduce the children to the topic for the next 3 weeks – Greek Myths and discuss anything they already know about these. Show them the short video clip of Theseus and the Minotaur and then spend some time discussing the story and it's features – use a text version of the story on the WB too to draw out what they think might be the features of a myth – discuss with talk partners and record ideas as a class on IWB.	
2	To understand the features of Greek myths	Greek myths	Offer opinions on a text. Compare more than one text of the same type. Identify common features of a text <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hero/heroine • Tragedy • Lesson at the end • Quest • Family relationships 	Remind the children of the work done yesterday and revise features. Display a text version of a different myth and see if it has the same features – discuss and make changes to class table as necessary (thus creating success criteria for a myth to be referred to later in unit) Children to complete table of features for a given myth LA Given skeleton table with features - supported by TA MA Given skeleton table with features – independently HA Complete own table (write own features they identify)	Get each group to present their work - in the process exposing the whole class to a selection of Greek myths.

3	To create a character profile which engages the reader.	Greek myths	<p>Use Wow words in my descriptions. Comment on different aspects of the character's personality (not just looks). Use a range of openers. Use descriptive techniques.</p>	<p>Before the lesson, share the Greek Myth 'The labours of Heracles' focus in on the main character (Heracles). Brainstorm key words to describe the personality of Heracles.</p> <p>Focus the children back on the character of Heracles. Remind of vocab previous collected. Use the discussion points from earlier in the session to support with modelling 2 sentences to begin a character profile. Ensure cohesion between these 2 sentences.</p> <p>Children to write character profile of Heracles and one of the other heroes/heroines. LA – supported by TA (prompting with openers, connectives and relevant similes) MA – working independently (success criteria prompt sheet provided) HA – expectation that metaphors are used, subordination and powerful openers (CT to work with this group to challenge and extend)</p>	<p>Share work with a partner. Set star and a wish.</p>
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4	To be able to edit and improve my writing	Greek myths	Use Wow words in my descriptions. Comment on different aspects of the character's personality (not just looks). Use a range of openers. Use descriptive techniques.	Display an example of a piece of writing from yesterday and discuss positive features. Then discuss how improvements can be made and model on the piece of writing. LA editing and improving writing by changing 2 sentences that the CT has already identified as sentences which can be improved MA supported by CT to develop piece of writing HA working with TA to improve writing by changing order and adding in extra details to create complex sentences	Get HA to demonstrate how they have improved their sentences
5	To be able to identify and sequence the key events in a myth	Greek myths Theseus and the minotaur	Understand the main sections of a story (beginning, build up, main event(s), end). Categorise sections of a story into appropriate areas. Explain my reasoning.	Tell the children that they are going to plot the main events of the story of Theseus and the Minotaur (one of the features of myths is that it simplifies it to the main events- need practice in picking out main events) All children to sort and order the sentence strips and decide which ones can be discarded. (Children to be left with the main events). HA to be given the whole myth and they delete the non-essential sentences and parts- summarise the main events in 5/6 bullet points. Share and discuss the main events with the class	Begin to think about ideas for the trigger part of the story- (Before the next lesson children to write their own triggers ready to share)

6	To be able to plan a myth which incorporates the relevant features	Greek myths – deciding on 'ingredients' for their Greek myth	Decide on the ingredients for my Greek myth <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hero/heroine • Someone (royal) to send hero on quest • One or two obstacles to overcome • Monster to defeat • Sacred object to retrieve • Ending with a twist Stick to the Greek genre	Explain to the children that they are going to be planning their own Greek myth. Give out the triggers that the children came up with at the end part of the previous lesson-children to work with the children on their table/partners to discuss and feedback on the problems. Children to write the feedback into the individual children's books and give back to the child. Children to read the feedback and change their trigger where appropriate.	Discuss the children's initial ideas – getting them to vocalise what will happen in their stories
				Today they will be deciding on the 'ingredients' for their myth based on the features we investigated at the start of the unit. Show the children the table they will be completing and discuss each of the items – clarifying. Give the children some discussion time to talk about their ideas and then feedback together. Show them a completed table for new myth. LA completing table with support MA and HA completing table independently	

7	To be able to plan a myth which incorporates the relevant features	Greek myths – story mountain	Write in notes. Include an annotation for at least 4 parts of my story. Give enough detail to be able to plan from.	<p>Explain to the children that they are going to be using the ingredients they wrote yesterday to plan their myth.</p> <p>Remind the children of the lesson about Theseus and the Minotaur where they picked out the main events. Children to then sequence the main events of their myth limited to 5/6 bullet points and write into book.</p>	Get some of the children to share parts of their story hill and say how it fits the features of a Greek myth
8	To write an introduction which captures the interest of the reader	Greek myths	Introduce main character. Include some setting description. WOW words Interesting sentence openers.	<p>Explain to the children that today they will be writing the introduction part of their story using their plan from yesterday. Begin to write the introduction together for one – modelling high quality language plus deciding on success criteria as you go. Look at prepared introduction and highlight good features.</p> <p>LA writing introduction with CT support MA and HA working independently to write introduction using word banks for support where needed (TA to offer support across both groups)</p>	Children choose one sentence from their story to improve by e.g. adding in a subordinate clause, adding an adjective, changing the sentence opener etc.

9	To be able to write the build up for a story	Greek myths	Introduce the quest. Introduce one of the secondary characters. WOW words Interesting sentence openers.	Explain to the children that today they will be writing the build-up part of their story using their plan from yesterday. Begin to write the build-up together for one – modelling high quality language plus deciding on success criteria as you go. Look at prepared build up and hi-light good features. LA writing build up with support by TA MA writing build up with support by CT HA working independently	Children choose one sentence from their story to improve by e.g. adding in a subordinate clause, adding an adjective, changing the sentence opener etc.
10	To be able to write the main event for a story	Greek myths	WOW words Interesting sentence openers. Include an exciting event.	Explain to the children that today they will be writing the main event part of their story using their plan from yesterday. Begin to write the main event together for one – modelling high quality language plus deciding on success criteria as you go. Look at prepared main event and hi-light good features. LA writing main event with CT support MA writing build up with support by TA HA working independently	Children choose one sentence from their story to improve by e.g. adding in a subordinate clause, adding an adjective, changing the sentence opener etc.

11	To be able to write the resolution for a story	Greek myths	WOW words Interesting sentence openers. Resolve the story.	<p>Explain to the children that today they will be writing the resolution part of their story using their plan from yesterday. Begin to write the resolution together for one – modelling high quality language plus deciding on success criteria as you go. Look at prepared resolution and hi-light good features.</p> <p>LA writing build up with support by TA MA working independently HA working with CT (push towards including a powerful twist)</p>	Children choose one sentence from their story to improve by e.g. adding in a subordinate clause, adding an adjective, changing the sentence opener etc.
12	To be able to write the ending for a story	Greek myths	WOW words Interesting sentence openers. Include a twist in the ending.	<p>Explain to the children that today they will be writing the ending part of their story using their plan from yesterday. Begin to write the ending together for one – modelling high quality language plus deciding on success criteria as you go. Look at prepared ending and hi-light good features.</p> <p>LA – working independently (encourage to work closely to the modelled example) MA – working with TA HA – continue to extend this group by developing a powerful twist</p>	Children choose one sentence from their story to improve by e.g. adding in a subordinate clause, adding an adjective, changing the sentence opener etc.

13	To be able to edit and improve my writing	Greek myths	<p>WOW words Interesting sentence openers. At least 4 sections Setting description Character description All 'ingredients'</p>	<p>Show a piece of writing on the board and discuss what could be improved about it. Demonstrate changing word order, improving/adding adjectives, including good sentence openers. Children need to edit and improve their writing using a coloured pencil to make changes. They then need to evaluate against success criteria sticker and get a partner to do the same.</p>	<p>Get the children to select a section that they have improved and share it with the class saying how they improved it</p>
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Lesson Plan No. 2: Lesson Topic 'Significant Authors' (Year 5)

<p>Text: Extracts and whole texts by a range of significant authors</p>	<p>Genre: Stories by significant authors</p>	<p>Text level:</p> <p>Objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts) Compare different types of narrative and identify how they are structured (read and compare stories by significant children's authors) (can talk about the distinctive feature of an author's style by referring to characters, themes, settings or use of language) Explore how writers use language for comic and dramatic effects.</p> <p>Objective 8 (Engaging with and responding to texts) Reflect on reading habits and preferences and plan personal reading goals.</p> <p>Objective 9 (creating and shaping texts) To experiment with different narrative form and styles (can write in the style of the author).</p> <p>Vary the pace and develop the viewpoint through the portrayal of action and selection of detail.</p>	<p>Sentence level:</p> <p>To adapt writing for different readers and purposes by changing vocabulary, tone and sentence structures to suit (informal writing).</p> <p>To discuss and edit writing for clarity and correctness.</p> <p>Objective 11 (sentence structure and punctuation)</p> <p>To be able to punctuate sentences accurately, including using speech marks.</p> <p>To adapt sentence construction to different text-types, purposes and readers.</p>	<p>Word level</p> <p>(taught through weekly spellings and 1 word level session, outside of the literacy hour):</p> <p>suffixes → ough/ought suffixes → sion suffixes → tion</p>
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	Learning Objective	Context / Activity	Success criteria what you need to do to achieve the learning objective	Organisation activity, resources, differentiation in brief	Plenary effective questions
1	To reflect on personal reading habits	Written independent reading survey	<p>Discuss ideas with a partner.</p> <p>Reflect and give opinions on my reading and my reading preferences.</p> <p>Back up reasons with examples from my own reading habits.</p> <p>Share my reading survey clearly with a partner.</p>	<p>Introduce the unit: Novels by significant authors and ask the children what they think it means. Inform the children that over the next few weeks they will be reading and comparing extracts and whole texts by several significant authors.</p> <p>Tell the children that they are going to independently complete a reading survey which will help them to reflect on their own reading habits e.g. when and where they read, how they feel about reading in general and their own reading, favourite authors/books etc.</p> <p>Share their surveys with a partner and talk about how they feel about reading and their own reading habits.</p>	<p>Which books/authors do the children like? Compile a class list.</p> <p>With a partner discuss the elements which make a really good book. Share with the rest of the class.</p>

2	To identify personal reading goals	Sharing and writing reading goals	<p>Listen carefully to the examples of reading targets given.</p> <p>Discuss ideas of possible reading goals with a partner.</p> <p>Critically reflect on my reading habits using the survey from the previous day.</p>	<p>Class teachers and TA's/LSTA's to share their reading habits with the children. Include details about when and where they read, why they read and favourite books/genres/authors. Teachers to identify two personal reading goals that they would like to focus on and achieve.</p> <p>Look at the quote on the IWB: "Reading without reflection is like eating without digestion". Ask the children to work with a talk partner to discuss what this means and feedback to the rest of the class. Discuss the importance of reflecting on a book.</p> <p>With a talk partner children to discuss possible reading goals which could be set. Share these with the rest of the class.</p> <p>Children to identify two personal reading goals and write these into their guided reading books. Teacher/TA to support individual children with this where required.</p>	Children to share and discuss their reading goals with a partner and a plan for how they are going to achieve these.
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3	To identify distinctive features of an author's style by referring to characters, themes, settings or use of language.	Shared reading of the extracts with a partner Recording features in a written form	Read and compare the extracts carefully, looking for common similarities between them. Discuss ideas with a partner. Record ideas clearly giving examples from the texts.	Read an extract from a book by a significant reader on the IWB and ask the children if they recognise which author/book it is from? Children to feedback their ideas (they should hopefully recognise it as an extract from a book by Roald Dahl) Read together on the IWB some background information about the author Roald Dahl. Give out extracts (approximately 4/5) from a range of Roald Dahl books. These will be differentiated according to the children's reading abilities and literacy groupings. In pairs or in groups of 3, children will read each of the extracts and come up with a list of features which Roald Dahl uses in his writing and across a range of books. Write these features into their books or underline these features on the extracts and stick into Literacy books. LA supported by TA MA supported by CT	Children to share the features they have found with the rest of the class and teacher to compile a class list. Children to add any features that they have missed into their books using a different colour.
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4	<p>To identify familiar themes across a range of books.</p> <p>To select effective language used by the author to describe the characters</p>	<p>Shared reading of the extracts with a partner</p> <p>Written completion of a character sheet</p>	<p>Read and compare the extracts carefully, looking for common themes between them. Discuss ideas with a partner.</p> <p>Identify effective descriptive words and phrases to describe the characters.</p>	<p>Discuss what the word 'theme' means and give examples of different themes in a variety of books. Explain to the children that they are going to be identifying themes across a range of Roald Dahl books.</p> <p>Give the children extracts from a variety of Roald Dahl's books and a separate pile with themes written on them. Ask the children to work with a talk partner to match the extract with the theme. Feedback to the rest of the class (HA's not to be given the themes and they have to try to work it out for themselves)</p> <p>Explain to the children that they are next going to focus particularly on the characters which Roald Dahl uses in his books.</p> <p>Give the children extracts from several of his books which introduce or describe the characters. Ask the children to focus on each of the characters and look at how they are described and the type of language used. Children to complete a character sheet where they have to identify adjectives used to describe the character etc.</p>	<p>Begin to complete an author web either individually or together as a class. This will include key themes, characters, settings and language which is used by the author.</p>
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5/6	To plan and design a new character to add to a specific Roald Dahl story written in the style of the author	Written plan A written character description of the new character	<p>Use ideas from the extracts read to help me write descriptively and in the style of the author.</p> <p>Include details on appearance, personality, habits and actions.</p> <p>Think carefully about the choice of name and how this reflects the character's personality.</p> <p>Use a metaphor or simile.</p> <p>Use humour.</p>	<p>Remind the children of the work they were doing on character in the previous lesson and the ways in which Roald Dahl described his characters.</p> <p>Explain to the children that their task is to design a new character in the style of Roald Dahl. Give the children options of which new characters to design and let them choose which one they want to do e.g.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - An extra child in Charlie and the Chocolate Factory - An extra giant in the BFG - A different insect to put in the Giant Peach. <p>Children to plan ideas for their new character and write a paragraph introducing this character written in the style of Roald Dahl. They can use ICT to help in the design of the character</p> <p>Up level their writing and produce a final copy for display</p>	<p>Share their writing and designs with a partner. Children to evaluate their partners according to how closely they had written in the style of Roald Dahl (use features identified in lesson 4)</p> <p>Finish putting together the author web which was begun in lesson 4.</p>
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1	To identify distinctive features of an author's style by referring to characters, themes, settings or use of language.	Shared reading of the extracts with a partner Recording features in a written form	Read and compare the extracts carefully, looking for common similarities between them. Discuss ideas with a partner. Record ideas clearly giving examples from the texts.	Explain to the children that this week they are going to be reading and analysing a range of books from another significant author. Read together one of the books (this will be scanned in). Do the children recognise the book or know who the author is? Introduce the author of Julia Donaldson and read some background information about her. Read another book by the same author. As the teacher is reading it the children will have whiteboards and will be writing down the features which make her style similar to the other book e.g. the use of repetition, rhyme, short sentences but using descriptive language (particularly adjectives). Share these features with a partner and feedback to the class. Record these features into books.	Begin to put together an author web for Julia Donaldson style of writing which includes key themes, characters, settings and language
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6/8	To produce a plan for a new setting written in the style of Julia Donaldson	Written plan for new setting	<p>Suggest a new creative setting for the snail and the whale to visit.</p> <p>Come up with powerful words to describe the setting using all of the senses.</p> <p>Successfully use the internet site 'rhyme zone' to produce an effective rhyming bank of words.</p>	<p>Ask the children to recap on the features of Julia Donaldson writing which they identified in the previous session.</p> <p>Introduce and read the book 'The Snail and the Whale' (scanned in). Ask the children to pick out examples of the features of her writing in this book.</p> <p>Explain the task: The children are to plan and write a page that could go into the book 'The Snail and the Whale'. This will be written in the style of the author and the snail and the whale will visit a new place.</p> <p>The children are to produce a plan for their new page which will include the new setting and what there will be there. They will suggest powerful adjectives as well as producing a rhyming bank of words (show the children how to use a rhyming dictionary)</p>	Children to share their plans with a partner and children evaluate each other's.
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10/11	To be able to write a verse/s in the style of Julia Donaldson	Written verse/s	<p>Use the rhyming bank of words to produce a series of rhyming couplets.</p> <p>Include powerful language, especially adjectives and verbs.</p> <p>Join the rhyming couplets together to produce the new verse/s, thinking carefully about the rhythm.</p>	<p>Focus on one of the verses in the book 'The Snail and the Whale'. On the IWB identify and highlight what kind of language is in the verse and what makes the writing effective. Have a go at producing a couple of lines together in the same style.</p> <p>Using their plans from the previous day the children are to write their verses for the new page for the book, carefully following the same style.</p> <p>Share their rough drafts with a partner, evaluating what is great about it and what could be improved. Make any changes needed.</p>	Use ICT to produce a final copy of the page designing/using a suitable setting.
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21	To identify distinctive features of an author's style by referring to characters, themes, settings or use of language.	Shared reading of the extracts with a partner Recording features in a written form	Read and compare the extracts carefully, looking for common similarities between them. Discuss ideas with a partner. Record ideas clearly giving examples from the texts.	Explain to the children that this week they are going to be reading and analysing a range of books which are written by significant authors in a similar style. (Use the Diary of the Wimpy Kid and Tom Gates' books which are very similar in style) Read together on the IWB several extracts from a couple of the books. Do the children recognise the books or know who the authors are? Introduce both of the authors and the genre which they write in. In pairs/three's the children are to be given extracts from the books. The children need to identify the features which make their styles similar and therefore the features of diary writing. Record these features into their books.	Share these features with the class. Produce a class list of the features of this particular style of writing
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13	To plan and write a diary extract in the style of a significant author	Improvised role plays to develop ideas	Use ideas from the extracts read to help me think of suitable ideas	<p>Ask the children to recap on the features of the writing which they identified in the previous session.</p> <p>Explain the task to the children: they are to write a diary page in the style of the authors which have been focused on.</p> <p>To generate ideas for writing, set up an improvisation task: Choose 4 children with a talent for drama. Ensure that everyone understands what improvisation is. Set up a classroom scene with the children sitting at desks and the rest of the class in a position where they can watch. Tell one child that they are Tom Gates and it is his first day at a new school. Explain that on the cards you are holding (see resources) are a collection of random scenarios that the group have to react to in character. They won't have too much time to think, but should use what they know from their reading in the previous lesson to make the scenes as similar as possible to the books.</p> <p>One of the audience picks out a card and reads it out and the actors begin. At any time the teacher can freeze the action, take suggestions from the audience, rewind and have the actors try the suggestions. When a few options have been tried, take another card.</p> <p>Paired task: After the drama element, children go away and start writing their own scenarios for things</p>	If time, role-play some of the new scenarios they have written in small groups.
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				that might happen. Some ideas might come from embarrassing moments the children have seen or experienced themselves.	
14	To plan and write a diary extract in the style of a significant author	Written plan	Use ideas from the extracts read to help me write in the style of the author Include the features of diary writing identified in the previous session	Choose one of the scenarios to develop further into a diary entry, imagining that the events were happening to them on their first day at a new school. Could use http://www.bitstrips.com/ to storyboard an outline of the day before beginning writing.	
	To write a diary extract in the style of a significant author	Written diary extract		Compare their rough draft against the class list of the features of diary writing which they produced the previous day. Ask a partner for feedback. Up level their work taking into consideration the feedback which they have received.	Produce a final copy and display.

Lesson Plan No. 3: Lesson Topic 'Horror Stories' (Year 5)

<p>Text: Extracts from a range of horror stories</p>	<p>Genre: Horror fiction</p>	<p>Text level:</p> <p>Objective 7 (understanding and interpreting texts) Explore how writers use language for comic and dramatic effects Compare how a common theme is presented in prose</p> <p>Objective 9 (creating and shaping texts) Experiment with different narrative form and styles to write their own stories Reflect independently and critically on their own writing and edit and improve it</p>	<p>Sentence level:</p> <p>Objective 11 (sentence structure and punctuation) Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences (Year 6 objective).</p> <p>Adapt sentence construction to different text types and readers (focus on some short sentence to support building tension).</p> <p>To be able to punctuate sentences accurately, including using speech marks.</p>	<p>Word level:</p> <p>Taught through weekly spellings and 1 word level session, outside of the literacy hour):</p> <p>-plurals ending in es -plurals ending in ys or ies</p>
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	Learning Objective	Context / Activity	Success criteria what you need to do to achieve the learning objective	Organisation activity, resources, differentiation in brief	Plenary effective questions
1	To identify features of horror genre	Victorian Horror Stories	Can find words that create atmosphere? Can find words that build tension? Can identify the impact of short sentences?	<p>Introduce the unit: Horror Stories. Brainstorm what they do they think of when they hear the genre – Horror Stories?</p> <p>Display extracts from a range of horror stories on IWB. Ask children to read aloud. Using talk partners ask the children to identify vocabulary and techniques which make this fit the horror genre. Take feedback and annotate on IWB.</p> <p>Children to extend this further by reading given extracts and annotating in their books.</p> <p>TA to support LA (give a simplified text) CT to support MA HA working independently</p>	Take feedback from children to create success criteria for what makes an effective horror story.

2	To understand the need for punctuation as an aid to the reader.	Grammar for writing Unit 34.	<p>I can write complex sentences that are punctuated correctly with commas.</p> <p>I can use subordinate clauses to open sentences.</p> <p>I can use subordinate clauses in the middle of a sentence.</p>	<p>Recap what the children can remember about complex sentences and the use of subordinate clauses from Year 4. Reinforce how subordinate clauses can open a sentence or be dropped into the middle of a sentence – display and discuss examples. Point out the main clause and the subordinate clause. Highlight the use of commas to mark grammatical boundaries.</p> <p>Display a list of subordinating conjunctions. (after, although, as if, as long as, before, if, in case) Also display a main clause (we didn't wear our coats). Ask the children to make up subordinate clauses to precede the main clause. E.g. In case it got hot, we didn't wear our coats. Discuss where the comma would be needed.</p> <p>Extend this to looking at how subordinate clauses can break up a main clause and be inserted in the middle of a sentence.</p> <p>Task: Children to be provided with main clauses, subordinate clauses and conjunctions. They must use this to create their own sentences. Children to then extend sentences by inserting a subordinate clause into the middle of a clause.</p>	<p>Children to share their work with their partner – they are looking to see if commas have been inserted in the relevant places.</p> <p>Review where commas are needed as a whole class.</p>
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3	To understand the need for punctuation as an aid to the reader.	Writing sentences based around horror characters	<p>I can write complex sentences that are punctuated correctly with commas.</p> <p>I can use subordinate clauses to open sentences.</p> <p>I can use subordinate clauses in the middle of a sentence.</p>	<p>Brainstorm words that can be used to describe horror characters.</p> <p>Display an effective character description from a horror story. Take feedback on why it is a good sentence. Link back to previous session on the use of a subordinate clause.</p> <p>Display a simple sentence describing a horror character. Model how to improve the sentence by adding a subordinate clause. If possible, model two or three different ways.</p> <p>Children to use their talk partners and improve a different sentence by adding a subordinate clause.</p> <p>In pairs, children will be given a strip with a simple sentence written on it (theme of horror characters). Children are to decide where to cut the strip and then add in a subordinate clause on a different color strip. (2 or 3 maximum)</p>	Children share their starting sentence and how they improved it.
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4/5	To write a setting description	Victorian Horror Stories	<p>Pick out 'horror' words from setting description.</p> <p>Use a thesaurus.</p> <p>Use visualisation to enhance my writing.</p> <p>Develop a drawing to help my setting ideas</p> <p>Use horror adjectives and verbs</p>	<p>Discuss with the children why the setting description is so important in horror stories and what sort of settings would be (in) appropriate (link back to first lesson).</p> <p>Look at setting descriptions from different horror stories. Discuss the sort of language used – could you change/improve it – begin a setting word bank together and model writing setting ideas. Whilst modelling, ensure the inclusion of subordinate clauses.</p> <p>Children to write a setting description for a horror story.</p> <p>TA to support LA CT to support MA HA working independently</p>	<p>Ask children to read out setting descriptions. Pupils to comment on how successful it is in fitting the horror genre (2 stars and a wish).</p>
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6	To be able to plan a story that fits the horror genre.	Horror stories	Plan for 4 sections. Use 'horror' language.	<p>Explain to the children that they are going to be using the ideas they have started to develop about character and setting to plan a horror story – on the board model how to plan a story – story will be first person.</p> <p>Children plan their stories LA with CT using planning guide MA with TA using planning guide HA independently using planning guide</p>	Share plan with partner – partner to suggest improvements to plot and children to add further notes to their plan in a different colour.
7	To be able to write the opening of a story	Horror stories	<p>Ensure that suspense is created.</p> <p>Describe the character using a subordinate clause.</p> <p>Use at least 3 good adjectives.</p> <p>1st person</p>	<p>Remind the children of the work done last week on horror stories and the sort of language that is important in the stories. Model on the board the beginning of a horror story – set the scene for where the main event is taking place and why they are there; introduce the main character.</p> <p>Children write the introduction to their stories LA with TA and word bank MA with CT assisting HA independently writing introduction</p>	Get some of the children to read out their introductions and the rest of the class evaluate against the success criteria

8 and 9	To be able to write the build up to a story	Horror stories	<p>1st person</p> <p>Ensure that suspense is created.</p> <p>Include complex sentences.</p> <p>Make powerful word choices.</p>	<p>Talk to the children about the build-up of a story – what sort of language should be used? What is being built up? Get the children to talk about and describe a tense situation from a story (can be made up). Model how to write a build-up and hi-light the need for a continuation from yesterday’s work.</p> <p>Children write their own build up. LA with TA for support MA working independently HA with T developing ideas of tension</p> <p>The children will have 2 sessions to complete the build-up, enabling them time to include sufficient detail. Modelling will take place at the start of each session – splitting the build-up into 2 parts.</p>	<p>Children to share their work with a partner after session 2. Does it link with the intro? Is there enough description, powerful vocab, is the story moving forward? Children to consider this when they continue with the build-up in session 3.</p> <p>At the end of session 3 the children should talk with a different partner about how the story should develop next, referring back to their story plan.</p>
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10 and 11	To be able to write the main event of a story	Horror stories	<p>1st person</p> <p>Ensure that suspense is created.</p> <p>Include complex sentences.</p> <p>Make powerful word choices.</p>	<p>Talk to the children about possible main thinking back to their story plan. Evaluate an example together on the flipchart. Model writing a main event using one of the children's ideas.</p> <p>Children write their own main event LA with CT for support MA with TA supporting them with use of complex sentences and a more advanced writing style. HA working independently</p> <p>The children will have 2 sessions to complete the main event, enabling them time to include sufficient detail. Modelling will take place at the start of each session focusing on the use of dramatic detail. If children complete the main event within session 4, session 5 can be used for editing and improving this section.</p> <p>This piece of work will form one of the 5 pieces for assessment – Children to be given 30 minutes to work independently for APP at the beginning of their Main Event section. Ensure this section is clearly marked in books.</p>	<p>After session 4: Get some of the children to read out their main events and the rest of the class evaluate against the success criteria. What can they now do to improve this section of writing?</p>
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12	To be able to write the ending of a story	Horror stories	<p>1st person</p> <p>Ensure that suspense is created.</p> <p>Include complex sentences.</p> <p>Make powerful word choices.</p>	<p>Talk to the children about the events that happened in their story and how they could end their stories in a way that the ending won't feel rushed. Explain that they will need to 'tie up all the ends' in a way similar to the stories we read last week. Model writing the beginning of an ending for story on the board.</p> <p>LA with TA for support with moving story forward MA with T assisting and developing ideas HA working independently</p>	<p>Children to share their ending with a partner. Does it tie up the loose ends? Have they managed to end on an exciting ending that keeps the reader thinking?</p>
13	To be able to edit and improve my work	Horror stories	<p>1st person</p> <p>Ensure that suspense is created.</p> <p>Include complex sentences.</p> <p>Make powerful word choices.</p>	<p>Explain to the children that a big part of being a good writer is being a good editor and identifying ways to improve their work. Talk about why this is difficult but ways that can make it easier. Talk about why it is often difficult to see improvements in your own work. Discuss 'constructive criticism' and the sorts of things there might be to improve. The children need to read a section of their story aloud to a partner and identify any changes they need to make on the way then their partner need to read the story through and make any changes using a coloured pencil. The children need to discuss the changes with their partner. TA to support LA partnerships.</p> <p>(Use success criteria stickers)</p>	<p>Get some of the partners to explain to the rest of the class the changes they made and why they felt it was necessary to make these changes – do the rest of the class agree?</p>

Lesson Plan No. 4: Lesson Topic 'Biography and Autobiography' (Year 6)

Text:	Genre:	Text level:	Sentence level:	Word level:
<p>Found biographies & autobiographies of famous modern Olympians</p> <p>CT/TA written autobiographies</p>	<p>Non-fiction unit1: Biography & Autobiography</p>	<p>Objective 2 (Listening and responding) Make notes when listening for a sustained period and discuss how note-taking varies depending on context and purpose.</p> <p>Listen for and recall the main points of a talk, reading or TV programme, reflecting on what has been heard to ask searching questions, make comments or challenge the views expressed.</p> <p>Objective 9 (Creating and shaping texts) Independently write and present a text with the reader and purpose in mind.</p> <p>In non-narrative, establish, balance and maintain viewpoints.</p> <p>Reflect independently and critically on their own writing and edit and improve it.</p>	<p>Objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation) Extend their use and control of complex sentences by deploying subordinate clauses effectively.</p> <p>Adapt sentence construction to different text-types, purposes and readers.</p> <p>Punctuate sentences accurately, including using speech marks and apostrophes.</p> <p>Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences.</p> <p>Use standard English confidently and consistently in formal writing, with awareness of the differences</p>	<p>Objective 6 (Word structure and spelling) Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen.</p>

		<p>Select words and language drawing on their knowledge of literary features and formal and informal writing.</p> <p>Organise ideas into a coherent sequence of paragraphs.</p> <p>Use varied structures to shape and organise text coherently.</p> <p>Experiment with the order of sections and paragraphs to achieve different effects.</p> <p>Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis.</p> <p>Change the order of material within a paragraph, moving the topic sentence.</p>	<p>between spoken and written language structures.</p>	
<p>Not-so-famous Britons</p>	<p><i>Emily Pankhurst, William Adams, Walter Tull, Mary Anning, William Tyndale, Luol Deng, Thomas Andrews, John Peel, Don McCullin Alan Turing, Tim Berners-Lee. Charles Rennie McIntosh</i></p>			

	Learning Objective	Context / Activity	Success criteria	Organisation
1	To identify the key features of biographies and autobiographies .	Text analysis	<p><i>Biography:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engage your reader • Formal language • Past tense • Chronological order • Third person • Openers <p><i>Autobiography:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engage your reader • More informal/chatty • First person • Emotive (feelings and values)/personal • Inclusion of senses • Openers • Paragraphing 	<p>activity, resources, differentiation in brief</p> <p>Begin the lesson by providing groups of children with a selection of texts.</p> <p>Task 1: Using the texts as clues, children skim read for evidence of language to indicate they are either biographies or autobiographies. Take feedback regarding how each group has sorted the texts. <i>What do you already know about these two text types? What language features tell us that they are one or the other?</i> Compile a class list of the key features of both types of text.</p> <p>Task 2: In groups – <i>can you match the name to the correct picture?</i> Children match famous Britons’ pictures to names – deliberately chosen as less well known people but equally historically important. Share answers. <i>Emily Pankhurst, William Adams, Walter Tull, Mary Anning, William Tyndale, Luol Deng, Thomas Andrews, John Peel, Don McCullin Alan Turing, Pete Best, Tim Berners-Lee. Charles Rennie McIntosh</i></p> <p>Task 3: <i>Now find out who they are!</i></p> <p>a) ICT Focus: Using Advanced Search on Google for language and reading level. Draw attention again to ‘dangers’ of using only one source.</p>

				<p>b) Children have 15 minutes to choose one character, and research, and put together a short and simple infographic using Popplet/Skitch/Flowboard – <i>the purpose is to RECORD not DESIGN!</i></p>	
2	To apply the features of biographical writing.	Becoming a biographer!	Can I change develop a series of facts into a biography, using the expected structural features of biographical writing?	<p>Recap the features of auto/biographies that were collected in the previous session. Task: Children use their infographic to write a biography for chosen figure <i>Writing a biography will be modelled on a needs basis.</i></p> <p>Plenary: Peer assessment - children to share their piece of writing with a partner. Using the SC; have they successfully used them for biographical writing?</p>	
3	To consolidate understanding of sentences by using conjunctions.	Developing sentence level language from visual prompts.	Can I use a range of conjunctions to develop a sentence?	<p>Sentence level focus for the lesson – using conjunctions to develop and extend sentences. Use the PPT to deliver prompts – children to write as many possible endings to the visual/sentence prompt. Repeat the activity with more visual prompts. <i>What kind of words have you used? Elicit 'conjunctions'. Look at a range of conjunctions as a whole class. Are they used in different ways? Can some only be used in certain sentences?</i></p> <p>Task: In books children use the picture collage to generate a range of interesting standalone sentences using conjunctions accurately.</p>	Children to share their sentences with their peers.

4	To plan and conduct an interview.	Plan and carry out an interview in preparation for writing a biography	<p>Can I design questions which enable me to gather sufficient <i>interesting</i> information to form a biography?</p> <p>Can I make notes when listening for a sustained period?</p>	<p>Through shared reading look at a 'dull' autobiography written by their CT & TA. <i>What did you think of the information included? Were they the kind of facts you would have included had you written it yourself?</i></p> <p>Inform the children that they are going to be writing a biography on either their TA or CT. Explain the challenge: <i>while you can use the information given already, for your interview you cannot ask any questions which have already been answered in the autobiographies you just read. You must think of different and interesting questions!</i></p> <p>Take ideas as to what kind of questions these might be and model one or two examples, e.g. most terrifying experience, happiest moment, most amazing sightseeing experience, weirdest habit (within reason!) etc.</p> <p><i>*Children can choose which adult they wish to interview</i></p> <p>Task: Children to work in one group for each adult interview and design a list of questions which they will then divide up and ask their CT/TA during the interview (record in literacy books)..</p> <p><i>Interview conducted as 'press conference', i.e. questions and time are limited – listening skills are vital – children will use iPads as video recorder, then make notes from watching back independently before writing</i></p>
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5&6	To write an engaging biography which includes the relevant features.	Biography based on TAs and CTs.	Can I write an interesting and engaging biography including all the key features?	<p>Using the information that was collected yesterday, tell the children that they are going to write a biography on their class teacher/teaching assistant. Revisit the success criteria and continually refer back to this when look at a model text on the IWB.</p> <p><i>Biography</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engages the reader • Chronological order • Formal language • Past tense • Third person • Openers • Appropriate paragraphing <p>Working from their own notes, children write the biography for their chosen adult (TA or CT).</p>
7	To plan my autobiography	Autobiography	Can I plan an autobiography deciding what will go in each paragraph?	<p>Revisit the features of (compared with previous 'dull' example) an 'exciting' autobiography written by a CT through displaying an example on the IWB and unpicking as a class. Use the example to draw out how the autobiography has been structured and the main themes the children would cover in their own autobiography.</p> <p>Task: Children to complete a plan for their autobiography <i>using the photocopy of informal Stranmillis letter written for HL as skeleton</i>; focus on structure and ideas for content, particularly details and stories that will capture reader's attention as unique. <i>(No final plenary but mini plenaries throughout lesson)</i></p>

8&9	<p>To write a successful autobiography which includes the relevant features.</p> <p>To edit and improve own autobiography.</p>	Autobiography	<p>Can I write an autobiography including all the key features?</p> <p><i>Autobiography:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engage your reader • Informal/chatty • First person • Emotive / personal • Inclusion of senses • Openers • Paragraphing • Inclusion of senses 	<p>Looking at their own plans, ask children to generate how they will begin their own autobiography and share their opening sentences as a whole class.</p> <p>Task 1: Working with close attention to their planning, children write their own autobiographies (one long lesson will be provided for this purpose).</p> <p>Task 2: Based on teacher feedback children up-level their writing and type for presentation in the following lesson.</p>	Have children share some examples of writing they are proud of with the whole class.
10	To share work with peers and experience a range of writing.	Autobiography	Which pieces of writing did I most enjoy? Can I explain what made the writing so successful and enjoyable?	Children leave their final piece of writing on the tables and open all classrooms. Children can free flow through the three rooms and enjoy a range of autobiographies written by their peers. Mini-plenaries will allow children to share examples of why they enjoyed others' writing in the classroom they are in at the time.	

Lesson Plan No. 5: Lesson Topic 'Balanced Arguments' (Year 6)

<p>Text: <i>n/a</i></p>	<p>Genre: Non-fiction Unit 3: <i>Argument</i></p>	<p>Text level:</p> <p>Objective 6 (Word structure and spelling) Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen.</p> <p>Objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts) Recognise rhetorical devices used to argue, persuade, mislead and sway the reader.</p> <p>Objective 8 (Engaging with and responding to texts) Compare how writers from different times and places present experiences and use language.</p> <p>Objective 9 (Creating and shaping texts) In non-narrative, establish, balance and maintain viewpoints.</p> <p>Objective 10 (Text structure and organisation) Use varied structures to shape and organise text coherently. Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis.</p>	<p>Sentence level:</p> <p>Objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation) Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways.</p> <p>Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences.</p>	<p>Word level:</p> <p>Objective 6 (Word structure and spelling) Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen.</p>
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	Learning Objective	Context / Activity	Success criteria	Organisation	Plenary
1	To understand the structure and features of a balanced argument	Video text analysis	<p>Can I identify the structure of a balanced argument?</p> <p>Can I identify the key features of a balanced argument?</p> <p>-pros/cons -evidence - contrasting connectives</p>	<p>Introduce the topic by asking if anyone knows what a 'mosquito alarm' is. Listen to an alarm: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uKI_sTh0oHE (audible) and reveal its use.</p> <p>Try this sound: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NzPqW1Ohl00 (silent)</p> <p>Then discuss and take ideas from the class – reveal its use and share the positive and negatives of a device like this. <i>What have we just been doing through this discussion so far?</i> (Debating, arguing, giving both sides etc.) Elicit the writing genre of this unit.</p> <p>Task: Watch the video of children debating the issue on BBC's <i>Newsnight</i>. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VtiiKICKDFk</p> <p>Discuss as a class.</p> <p>Watch again and identify the 'for' and against' arguments, making notes on whiteboards of each. Include brief explanations where appropriate of what evidence what was used to support the argument.</p>	<p>Discuss the strength and weaknesses of the arguments you heard – <i>what made them weak/strong?</i></p> <p><i>Were any of them the same ideas which you had?</i></p> <p><i>Do you have any additional ideas to add?</i></p>

2	<p>To develop both sides of an argument</p> <p>To be able to play 'Devil's Advocate'</p>	'Football Pitch' Pt.1	<p>As a whole class, set-up the 'football pitch' debate: one side of the pitch is 100% in favour, the other 100% against.</p> <p><i>How did women's roles change during WWII?</i> – Children who researched the topic can share some ideas. <i>Why did more women not fight?</i> "In my opinion, men make better soldiers"</p> <p>Children place a name/face marker on the pitch which represents which side of the argument they stand on, and how firmly. In turn, children then have to justify their position, and other children argue back – the goal is to try and convince others to move their marker closer to that of the person making the argument.</p> <p><i>Recap briefly on connectives which could be used verbally in debating before beginning – each child has a phrase card which they must use when making their point. Rotate cards periodically.</i></p>
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3	<p>To understand the structure and features of a balanced written argument</p> <p>To identify what makes a strong argument</p>	Written Text Analysis	<p>Can I identify features of written arguments?</p> <p>Can I appraise the quality of an argument?</p>	<p>Read through an example of a balanced argument together and begin analysis by asking: <i>How do you think this is different to persuasive?</i> (Argument = both points of view), asking children to consider what the purpose of each paragraph is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Introduction to state what is being discussed</i> - <i>Paragraph with arguments for (supported by evidence)</i> - <i>Paragraph with arguments against (supported by evidence)</i> - <i>Conclusion, summarising the evidence</i> <p><i>Additional questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>What tense is it in?</i> - <i>What person is it in?</i> - <i>What do you notice about the vocabulary?</i> - <i>How are the arguments linked?</i> - <i>What is a rhetorical question?</i> <p>Task: In mixed ability groups, ask the children to read different argument texts and highlight the key features. Come back together and discuss ideas as a class: <i>Can you give examples of the features?</i> <i>Can you identify and justify which arguments you think are strong/weak?</i> <i>Why?</i></p>
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4	To plan and resource a balanced argument	'Treasoning'- to create a class list of 'pros' and 'cons'	<p>Can I see both sides of an argument?</p> <p>Can I build a balanced argument?</p> <p>Can I use evidence to support my arguments ?</p>	<p>Pose the question: <i>Do you agree that iPads are a great tool for learning?</i> It is likely that most children will agree.</p> <p>Using the 'Treasoning' activity as a whole class, begin to discuss the positives of devices (which the children will inevitably focus on). As the discussion continues, challenge some of the children to generate a 'negative' outcome of devices – <i>are there any possible negative results or side effects of iPads in class?</i></p> <p>Then introduce children to the topic that they will be writing about: <i>iPads have both positive and negative impacts on learning.</i></p> <p>Continue the discussion and as a whole class generate a CLASS LIST of the same number of 'positive' outcomes as negative. Focus on the need to be able to see both sides of the argument, even though you might already have your own opinions very clearly formed. Among these might include:</p> <p>Task: From the shared class list children can now choose the reasons which they will use in their balanced arguments, and begin using their research skills and knowledge to make notes of evidence which they can use to justify their points.</p> <p><i>HA may have additional arguments they want to use</i></p> <p><i>Prepare a small statistics fact sheet for children to draw on regarding use of devices/health impacts etc.?</i></p>
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5&6	To plan and write a balanced argument	Drafting a written argument based on the statement: <i>iPads have both positive and negative impacts on learning.</i>	Can I write a balanced argument which incorporates the features of the genre?	<p>Quickly recap previous work on the features of balanced arguments.</p> <p>Working from their plan (including evidence) children compose their balanced arguments.</p> <p>Plenary: Children can share their writing. <i>Have they included the features?</i> <i>Have any included a rhetorical question?</i></p>
7	To apply acquired learning about balanced arguments	Debate!	Can I apply what I have learned about balanced arguments?	<p>Elicit the key features of a debate – motion, for, against, speakers taking turns, rebuttal etc.</p> <p>Put the children into small debate teams and give them a statement, e.g. Mobile devices destroy children’s imaginations</p> <p>Task: In teams children must come up with arguments either ‘for’ or ‘against’ the proposition with reasons to support. <i>*Remember that it is vital to try and think of what the other team will use against you!</i></p> <p>One child will chair the debate with two speakers for and two against – <i>this can be differentiated to allow the HA speakers to be the main speakers and the LA to give the secondary arguments - and other children will vote at the end as to whether the motion was carried or not. The whole debate can be a maximum of 8-9 minutes.</i></p> <p>Repeat with another motion so that all children have at least one opportunity to debate a motion.</p>

Lesson Plan No. 6: Lesson Topic 'Crime Mystery' (Year 6)

<p>Text: <i>The Westing Game</i> <i>Ellen Raskin</i></p> <p>Video text: <i>Poirot</i> <i>Agatha Christie</i></p> <p><i>Get a Clue</i></p>	<p>Genre: Narrative Unit 1: <i>Crime Mystery Fiction Genres</i></p>	<p>Text level:</p> <p>Objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts) Understand underlying themes, causes and points of view.</p> <p>Understand how writers use different structures to create coherence and impact.</p> <p>Objective 9 (Creating and shaping texts) Use different narrative techniques to engage and entertain the reader.</p> <p>Select words and language drawing on their knowledge of literacy features and formal and informal writing.</p> <p>Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis.</p>	<p>Sentence level:</p> <p>Objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation) Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways.</p> <p>Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences.</p> <p>Use speech marks correctly.</p>	<p>Word level:</p> <p>Objective 6 (Word structure and spelling) Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen.</p>
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	Learning Objective	Context / Activity	Success criteria	Organisation activity, resources, differentiation in brief	Plenary
Murder Mystery Week	To read a murder mystery story to identify the key features	Analysing a murder mystery story using "The Westing Game" by Ellen Raskin	Can I break down a mystery story into its different elements and draw out the success criteria?	<p>Read 'The Westing Game' with the class. One possible idea is to allocate a character from the book to every pupil in the class. This will help the children to stay focused and keep track of the sixteen heirs.</p> <p>Create an <i>incident board</i> in the classroom- as new facts/clues are revealed, add them to the board. (e.g. purple wave, limper, chess board, the will, missing shorthand notes etc. in addition to the actual Westing clues)</p> <p>Explain that when reading a whodunit murder mystery, the reader must be active, not passive. They need to formulate an opinion as to who committed the murder. Write down the name of the most likely suspect and post it in a secret box.</p> <p>Summary of each chapter: http://www.shmoop.com/westing-game/summary.html</p> <p>Character Description: http://www.shmoop.com/westing-game/characters.html</p>	Watch "Get a Clue". Through discussion, compare and contrast the book to the film. Which version do they prefer and why?

1	To identify the main features of a detective mystery	<p>Analysing a detective-driven crime mystery using a fictional narrative in video format – Agatha Christie’s Poirot</p> <p>Dead Man’s Mirror (Season 5 Episode 7)</p>	Have I identified the main plot and stylistic devices employed in a detective-driven crime mystery?	<p>Using an episode of Agatha Christie’s Poirot, children watch and identify the key plot and stylistic features of a detective-driven mystery story.</p> <p>Dead Man’s Mirror (Season 5 Episode 7) http://bit.ly/16Y7VPr The above link can be shared with the class and watched on individual iPads with headphones.</p> <p>Share the magnifying glasses sheet on the IWB and discuss the different elements that make up a successful mystery story:</p> <p>The Crime Scene The Victim The Suspects Suspects’ Motives Evidence and Clues</p> <p>As they watch the film, get the children to make notes on the magnifying sheet.</p>	<p>Share the outcome as a class.</p> <p>Are the children clear about the different elements that make up an effective mystery story?</p> <p>Explain that a red herring is something that draws attention away from the main subject; a misleading clue e.g. Ruth’s footprints in the flowerbed was a red herring Smashed mirror was a red herring</p>
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2	To plan a mystery story including the features of this genre	Editing and finalising planning for a mystery story	Can I plan an effective mystery story?	<p>Explain that in this lesson, children will be finalising their planning for their own mystery story. CT can share a couple of effective story plans with the class.</p> <p>Using their home learning task, edit and refine their mystery story planning:</p> <p>What is the mystery? Where is the story set? Who is your main character? Who are the suspects? Why are they suspects (what are the clues)? NEW Why did the perpetrator commit the crime (motive)? How is the mystery solved?</p> <p>Extension: They can develop this by creating a Popplet showing how the characters are linked.</p>	<p>Ask the children to explain the relationships between the characters to their talk partners.</p> <p>Does the story have a conclusive ending?</p>
3	To write an engaging opening to a mystery story	Writing the opening to their mystery story	Can I write an engaging opening for a mystery story?	<p>Start your mystery story from the crime scene: Looking at their own plans, ask children to generate how they will begin their own stories and share some effective examples.</p> <p>Explain that there will be a limit on the number of words so they will need to write concisely. Task: CT and TA to spend short bursts of time with targeted individuals to support and challenge them in relation to their individual targets.</p>	Share effective openings with the class.

4-6	To write an effective mystery story	Write own mystery story	<p>Can I apply the features of an effective mystery story when writing my own story?</p> <p>Can I combine dialogue, action and description to move a story on?</p> <p>Can I paragraph and punctuate flexibly and confidently?</p> <p>Can I apply a concise writing style?</p> <p>Can I identify and apply the features of an effective ending to bring a murder mystery story</p>	<p>At the start of each lesson, individual class teachers will decide on a focus to support the children with moving forward with their writing. This might include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sharing examples of high quality children’s writing from the previous session • Recapping complex sentences, openers • Revisiting how to use a mixture of speech and description <p>Explain that they will need to have the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Character and crime scene description • Clues to keep the reader guessing • Clearly explained motives • Suspense • Clear ending <p>Task: CT and TA to spend short bursts of time with targeted individuals to support and challenge them in relation to their individual targets.</p>	<p>At the end of each session, children to share a short extract with a partner.</p> <p>Give peer feedback: What is working well Area for development</p>
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			to a conclusive ending?		
7	To edit and improve own mystery story	Editing/ up-levelling lesson	<p>Can I edit and improve my writing?</p> <p>Can I use sentence and paragraph markers to help my writing to flow?</p> <p>Can I punctuate simple and complex sentences accurately?</p> <p>Can I use speech punctuation accurately?</p>	<p>Ask children to up-level their stories. Some may need reminding on how to use the tools on Google Docs to edit their work efficiently.</p> <p>Focus on some of these aspects:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Paragraphs • Punctuation • Sentence structures • Vocabulary • Connectives • Openers • Spellings <p>Task: CT and TA to spend short bursts of time with targeted individuals to support and challenge them in relation to their individual targets.</p>	<p>Story swap:</p> <p>Give pupils an opportunity to read and comment on each other's stories.</p>

Lesson Plan No. 7: Lesson Topic 'Flashbacks WW2' (Year 6)

<p>Text: A variety of extracts from Michael Morpurgo and other authors</p>	<p>Genre: Narrative writing skills: <i>Flashbacks</i> (<i>Cross curricular link to WWII</i>)</p>	<p>Text level:</p> <p>Objective 2 (Listening and responding) Identify the ways spoken language varies according to differences in the context and purpose of its use.</p> <p>Objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts) Understand how writers use different structures to create coherence and impact</p> <p>Objective 9 (Creating and shaping texts) Use varied structures to shape and organise texts coherently.</p> <p>Use paragraphs to achieve pace and emphasis.</p> <p>Objective 10 (Text structure and organization) Use varied structures to shape and organise texts coherently.</p>	<p>Sentence level:</p> <p>Objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation) Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways.</p> <p>Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences.</p>	<p>Word level:</p> <p>Objective 6 (Word structure and spelling) Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen.</p>
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	Learning Objective	Context / Activity	Success criteria	Organisation activity, resources, differentiation in brief	Plenary effective questions
1	To explore the impact of flashbacks	Text analysis Shared on Google Drive	Can I identify flashbacks within text? Can I explain why a flashback has been included? Can I recognise clues which suggest a flashback is about to happen?	Share fiction extracts containing flashbacks. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is happening in these texts? Discuss. • Why is a flashback effective? • Why do authors use them? • What clues are given to suggest that a flashback is coming? Can you name other examples from books and films? Re-read to highlight triggers, use of tense, person, use of emotion and description. Highlight powerful sentences, good use of language, range of sentence structures, etc. Discuss the importance of descriptive detail to help transport the reader back to this time with you.	

2	To use adjectives, similes and metaphors to describe the setting and character's emotions and actions	Create a word bank using class Padlet Film analysis: The Chronicles of Narnia: The Lion, the Witch and the Wardrobe (WW2 link)	Can I use my empathy skills? (emotions) Can I use powerful vocabulary to describe the setting?	Provide the children with a scenario. You are: living in the city, next day suddenly evacuated to the countryside with siblings, 2 hours to pack, staying in a big house with a stranger in an unfamiliar setting Recorded on class Padlet: Brainstorm similes, metaphors and adjectives to: -describe scene at the station as they leave -describe when they arrive at the house (scene) -describe feelings throughout experience -describe what the stranger is like Watch film extract below - add to Padlet in a different colour LW&W clip: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=b9Bah4c6azY (0'45" – 11'00" or 12'50")
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3	To use a flashback to engage and entertain the reader	Use the picture prompts to write a flashback	Can I use the present tense correctly?	<p>Task1: Practise using the present tense. Provide stimulus cards (see IWB - lesson 3). Select a picture and explain a sentence related to the picture in present tense, in which the flashback part will be written.</p> <p>E.g. Top of Mt. Everest: I'm standing on the roof of the world; all around is sky. I see nothing but blue and white.</p> <p>Ask one HA child to invent a sentence on the spot from picture prompt – <i>can chn to try and improve the original sentence?</i> - pair work Repeat</p> <p>Task 2: Character experiencing the evacuation Write a flashback capturing this moment in Lucy's life using the present tense.</p>
4	To use a flashback to engage and entertain the reader	Continue and complete the present tense section of their flashback	Can I write descriptively and with imaginative detail to entertain the reader?	<p>Continue to write At the end of lesson 4, allow the children to share their flashback with a partner. What feedback can they give? Can they make any changes in light of the feedback they have been given? What makes it successful? What could be improved?</p>

5	To edit and improve own flashback	Up levelling task	Can I paragraph and punctuate confidently?	<p>Time to up level their flashback so far against specific feedback. Individual class teachers will decide on a focus to support the children with moving forward with their writing.</p> <p>This might include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sharing examples of high quality children’s writing - Recapping complex sentences, openers - Revisiting how to use a mixture of speech and description - Using punctuation correctly - Writing in coherent paragraphs
6	To plan realistic triggers to introduce/ conclude the flashback	Planning triggers	<p>Can I plan a realistic trigger?</p> <p>Can I build a backstory?</p>	<p>Children to create a back story (verbally) which they will each share about where their character has ended up.</p> <p>Pose the question: What happened to your character after the war? What is she actually doing now when she has the flashback? Discuss what happens when we experience memories from the past in our own lives? How are they caused? Discuss the word “trigger”. (e.g. Using objects or senses to trigger a memory of a past scene) So what is the trigger? What will bring her out of the flashback?</p>
7	To write and engaging opening and ending to a story	Writing the opening and ending (both triggers)	What is the trigger that brings the character back to the present?	<p>Children write opening and ending (both triggers)</p> <p>The children will be reminded to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Include a realistic trigger for the flashback - Include a trigger to bring themselves out of their flashback and conclude their piece of writing <p>HA – Use multiple flashbacks, weaving them in effectively (switching from present day to past throughout the story).</p>

∞	To edit and improve own story	Editing/up levelling lesson	Can I edit and improve my writing?	<p>Up levelling against feedback and extending HA to use multiple flashbacks Ask children to up level their stories. Focus on some of these aspects:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Paragraphs - Punctuation - sentence structures - Vocabulary - Connectives - Openers - Spellings <p>End production: descriptive flashback with emotion</p>
Standalone lesson				

	<p>To understand how apostrophes are used to show possession</p>	<p>Sentence level focus on apostrophes Context: Hana's Suitcase</p>	<p>Can I insert apostrophes in the correct places to show possession?</p>	<p>Recap rules for using apostrophes to mark possession (see IWB flipchart) Clarify the common misconception, often known as the grocers' or greengrocers' apostrophe. E.g. signs such as Banana's 10p each or Apple's 80p/lb. If children are confident, move straight on to the task at this point. If children are still unsure, play the penalty shootout game (flash so need to be played on IWB). http://tinyurl.com/bstapos</p> <p>Task: Hana's Suitcase Copy out the extract adding in the correct punctuation marks (2 levels) LA/MA- Concentrate on adding apostrophes to mark possession HA- Insert commas as well as apostrophes</p>
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Lesson Plan No. 8: Lesson Topic 'Formal and Informal' (Year 6)

<p>Text: A selection of formal and informal letters</p>	<p>Genre: Letters – focus is writing formal letters (writing to complain and writing to persuade)</p>	<p>Text level:</p> <p>Objective 2 (Listening and responding) Identify the ways spoken language varies according to differences in the context and purpose of its use.</p> <p>Objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts) Understand how writers use different structures to create coherence and impact.</p> <p>Objective 9 (Creating and shaping texts) Set their own challenges to extend achievement and experience in writing.</p> <p>Select words and language drawing on their knowledge of literary features and formal and informal writing.</p> <p>Integrate words, images and sounds imaginatively for different purposes.</p> <p>Objective 10 (Text structure and organization) Use varied structures to shape and organise texts coherently.</p>	<p>Sentence level:</p> <p>Objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation) Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways.</p> <p>Use punctuation to clarify meaning in complex sentences.</p>	<p>Word level:</p> <p>Objective 6 (Word structure and spelling) Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen.</p>
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1	<p>Learning Objective</p> <p>To use formal spoken language in context.</p>	<p>Context / Activity</p> <p>Role-play → Talking for purpose.</p>	<p>Success criteria</p> <p>Can I vary my spoken language according to context and purpose?</p>	<p>Organisation</p> <p>CT and TA will begin the lesson by acting out two scenarios where an enquiry is being made for a hotel reservation. In one of the scenarios the CT, as the customer, will use formal language. In the other scenario, remaining in the same roles, the CT will use informal language.</p> <p><i>What was the difference between the two role plays?</i> <i>Which was more appropriate? Why?</i> <i>In which situations will you use more formal speech?</i></p> <p>Use discussion work to discuss effective phrases used during the formal language role-play.</p> <p>Task: 'Talking for Purpose'</p> <p>The children will be working with a partner. They will work through a selection of different role-play cards where they will have to adopt an appropriate tone to complete the task.</p> <p>Scenarios:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parent phoning school to explain child's absence due to sickness • Making a restaurant reservation • Booking some theatre tickets • Enquiring about some luggage that has been left on a train • Making an appointment to see the doctor (but there are no time slots available) • Help Desk: Internet Connection failure <p>Use mini-plenaries throughout the lesson to draw out key differences between informal and formal.</p>	<p>Plenary</p> <p>CT to ask pairs who were particularly successful to demonstrate a scenario to the class.</p> <p>Ask the rest of the class to use w.bs to record what each group do particularly well. Feed this back into a whole class discussion.</p>
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2	<p>Key objective: To understand how writers use different structures to create coherence and impact.</p> <p>Specific to genre: To identify differences between formal and informal letter writing.</p>	Text analysis of a variety of letters (both formal and informal)	<p>Can I identify formal writing styles?</p> <p>Can I identify informal writing styles?</p>	<p><i>Short lesson (could be combined with Lesson 1)</i></p> <p>Brainstorm scenarios when you would use formal letters and scenarios when informal letters would be more appropriate. Provide the children with a selection of letters. Read some to them and also leave some for the children to read themselves or in groups.</p> <p>Task: Children to work in mixed ability groups to analyse the pack of letters. They must decide which are formal and which are informal. Also ask them to find evidence to support their decision. Ask different groups in turn to state the decisions they made and give some of the evidence they found.</p>
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4	To know a range of connectives and use appropriately to suit context	<p>Online connective Game</p> <p>Creating a 'spoken' letter from a prompt</p>	Can I use a range of connectives accurately?	<p>Start by putting the class into two teams and playing 'Connective Cauldron' to gauge the abilities to use a range of connectives: http://classroomcopilot.com/main/archives/5459</p> <p>Children race against the clock to create as many sentences as possible in allotted time. Play a second time with a theme, e.g. you are complaining about something/thanking someone/ persuading someone to do something.</p> <p>Look at a selection of connectives as a whole class and elicit the meaning of each category (qualifying, emphasizing etc.). <i>When would you use a qualifying connective?</i></p> <p><i>Are there any set patterns for using connectives in a formal letter?</i></p> <p>Discuss ideas to draw out the idea that <i>there is no set pattern though you might expect 'Adding' connectives to come later in a letter, just as 'Sequencing' connectives will come in a certain order.</i></p> <p>Task:</p> <p>In small groups children draw a scenarios prompt card. Taking turns, each child must choose an appropriate connective from the lists and make a sentence to extend the letter. They must choose the correct connective and the sentence must make sense after the previous</p>	<p>As a whole class pit 4 groups against each other:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Going in a circle each group must add a sentence to the scenario chosen by the teacher. - Groups have 10" to create a sentence before it moves to the next group. - Each correct connective gets the group a 'point'. <p>sentence they have heard. When children have completed the spoken letter they choose a new scenario and start again.</p>
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5	To plan a letter of complaint using formal language and structural features.	Using a flow diagram to organise thoughts and consider how to structure a formal letter.	Can I include the relevant sections and tone when planning a letter of complaint?	<p>On the IWB, share a letter of complaint. Pose the questions: <i>Has a formal or informal style been used? How do you know?</i></p> <p>Through the use of talk partners and whole class discussions, identify key language phrases and structural features used (state the problem-develop/explain the problem in greater detail-state what you want the follow up to be (how you want the problem to be resolved)-sum up the key points from the letter)</p> <p>Inform the children that they are going to be writing a letter of complaint.</p> <p>Look at various visual prompts to provide ideas for writing:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Watch the clip of the world's worst customer service! https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EjVC-bwhhpw&list=PL2CAA15A0F1B4FF05 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K_q4S7lZeik&list=PL2CAA15A0F1B4FF05 http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8FypR17bDbw&list=CL4PbxlztHzQ http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BKaQLYPf5hM&list=CL4PbxlztHzQ 	<p>Use the plenary to reinforce that formal letters cannot use shortened forms of words. Display some contractions and revisit what should be used instead.</p> <p>Reinforce the importance of using formal vocabulary to ensure you come across as precise, accurate, clear and correct.</p> <p>Display 3 or 4 phrases. How could they be made more formal? E.g. <i>I hope you'll deal with this quickly</i> → <i>I trust that this matter will receive your prompt attention.</i></p>
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				The LA may decide to stick exactly with the above and form 4 paragraphs. Encourage the MA and HA to think about further. Paragraph breaks e.g. section 2 may require several paragraphs.	
6 and 7	To write a formal letter of complaint.	Writing complaint letter	<p>Can I write concisely and precisely, making the purpose of my letter clear?</p> <p>Can I use accurate and purposeful vocabulary?</p> <p>Can I adopt an appropriate tone?</p>	<p>Revisit the structure for letter writing that was used in the previous planning session. Discuss, though looking at examples, the importance of a strong opening to state the problem. Use shared writing to model the importance of connectives when providing more precise details about the complaint. Use words such as 'eventually', 'after a further...' and 'finally'.</p> <p>Task: Children to write their letters of complaint LA – supported by TA MA – supported by CT HA – working independently (reminding the children to think carefully about their individual feedback from the planning stage).</p>	<p>Over the two lessons use the plenary for peer assessments. What have the children done successfully? Name an area they could try to develop further.</p> <p>Give the children time to act on the feedback from a peer.</p>

Lesson Plan No. 9: Lesson Topic ‘Journalistic Writing’ (Year 6)

<p>Text: A selection of newspaper articles</p>	<p>Genre: Journalistic Writing (Links to Guided Reading Text ‘The Machine Gunners’)</p>	<p>Text level:</p> <p>Objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts) Appraise a text quickly, deciding on its value, quality or usefulness.</p> <p>Recognise rhetorical devices used to argue, persuade, mislead and sway the reader.</p> <p>Objective 9 (Creating and shaping texts) Select words and language drawing on their knowledge of literary features and formal and informal writing.</p> <p>Integrate words, images and sounds imaginatively for different purposes.</p> <p>Objective 10 (Text structure and organisation) Use varied structures to shape and organise texts coherently.</p>	<p>Sentence level:</p> <p>Objective 11 (Sentence structure and punctuation) Express subtle distinctions of meaning, including hypothesis, speculation and supposition, by constructing sentences in varied ways.</p>	<p>Word level:</p>
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	Learning Objective	Context / Activity	Success criteria	Organisation	Plenary
1	To recall and identify the features of journalistic writing	Text analysis	<p>Can I recall the features of journalistic writing?</p> <p>Can I identify the features within a newspaper article?</p> <p>Can I evaluate a text using my knowledge of the features of journalistic writing?</p>	<p>Pose the question: <i>What would you expect to see in a newspaper article?</i> (This is an opportunity to assess what the children remember from journalistic writing in both Year 4 and Year 5). Children to discuss with talk partner and then feedback as a whole class.</p> <p>Share a newspaper article from during WW2. Discuss content as a class as well as identifying key language and structural features.</p> <p>Possible points to consider:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Use of headlines → Introduction outlining initial information → First section of 'main body' contains the details of the story (going into greater depth than the intro) → Moves on to include background information, extra details and direct speech (possible eye witness account) → Chronological order used → Final paragraph states what point the story has reached at the time of going to print (some stories might be complete, whilst others run for weeks) → Markers used to help the paragraphs flow smoothly (Despite..., It appears that..., It is believed..., According to police...) → Concise style with the maximum amount of information in as few words as possible → Standard English (unless quoting someone) → Use of complex sentences (embedded clauses) <p>Task:</p> <p>Children to have time to read a selection of different newspaper articles. They can make notes on any interesting facts that they discovered ready to feedback to the class as a whole.</p> <p>LA – read text together in a small group with CT or TA (generate discussion like in a guided reading session)</p>	<p>Children to share their findings from reading the newspaper articles.</p> <p>Reinforce the features of this genre of writing.</p>

3	<p>To revisit the difference between reported and direct speech.</p> <p>To use direct and reported speech in journalistic writing.</p>	<p>Identifying the type of speech used in journalistic texts.</p> <p>Writing short pieces of direct and reported speech.</p>	<p>Can I punctuate direct speech accurately?</p> <p>Can I effectively incorporate reported and direct speech into journalistic writing?</p>	<p>Recap the difference between reported and direct speech. Discuss why both types are used in journalistic writing. <i>How can they be used to make the article come alive?</i> (They create interest for the reader, they break up the report, provide an eye-witness account etc.)</p> <p>Mini-task: IWB Sorting Activity Look at each example together and decide whether it is reported or direct speech. Sort into two piles using the table. Discuss how speech has been introduced, structured and punctuated.</p> <p>Inform the children that today they are all going to become journalists. They have been invited by T-Mobile to a top secret event at Heathrow Airport and this is what they see: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NB3NPNM4xgo (PUPIL iPad LINK tiny.cc/tmobiley6)</p> <p>They decide to interview the people to get eye-witness accounts: http://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=endscreen&v=02OW652zNOQ&NR=1 (PUPIL iPad LINK tiny.cc/tmobilewitness)</p> <p>Task: Using the “People’s Reactions” video as a stimulus, write examples of direct and reported speech using correct punctuation. LA: Give children a prompt sheet with quotes from the video clip</p>	<p>Discussion:</p> <p>Which is more effective: direct or reported speech?</p> <p>If one type is more effective why is not only that type of speech used?</p>
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4	To generate interview questions in preparation for role-play.			<p><i>Machine Gunners(HA)</i> Ensure that before this lesson the children have reread the 2 chapters that we will be basing the piece of journalistic writing around: -the scene where Chas first finds the bomber in the woods -the scene where the boys discover the German gunner who's alive</p> <p><i>An Elephant in the Garden(MA)</i> -From an American perspective write how Peter survived and focus on his journey explaining how he got to the American side safely. -From a German perspective, write about the bombing of Dresden on 13th February 1945.</p> <p><i>Hitler's Daughter(LA)</i> Recap the end of the book where Heidi is outside of the bunker and trying to keep herself safe during the main attack of the book. Discuss Heidi making her way to the area of Berlin controlled by America and out of Russian controlled part.</p> <p>Inform the children that they are going to be writing a newspaper article about one of these events. To gather eyewitness statements, they will:</p> <p><i>Machine Gunners:</i> Working in pairs: the pairing takes a scene each and take on the role of Chas (or one of the other boys). Their partner will interview them about their discovery.</p> <p><i>An Elephant in the Garden/ Hitler's Daughter</i> CT or TA will take on the role of the main character whilst the class conduct their interview.</p>
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5	To develop drama techniques to explore, in role, different situations.	Partner interviews - responding to questions in role.	<p>Can I provide responses which link closely to the text?</p> <p>Can I provide responses that show I have inferred meaning from the text?</p> <p>Can I make notes when listening for a sustained period?</p>	<p>Children to carry out interviews with their partner and make notes – including direct quotes so that they have examples of direct speech for their piece of journalistic writing.</p> <p>Encourage the children to think carefully back to the text and the DVD clips so that when taking on a role, they build on what they have read and seen.</p>	Children to share a piece of evidence (direct quote, fact, and feeling) they have gathered for their piece of journalistic writing.
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6	To apply the structural and language features of journalistic writing at the planning stage.	Planning for piece of journalistic writing.		<p>Recall the structure of a piece of journalistic writing and the features that should be included. Children to produce a plan for their piece of writing. They can design their own planning format but encourage them to consider:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Headline - Introduction - Chronological order - Final paragraph which indicates the point the story has reached - Possible examples of direct and reported speech - Possible markers to make links between and within paragraphs 	<p>Children to share plans with a partner.</p> <p>Are they bringing enough depth to their piece of writing?</p> <p>Have they considered both direct and reported speech?</p>
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Lesson Plan No. 10: Lesson Topic ‘Nature Poetry’ (Year 6)

<p>Text: Various Poems</p>	<p>Genre: Poetry : nature-themed</p>	<p>Text level:</p> <p>Objective 2 (Listening and responding) Analyse and evaluate how speakers present points effectively through use of language and gesture.</p> <p>Objective 3 (Group discussion and interaction) Understand and use a variety of ways to criticise constructively and respond to criticism.</p> <p>Objective 7 (Understanding and interpreting texts) Understand underlying themes, causes and points of view. Understand how writers use different structures to create coherence and impact.</p> <p>Objective 8 (Engaging with and responding to texts) Compare how writers from different times and places present experiences and use language.</p> <p>Objective 9 (Creating and shaping texts) Select words and language drawing on their knowledge of literary features.</p> <p>Objective 10 (Text structure and organization) Use varied structures to shape and organise texts coherently.</p>	<p>Word level:</p> <p>Objective 6 (Word structure and spelling) Use a range of appropriate strategies to edit, proofread and correct spelling in their own work, on paper and on screen.</p>
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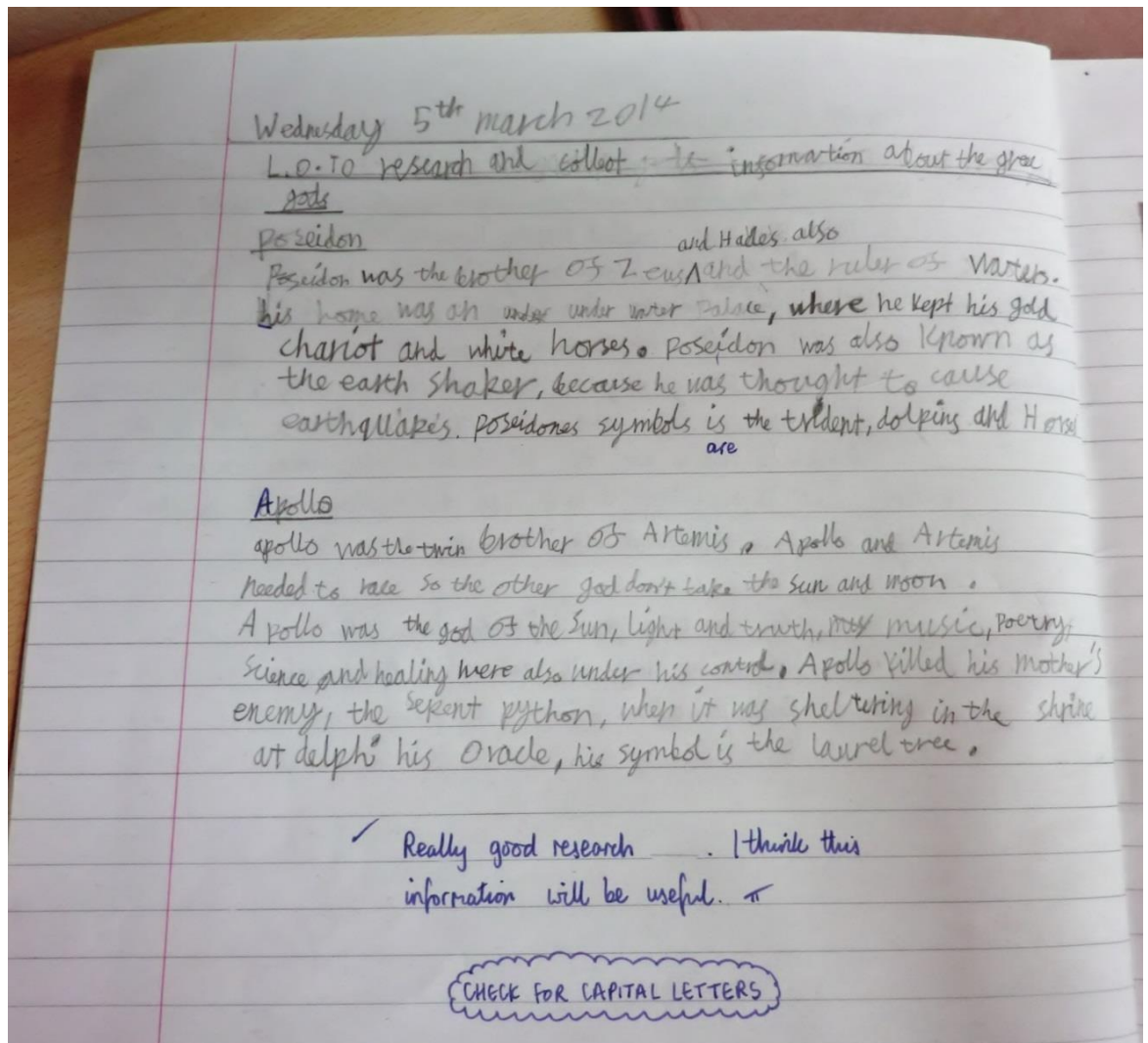
	Learning Objective	Context / Activity	Success criteria	Organisation activity, resources, differentiation in brief	Plenary effective questions
1	<p>To identify different techniques used within poetry and explain their effect</p> <p>To generate poetic phrases</p>	Picture prompt activity	Can I recognise metaphors, similes, alliteration and personification?	<p>Introduce poetry unit and explain that we will be using a range of different techniques that poets use to create a particular effect or image: <i>your objective is to write a poem to describe Mt. Takao</i> (to be written after trip).</p> <p><i>What poetic devices can you think of that you may have used in your own writing or seen in poems?</i> Look at a shared poem and revise the different techniques: <i>personification, simile, metaphor and alliteration</i>, giving examples of each. <i>What is the effect of each of these techniques?</i> Ask them to give their own examples of each, discussing the effect that they have.</p> <p>Using some nature picture prompts, children use the four techniques discussed to generate phrases/sentences to describe the pictures.</p>	<p>Share examples of phrases and sentences through a series of mini-plenaries.</p> <p>Keep sentence strips for future use/display.</p>

4&5	To plan and write a poem, using own choice of poetic devices	Planning and writing poem based on Mt. Takao	<p>Can I generate words and phrases about my theme?</p> <p>Can I write a poem which makes use of poetic devices such as: simile, metaphor, alliteration and personification?</p>	<p>Ask children to plan their own poem based on Mt. Takao. Children will use their photos which they have taken on the trip as a stimulus – <i>these are designed (through accompanying art unit) to be poetic in composition and execution to help stimulate the writing of the poem.</i></p> <p>Remind them of the various poetic devices they have looked at. <i>Your objective is to write a ‘verbal photograph’ of Mt. Takao.</i> The structure of the poem can be decided independently (with support for LA if necessary).</p> <p>Poems can be recorded by using?</p>	Share examples of phrases and sentences through a series of mini-plenaries.
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6	To identify the poetic devices used in a poem and evaluate their success	Evaluating poems written by other members of the class	<p>Can I give constructive feedback to another member of the class?</p> <p>Can I respond positively to the opinions of others?</p>	<p>Discuss how to talk positively about the work of another member of the class. <i>Why do we value the opinions of others? How will this benefit our writing?</i></p> <p>Model giving feedback, sharing what worked well in a particular poem and a suggested area for development. Discuss the importance of giving specific feedback. Give children time to read and comment on the work of another member of the class.</p> <p>They need to write a short review of the poem and use examples from the text to support their opinions. They could also suggest one development point for their partner.</p>	<p>Allow time for individuals to share what was effective in their partner's poem.</p> <p>Celebrate success!</p>
Extension on	Take some audio recordings of the outstanding poems being read by their authors and then combine sound with children's Mt. Takao photography to make a slideshow; this can be shared with parents and children through LBS YouTube channel/Shibuya foyer TV/thinking assembly?				

Appendix 11: Sample of English Exercise Book

Exercise Book No. 2: EAL pupil, Lower Ability (Year 5)



Appendix 12: Examples from Interview Transcripts

Themes	Codes	Examples
Head Teacher's views	Curriculum	"Literacy teaching at LBS [Lionel British School] quite strictly follows the English National Curriculum, so we follow the strategy for literacy, and as you already know, that has the key components of speaking listening reading and writing ... so the emphasis right away through the school are on those key areas" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 5-8)
	Curriculum / Japanese context	"We can wait and see what works and what doesn't work" (Head teacher, interview 1, line 129)
	Curriculum / Aims / Japanese context	"We can pick all the best bits [from England's national curriculum] which was what we have done with the National Curriculum" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 130-131)
	Aims / Japanese context	"One of our main goals of the school is that the children at LBS [Lionel British School] who are going to be moving in the school in the UK can do so smoothly" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 131-132)

	Curriculum / Knowledge	"The National Curriculum is actually underpinned by skills, so the history topic, if you look at the history national curriculum ... it has actually the list of historian skills, so things like understanding bias or being able to use source materials, extracting information, and opinion from source materials, those are the skills underlie, so it doesn't matter with your learning about the Great Fire of London or the Great Fire of Edo [the former name of Tokyo] because those skills you need to impose" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 186-192)
	British school in Japan / Knowledge	"For literacy, there is not too many ways that you can change because the children need to learn to read, and they need to learn to write, you know there's two or three different ways to approach it" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 134-136)
	Knowledge / Resources	"This class, they absolutely love transport, last year's class at this stage had not interested in transport at all, but this year group love it, so she [a class teacher] would choose a text of transport" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 167-170)
	Knowledge / Resources	"This lesson might be about reading skills, influence, so I'm going to choose a book and I'm going to choose the passages in the book..." (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 164-165)
	Curriculum / Knowledge	"It [the National Curriculum] is a target driven so it has to be padded and enhanced with good literature" (Head teacher, interview 1, line 158)
	Aims / Writing	"It's not just literacy skills, it's a working practice so it's a combination of about using literacy to work and learn rather than just learning literacy" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 96-97)
	Aims / Knowledge	"Read for understanding so that they are using that as a tool to open up doors to all different learning" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 65-66)

	Aims / Writing	"That [writing stories] is the traditional image of what schools do with writing. Our children have exposure to all different types of genres ... all different types of writing which help them as they get further up into their adulthood" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 71-74)
	Aims / Knowledge	"To be able to read for meaning and comprehension not just have the mechanics of reading" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 64-65)
	Aims / Writing	"Our children have exposure to all different types of genres" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 71-72)
	Aims	"I think the key point of the literacy curriculum is to develop children who are able to communicate, so that means we are developing children who are able to articulate their ideas and that are able to explain and argue their opinion but also listening to other people ..." (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 58-61)
	Aims / Writing	"If children can't say it they'll find it very difficult to write it ... what we try to develop in the children is the ability to speak and say their sentences before they are actually expected to write it" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 11-13)
	Curriculum	"What we found is that the children do the most reading are the children who write with the strongest writer's voice" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 29-31)
	Aims / Writing / Japanese context	"As soon as the children are ready to start writing, we encourage it, and that happens in the Nursery, so they are already starting ... as they're ready, they are encouraged to write at their own pace..." (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 21-25)
	Curriculum/ Writing	"In order to get the higher level of assessment in the writing curriculum, they have to show their own writer's voice in their own writing style" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 31-33)

	Aims / Writing	"Our children have exposure to all different types of genres so writing poetry, writing reports, journalistic writing, recounts, instructions, all different types of writing which then help them as they get further up into their adulthood" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 71-74)
	Curriculum / Writing / Resources	"The children were learning about the Great Fire of London through the cross curricular links between literacy and history, where the children learned about the Great Fire of London based on Samuel Peep's diary, and then they recounted the event applying journalistic writing style or diary writing style to their own writings" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 176-184)
	Writing / Knowledge	"So reading someone else's writing and giving them advice but also hearing the advice that someone else gives you can be very powerful ... and that's reality even when you get older" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 86-87)
	Writing / Resources	"We have worked a lot this year on how to collaboratively work so they use Google Docs and Google Drive, and Google sites actually to share their work amongst them, now they know if they share it with the teacher and their friend they got their ability to actually comment on their writing as they go along" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 89-93)
Aims in the curriculum	Aims	"[To be] able to use reading strategies independently, for example, skimming and scanning, reading for meaning" (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, lines 81-82)
	Aims	"[To gain] ability to structure a story from scratch without support" (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, line 83)
	Aims / Writing	"General objectives are analysing texts and becoming better writers I think" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 63)

	Aims	“We use the APP (Assessing Pupils’ Progress) kind of levelling documents to base our assessment of the children, so in terms of skills that we want them to be able to have, we follow that” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 198-200)
	Aims / Writing	“I would like all children to reach their expected level of attainment by the end of the year in both reading and writing” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 92-93)
	Aims	“[We are] ensuring the child understands what they have achieved and what their next steps are” (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, lines 154-155)
	Aims	“We need to be thinking of what’s going to be relevant for our kids in the future” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 110-111)
	Aims / Curriculum	“I think giving the skills that the children are actually going to use when they graduate eventually” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 113-115)
	Aims	“[I’d like the children to develop their] critical thinking and problem solving” (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, line 62)
	Aims	“As a broader sense, I think being able to just effectively communicate but also be creative and have the flexibility and being able to adapt to different situations with communication” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 200-202).
	Aims / Knowledge / Writing	“[I’d like the children to write] creatively which can be accessed by the audience through the correct use of grammar, sentence structure and punctuation” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 76-77)
	Aims	“[I’d like develop the children’s] awareness of audience and purpose” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 39)
	Aims	“What we try to promote really is the love of literacy” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, line 7)

	Aims	"[We are] encouraging the children to find a passion for reading" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 36)
	Aims	"I'd like them [the children] to be reading books that they love and enjoy" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 95)
	Writing	"As long as they [the children] are writing, they can sit on the floor, they can sit on the carpet at the back, they can sit on chair ... they should be comfortable because I think if they are not comfortable, it's not very conducive for creativity" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 183-186)
Knowledge in the Curriculum	Aims / Knowledge	"We're trying to make the interest levels high and the engagement high in lessons, and we do that through trying to plan a curriculum that will appeal to the children we have in the school" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 10-12)
	Curriculum	"As teachers we get together and decide ... what would stimulate them" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 240-241)
	Knowledge	"The children in Year 6 loved the balanced arguments unit and I think they would benefit enormously from [it if we have] more time to debate the topics they are passionate about" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 84-86)
	Curriculum	"We'd refer partly to the National Curriculum but I mean mostly to the Literacy Framework" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 93-94)
	Knowledge / Curriculum / Japanese context	"The same types of units are done [in the Lionel British School] as a school in the UK" (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 47-48)

	Knowledge / Curriculum / Japanese context	[The National Curriculum] provides a framework for what to teach and all children in the UK and in British schools around the world are teaching the same” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 54-56)
	Knowledge / Curriculum	“The focus will be a lot more on Britain ... it is important that children learning a British Curriculum do have a bit more knowledge about Britain” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 64-68)
	Knowledge / Curriculum	“There is an emphasis on real life contexts throughout” (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, line 54)
	Knowledge / Curriculum	“[It’s] good that Shakespeare has been introduced early to get the pupils ready for secondary school” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 67-68)
	Knowledge / Curriculum	“There is a brand new focus on things like grammar and punctuation and spelling, and personally I think grammar is quite important, but whether I think it’s an important skill for children I’m not so sure” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 51-53)
	Knowledge / Aims / Writing	“To be aware of grammatical features to apply with increasing accuracy when speaking and writing” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 72-73)
	Knowledge / Writing	“Past and present tense very common mistakes that keep coming up in writings” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 263-264)
	Knowledge / Aims / Curriculum / Writing / Japanese context	“We have lots of EAL children within the school that need more basic, structured lessons, where simple skills are taught, for example, phonics, spelling patterns, tenses” (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, lines 73-75)

	Knowledge / Japanese context	"I think it's important to have something like this document [the National Curriculum] which shows that [genre]. Hopefully we still have a good balance between fiction, non-fiction and poetry" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 118-120)
	Curriculum	"I feel personally it [the National Curriculum] focuses too much on non-fiction particularly in the lower years" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 34-35)
	Knowledge / Resources	"Of course we use books and often we watch video clips on the white board" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 325-326)
	Resources	"[I use] a range of things, sometimes video clips, sometimes websites possibly yeah books definitely of course" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 104-105)
	Knowledge / Resources	"We don't have like a series of textbooks, generally you know in the UK, it's just not a big part especially in literacy" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 349-350)
	Knowledge / Resources	"It may cut out the time but I think teachers would argue that the quality of the teaching is not the same" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 356-358)
	Knowledge / Resources	"I've got a feeling it wouldn't be that popular, no ... teachers see it as part of their job to make it their own lessons, make it personal ... I'd like to try and see what it was like but that's what I think and would feel like" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 355-360)
	Curriculum / Japanese context	"We tend to work closely in our year groups, we plan weekly, fortnightly to discuss every lesson in our team so that we are all happy about the lessons" (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 82-84)

	Curriculum	“It depends on the year groups you’re in, in my year group, we meet and plan based on the units that are in the National Curriculum for Year 6 ... and then as a year group, we plan a unit together that meets the objectives” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 17-20)
	Curriculum / Aims	“These [learning objectives from the Primary Framework for Literacy] are quite broad objectives for a unit so as a team we then break them down into child friendly objectives for each lesson” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 77-79)
Fidelity to England's national curriculum	Curriculum	“[I] agree with the basics of it. It [the National Curriculum 1988] is straightforward” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 154-155)
	Curriculum / Knowledge / Japanese context	“[The National Curriculum 1988] is good as it provides a framework” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, line 54)
	Curriculum	“[I] agree with the main principles [of the National Curriculum 1988]” (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, line 47)
	Curriculum / Knowledge	“Collage is good” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 54)
	Curriculum / Knowledge	“[Learning] objectives are good” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 34)
	Curriculum / Knowledge	“Statements are very general” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 52)
	Curriculum	“[The National Curriculum 1988] focuses too much on non-fiction” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 34-35)

Curriculum / Japanese context	"We need to use it [the National Curriculum] as a base because we are a British school" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, line 61)
Curriculum / Japanese context	"The National Curriculum is used as a basis for planning and teaching lessons" (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 45-46)
Curriculum	"The National Curriculum is always our starting point to ensure we are progressive with the units we are teaching" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 44-45)
Curriculum / Japanese context	"We use the National Curriculum levels to inform our planning" (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 54-55)
Curriculum / Knowledge / Japanese context	"We do have a bit more freedom to adapt or not use parts as we wish" (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 56-57)
Curriculum / Japanese context	"We are in a position to be freer with our curriculum" (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 55-56)
Knowledge / Japanese context	"It's quite nice because you can pick and choose within reasons" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, line 118)
Curriculum / Japanese context	"We tend to make it our own curriculum by cherry-picking the best bits" (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 56-57)

Curriculum / Japanese context	“Although many of the units will have the basis from the National Curriculum, we can add our own twists” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 67-68)
Curriculum / Japanese context	“We have the advantage of being able to adapt a little bit to our setting and make things applicable to our place as an international school in Asia and in Japan” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 65-66)
Curriculum / Japanese context	“With being a British school, the National Curriculum is used as a basis for planning and teaching lessons” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 45-46)
Knowledge / Aims	“We have been trying with other elements of like Japanese culture and things like that, we’ve been teaching in other subjects like history, which will motivate children and get them interested” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 16-19)
Curriculum / Japanese context	“I think she [the head teacher] trusts the experience of the staff to be able to decide, you know we have a lot of experienced teachers particularly and they can decide what units would be best” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 245-247)
Curriculum / Japanese context	“We have ‘planning meetings’ to go through what we are about to teach in the next few weeks and then those meetings we often have had time to look at the previous planning ...” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 76-78)
Curriculum	“We also use the National Literacy Framework. This is where our objectives are selected from” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 45-46)

	Curriculum	We'd refer partly to the National Curriculum but I mean mostly to the Literacy Framework, which isn't, now an old document, it still exists. Well, it's kind of passed it's time but I think a lot of teachers still do refer to that because that gives you the ideas for units of, you know topics really ... you can still find it online" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 93-96)
	Curriculum	"The QCA documents, they are suggestions traditionally, when the QCA existed, it doesn't exist anymore but they did suggest programmes of studies so that you could base like your skills teaching around a kind of three to four week unit of work, and some of those are perfectly fine we still teach some those like, you know journalistic style writing something like that ..." (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 235-239)
	Curriculum	"A lot of this kind of thing changes quite regularly anyway ... a lot of it is just very similar anyway, but it's just been worded differently, presented differently" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 185-186)
	Curriculum / Japanese context	"This school, the primary school, we don't tend to put a huge amount of emphasis on the SAT exams. I think in some schools in the UK, they [SATs] can take-over in Year 6, you can dominate the whole curriculum, that's a shame because a lot of the learning goes towards the specific test rather than you know just overall aims of literacy so, you know I'm quite happy in this school, we don't tend to too much exams focus"(Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 222-227)
	Curriculum / Japanese context	"We are a British school so we need to be able to accept and send children to the schools in the UK who run the British National Curriculum and that we need to be able to provide smooth transition so it's not completely different" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 61-64)

	Curriculum / Japanese context	"If you were in the UK, this would be something that would have affected the school a lot more I think. We've I think we had one training session where we got together with the staff and had a look at some of the new documents. But it's really just sort of we are aware and doesn't impact us that we have to change anything, I think" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 174-178)
	Curriculum / Japanese context	"Only from, you know, you do your own personal reading online and things like that" (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, line 173)
	Curriculum / Japanese context	"Only just starting to look at the new proposals for the 2014 curriculum, so not that knowledgeable yet!!" (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 61-62)
	Curriculum	"At this stage, I couldn't comment as I haven't looked into the new curriculum enough" (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 61-62)
	Curriculum / Knowledge	"I don't know too much about it yet to be perfectly honest" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 50)
	Curriculum / Knowledge	"Focus will be a lot more about Britain" (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, line 64)
	Knowledge / Curriculum	"An emphasis on real life contexts" (Class Teacher 3, interview 4, line 54)
	Curriculum / Knowledge	"Brand new focus on grammar, punctuation and spelling" (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 51-52)
	Curriculum / Aims / Japanese context	"We can wait and see which elements will be successful in England ...but we cannot wait too long because we need to be able to provide smooth transition for the pupils who are going to move to the schools in the UK" (Head teacher, interview 1, lines 129-132)

	Writing	“We always try to build in some speaking and listening activities before the children write” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 132)
	Resources	“[We often do] role play, hot seating, debate, lots of pair discussion work, peer feedback, discussion of text as a whole class...” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 131-132)
	Resources	“They might do an activity of you know a series of quiz questions or partner discussion lot of time to discuss between the children” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 513-515)
	Japanese context / Aims	“We are trying to incorporate more speaking and listening with the growing numbers of EAL children” (Class Teacher 2, interview 3, lines 86-87)
	British school in Japan	“Some of my Japanese children aren’t very good at communicating in longer sentences, often one word answers so I try to have a speaking and listening session wherever possible” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 90-92)
	British school in Japan	“The school is accepting more Japanese nationals and that means that language has to be bigger focus for us, so that would always start with speaking and listening aspects” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 255-257)
	British school in Japan	“The type of children that the school is accepting is changing a little bit since a lot of UK or American or Australian nationals left Tokyo after the financial difficulties ... when they [the children] go home all the conversation would be Japanese and reading Japanese books the challenge for us is to give them rich experience of kind of hearing and speaking English firstly before they can develop other skills” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 253-262).

	Curriculum / Writing	“Further drama based activities. This engaged the children and helps them to become more expressive when speaking, when reading and in writing” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 140-141)
	Writing / Aims	“Probably drama, speaking and listening activities ... I think we focus, sometimes focus too much on writing and I think if you can’t speak say in a certain way, it’s impossible to write in that way ... so I think there should be more a balance on speaking and listening and drama” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 75-80)
Writing in the Curriculum	Writing / Aims	“So it’s following the model ... if you can’t say the sentence you won’t be able to write” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 28-29)
	Writing / Curriculum / Aims	“[The 1988 National Curriculum] recognises the importance of speaking and listening, this is vital if a child is going to write fluently” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 55-56)
	Writing	“I think if you can’t speak in a certain way, it’s impossible to write in that way” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 76-77)
	Writing	“[I’d like to teach] more of a focus on reading. Good readers, make good writers” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 83)
	Writing	“I try to get the idea across that the more they read the better the writing is” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, line 220)
	Writing	“We always try to build in some speaking and listening activities before the children write” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, line 132)
	Writing / Aims	“Just giving them the opportunity to have time to discuss and talk through things before actually you come to the writing style, so usually quite a good build up before anything has to be written down” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 33-35)

	Writing	“They can edit their work and change it and move it around. It’s a lot more flexible, so that’s been a big one” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 345-346)
	Writing / Resources	“Children in my class continue writing at home and often send me work, that they have worked on, via shared document on Google” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 174-175)
	Writing / Resources	“They generally feel like they can write more [with laptop or iPads] and it’s easier to write for most of them ... my motivation for them is to write, so if it makes them write quicker and they can write more then I think it’s better”(Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 127-133)
	Writing / Resources	“Often we’d have the laptops, the children would be working on the laptops, and over the last two or three years I think it’s become much bigger part of the literacy lessons” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 408-409)
	Writing / Resources	“That’s what they are doing at home that what they would do when they get out into the real world when they graduate I think that’s the kind of where it’s going to be” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 461-463)
	Writing / Knowledge	“They [the children] do have some lessons about how to write letters but actually that’s probably a bit outdated now and needs to be changed them to like how to do an email” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 546-548)
	Writing / Resources	“The kids are doing a lot more writing on word processing rather than hand writing ... I think the most of the class are more comfortable with like word processing than hand writing now” (Class Teacher 1, interview 2, lines 339-340)

	Writing / Resources	“Handwriting and punctuation has got worse for some children when they have to write by hand” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 137-138)
	Writing	“I don’t think handwriting is very important so I don’t really care about handwriting” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 129-130)
	Writing / Curriculum	“Children, younger children should be doing more creative writing than functional things like writing letters” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 36-37)
	Writing / Aims / Knowledge	“Writing creatively which can be accessed by the audience through the correct use of grammar, sentence structure and punctuation” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, lines 76-77)
	Writing / Aims	“To feel confident with writing for a variety of purposes and to feel confident with taking risks, and trialling new writing styles” (Class Teacher 4, interview 5, lines 93-94)
	Writing / Aims	“We try to make our literacy lessons relevant to the children with a real purpose to writing” (Class Teacher 6, interview 7, line 45)
	Writing / Aims	“I’d like them to enjoy writing and I’d like them to have a positive approach to writing and also to be happy or confident to experiment with writing and play round with it” (Class Teacher 5, interview 6, lines 90-92)
	Writing / Aims	“We have quite a high element of children who don’t have English as their first language or who don’t have English spoken at home as regularly as it might be in the UK, that’s a big element like speaking and listening we try to make big part of every lesson” (Mr. Murdoch, interview 2, lines 24-28)

Appendix 13: Examples from Lesson Observation Notes

Observation Notes No. 1: 7 October 2013, Class Teacher 3 (Year 5)

Today's topic was 'horror'. The children were sitting at the desks and Class Teacher 3 was explaining today's task in front of the Interactive White Board (IWB). On the desks, there were handouts that Mrs Ward had placed before the lesson began. Class Teacher 3 explained what they were going to do today and explained the word 'genre'. It seemed to me that Class Teacher 3 explained the word 'genre' as this was going to be a key term for the next few lessons. Class Teacher 3 played an introduction of a video clip on the IWB. Spooky sound came out from the speaker and the children got excited. The short video clip showed something was moving in a dark, ghostly woods with mysterious sound. In the handouts, there were headings: a) what kinds of elements you see in the clip? B) How do you feel when you see the clip? c) Why the director make the clip dark? The children filled in their answers in their handouts and discussed in-pairs, and then wrote their answers on the individual thin white boards. Class Teacher 3 and the TA walk around and check each group and often join and help with what they are trying to write. Then, the children also walk around to see other group's individual thin white boards. Around 11.00am, the children gathered on the carpet and Class Teacher 3 made some groups with 4 children and with 2 children. Class Teacher 3 asked them which genre they learned today (the answer was 'horror'), and the children responded cheerfully 'horror!' at once. And also, Class Teacher 3 asked the children about the contents of the video clip they saw today with the questions such as: a) what kind of elements were in the video clip? b) Why was the video clip scary? c) What did the director make this film scary? And, Class Teacher 3 introduced some new vocabulary related to horror such as 'sinister' saying, 'When you feel scary, words like spooky and scary were Year 4, Year 5 should use "sinister"'. At 11.35am, Class Teacher 3 used the white board placed next to the IWB and wrote a summary of today's lesson and the tasks for the next few lessons: a) write their own horror story and b) as a writer, what do we need (characters, emotions, third person or first person writing style)? This lesson seemed to work as an introduction to the writing their own horror stories in the end.

Observation Note No. 2: 11 November 2013, Class Teacher 1 (Year 5)

Today's topic was 'Horror story' and the learning objective was: 'to express a sense of fear and to write a paragraph'. Prior to the lesson, Class Teacher 1 was holding a cardboard box making holes with scissors and told me that he was going to do Show & Tell today when I came into the classroom. In the lesson, Class Teacher 1 told the children that he had got a new pet this weekend, which was scorpion. He says the scorpion is in the box. The children were suddenly excited about having the scorpion in the classroom. Class Teacher 1 asked the children what scorpion is and what they look like. Then, Class Teacher 1 urged the children to put their hand in the box and try to touch the scorpion. In fact, the box had two holes on the both sides and was filled with only a cloth. One child volunteered to put his hand into the box and tried to reach the scorpion. Class Teacher 1 said 'Be careful', 'It bites', 'It carries poison' and so on. From the other side of the hole, Class Teacher 1 put his hand and the child touched Class Teacher 1's hand. The child screamed thinking he had touched the scorpion. The other children started to be scared and seemed extremely excited. After 5 or 6 children tried to touch the scorpion, Class Teacher 1 revealed the truth that there was no scorpion in the box. Children were suddenly disappointed and started to accuse Class Teacher 1 of telling a lie to them. Class Teacher 1 apologised and explained the purpose and reason why he did this, which was to make the children feel a sense of fear. Then, Class Teacher 1 asked the questions: 'How did you feel when you put your hands in the box?' and 'What was your physical reaction when you were scared?' The children discussed these questions in pairs, then shared their answers with the whole class. Class Teacher 1 wrote their answers on the Interactive White Board. Their answers were: 'heart beating', 'goose bumps', etc. Then, Class Teacher 1 asked rather general questions: 'When you are scared, how you feel?', 'Experience when you are scared'. Class Teacher 1 explained what the children were going to do: to write a paragraph with laptops about the questions. The children promptly went to the 'charge station' on the corridor and got their laptops. Class Teacher 1 passed out their exercise books to the children so that they could refer to their paragraphs from previous lessons. After working individually on the paragraphs with their

laptops, the children saved their documents. Then, Class Teacher 1 had a story time for the last 15 minutes of the lesson, he read a book to the children as he asked some questions and clarified about the words or the plot in the book.

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Observation Note No. 3: 24 February 2014, Class Teacher 3 (Year 5)

Today, the children were going to learn a brand new topic, 'Greek myths'. An extract from Greek myths (handout) was put on the desks by Class Teacher 3 before the lesson started. The learning objective for today's lesson was displayed on the interactive white board, which was: 'to begin to identify the features of myths'. The children were sitting on the carpet and the teacher started to explain about the topic and what they were going to do today: they were going to learn about myths especially the myths from ancient Greece. The children were told to take out their individual white boards from the shelf and to discuss in pairs about: a) what is a myth? b) What features do they include? Three children remained to sit on the carpet and the other children went back to their desks and continued to discuss about the two points. Class Teacher 3 and the teaching assistant were looking around and joined the children when necessary. At 10.43, Class Teacher 3 summed up the discussion. She asked the children what they got from their discussions. Class Teacher 3 wrote the responses from the children on the interactive white board with an electric pen under the two headings: 'myths' and 'features'. Looking at the answers on the interactive white board, some of the children erased their answers on their individual white boards. Then, at 11.00, the children were told to read the extract of the Greek myth and to identify the features, settings, main events, characters and ending with examples in the extract of the story. Class Teacher 3 and the teaching assistant passed out children's exercise books so the children can write their findings in their exercise books. The three children who were sitting on the carpet were still sitting on the carpet and they began to lay down while reading the extract. Class Teacher 3 and the teaching assistant were again looking around how the children are getting on and joined to help and support them when necessary. At 11.28, Class Teacher 3 stopped the activity and asked the children what they had identified as features or characters in the extract. As soon as Class Teacher 3 asked the children, they raised their hands lively and looked very keen to give their answers to Class Teacher 3 about what they have found so far. Class Teacher 3 resumed the activity and the children continued to write what they identified with examples from the extract into their exercise books. At 11.40, Class Teacher 3 started to

close the lesson. She asked the children to put their exercise books back to the shelf and told them to gather on the carpet. Class Teacher 3 played a video clip of Greek myth on the interactive white board and the children watch it. The children seemed very excited. After watching the video clip, Class Teacher 3 explained what they were going to do this week.

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Observation Note No. 4: 26 February 2014, Class Teacher 2 (Year 5)

Today's learning objective was 'to identify the features of myths, the Greek myths in particular'. Class Teacher 2 summarised the points from the previous lesson to remind the children about the myths. Then, Class Teacher 2 displayed a table with two columns: 'feature' and 'example of myths' on the interactive white board. Class Teacher 2 asked the children sitting on the carpet, 'What are the features of myths?' Children's responses were: 'hero', 'heroine', 'problem', 'quest', 'gods', and 'goddess'. Class Teacher 2 wrote children's responses into the table on the interactive white board and completed the table with the features of myths. Then, Class Teacher 2 passed out the handouts which was the story of myths, and explained today's task: to identify the features of myths in the story. Children read the handout in pairs and summarised the outline of the story to each other. Then, they started to identify the features, which were written in the table, in the story that they had read. The children wrote the features they had found on their personal thin white boards. Then, all of the children stood up and walked around to see other children's individual white boards to compare their findings. Then the children were told to write the features that they identified into their own exercise books. In the closing of the lesson, Class Teacher 2 asked children to summarise and to tell the outline of the story to Class Teacher 2. Today, the children learned some new words related to myths such as: 'obstacle', 'conflict' and 'quest'.

Observation Note No. 5: 3 March 2014, Class Teacher 1 (Year 5)

Today's topic was myths. At 10.35, the children were all sitting on the carpet, and Class Teacher 1 was sitting at his desk and reviewed what they did last week. Then, he displayed the learning objective for today on the interactive white board: 'to build up a clear picture of what makes an Ancient Greek hero or villain' and 'to identify the attributes of heroes/heroines commonly found in Greek myths'. Class Teacher 1 asked the children what kind of characters usually appear in myths and the children answered 'God', 'mortal', 'demi-gods', and so on. Class Teacher 1 explained some new words, and then the children were told to categorise the characters in pairs. At 10.48, the children were back to their desks in groups with 3 to 4 children and Class Teacher 1 pass around handouts and pencils. The children filled in a table in the handout how they categorised the characters. On the hand out, the second learning objective was written on the top, and there were three columns: a) common hero/heroine actions found in myths, b) appearance generally associated with heroes/heroines, and c) personality words I can use for the hero/heroine. At 11.00am, Class Teacher 1 asked a question to the children about hero and heroine: 'What do usually heroes and heroines do in myths stories and what kind of personality do they have?' While the children were working on their tasks, Class Teacher 1 and the teaching assistants looked around and joined the groups when necessary. Then, the teacher urged the children to share what they had so far. The children responded with answers such as 'taking risks', 'do something for heroine', 'volunteer', 'commit violence', 'fearless', and so on. Then, as a whole class, they read an extract of a story of myths; *Heracles* individually and silently. When they finished reading, they added the characters they had found in the story to the list in their handouts. Then, Class Teacher 1 and the TAs pass around children's exercise books, and the children pasted their handouts in their exercise books. Class Teacher 1 summarised the plot of *Heracles* and the characters in the story. At 11.40, the children were told to put their exercise books back into the shelves. Class Teacher 1 explained today's homework, which was to create myths creature because the children were going to write their own myths towards the end of the unit.

Observation Note No. 6: 4 March 2014, Class Teacher 2 (Year 5)

Today, there was a fire drill so the lesson was only for 45 minutes. At 11.00, the children were sitting on the carpet (5 children were sitting at their desks) and Class Teacher 2 passed them handouts of a story of myths, which was *Heracles*. On the interactive white board, today's learning objective, which was 'to be able to write a character profile' and also the slide of the handout were displayed. The children read the extract of the story of myths together as Class Teacher 2 often asked the outline of the story and the meanings of some words. Then, a question; 'Can you think of any words that are particularly relevant when describing Heracles?' and the picture of Heracles were shown on the IWB. Class Teacher 2 explained today's activity, which was that they were going to describe the picture of Heracles with words or phrases in pairs. The children were told to discuss about the characteristics of the Heracles in pairs. Then, Class Teacher 2 asked the children what they got. They respond with answers such as; 'strong', 'clever', 'powerful' and 'persuasive'. Class Teacher 2 stopped and asked the meanings of the word 'clever' and 'persuasive' to clarify their answers. Class Teacher 2 continue to write their answers on the IWB. Other words from the children were; 'kind', 'boastful', 'determination', 'brave', 'fearless', cunning'. Yesterday, I observed Class Teacher 1's class in Year 5 where they did similar activity and today's Class Teacher 2's class also got the same word 'fearless', which was interesting to me. Then, Class Teacher 2 passed the children a piece of paper. The children were told to make notes for about 4-5 sentences to describe a character in the story of Heracles in a groups (with 5-6 children). The children started to discuss the characters in the story and wrote some sentences to describe a character that appeared in Heracles. Since today's lesson was short, Class Teacher 2 said that the children could continue to work on it during lunch time. However, when the lesson ended, the children finished the activity and went to get their lunch bags.

Observation Note No. 7: 5 March 2014, Class Teacher 3 (Year 5)

At 10.33, the children were sitting on the carpet (5 children are sitting at the desks) and Class Teacher 3 logged into a web portal called 'Class Do Jo' on the interactive white board. Then, a slide that said, 'Look at how authors write effective character descriptions' was displayed. Class Teacher 3 explained what they were going to do today: to learn the style of writing in myths. And then, the next slide was shown on the IWB that said 'How should we structure a character profile?' On the IWB, an extract from a story of myths (*Heracles*) was displayed and the children read the extract. They raised their hands once they finished their reading. Class Teacher 3 clarified some words such as 'pondered' and 'destined', writing the words on the white board beside the IWB. Class Teacher 3 stressed that they were going to write their own stories of myths in the end. At 10.53, Class Teacher 3 made pairs and the children were told that they were going to discuss the elements that made the story a myth: 'What elements form a story myths?' The children started to discuss in pairs what points made the story sounded or looked more myths. At 10.58, the children sat at the desks and Class Teacher 3 and the TA passed the children thin individual white boards and told them to write and describe the characters in *Heracles*. Class Teacher 3 and the TA looked around and join them to support when necessary. The children described the characters in *Heracles* that they had read. When finished, everyone walked around to see other children's descriptions. One of the children wrote 'Do Not Edit' on his individual white board, which was funny. At 11.23, three children remained to sit at the desks and the rest of the children came to sit on the carpet and Class Teacher 3 explained some synonyms of the words that some of the children wrote on their individual white board, for example, 'poison'. Then, the children read aloud their descriptions that they had written on their thin individual white boards. Some of their descriptions were corrected as they were not complete sentences or had errors in terms of grammar. At 11.35, Class Teacher 3 explained what they were going to do next couple of days, which was to choose one character from *Heracles*. On the white board beside the interactive white board, Class Teacher 3 wrote some examples of personality and appearance of the characters in *Heracles*. Then the children were told to bring their thin individual

white boards on the desk in the middle of the classroom. And then, the lesson closed.

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Observation Note No. 8: 7 October 2013, Class Teacher 5 (Year 6)

Today's main activity was to discuss and to identify the suspect in a detective story. A book called, *The Westing Game* by Ellen Raskin (1978) was the main resource for today's lesson. The children gathered near the Interactive White Board (IWB) and sat on the carpet. Class Teacher 5 displayed an extract (a chapter) from the book on the IWB and explained today's activity, which was that the children are going to listening to the detective story together as a whole class, and once they have an idea of who the murderer is, they write a name of the possible suspect on a piece of paper and put the paper in the box that is placed at the back of the classroom. On the wall near the box, there some phrases or sentences also on pieces of paper that would help the children solve the plot and identify the suspect. Class Teacher 5 said, "This is a game to find the murderer!" The children seemed excited with the word 'game'. Class Teacher 5 explained the main characters in the story, and then the children got their own hard copies of the extract (the whole chapter of the book). The children and Class Teacher 5 sat on the chairs in a circle and Class Teacher 5 started to read aloud the chapter. One child asked the meaning of a word 'upkeep' while they were listening to the detective story. Whilst Class Teacher 5 was reading the chapter in the circle with the children, the TA was looking at the same chapter on her iPad standing by the circle. The TA joined the circle and Class Teacher 5 continued to read the chapter and often asked the children about the main characters in the book. The children responded quickly to Class Teacher 5's questions and clarifications. Then, the TA took over the reading. As the children listened and responded to the questions about the main characters, some children began to get ideas of who the murderer was. Once the children got an idea, they quickly stood up and got a piece of paper and wrote the name of the suspect and put that in the box at the back of the classroom. Some children looked at the clues on the wall and thought carefully about their choice before they put their papers into the box. Class Teacher 5 also asked the motives of the murder and some suspicious behaviour of some characters. The children remained in the circle were listening to the story looking excited. This activity continued for about 30 minutes until 9.45am. Then class had a break for 15 minutes until 10am. The activity was like a Guided

Reading with an exciting game. After the break, Class Teacher 5 continued to read the story in the circle and the activity continued to the lesson ends. The outcome of everyone's guesses and the real murderer would be revealed in the next lesson.

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Observation Note No. 9: 28 October 2013, Class Teacher 4 (Year 6)

Today was the first day after the half-term holiday. From 9.00am, Class Teacher 4 started to call the register by asking a question, "What exciting things did you do in the half-term holiday?" The children answered what they did in the half-term one by one. Then, Class Teacher 4 explained today's learning objective orally to the children, saying, "Today, we are going to do punctuation practice". Today's main focus was to punctuate direct speech accurately. Then, Class Teacher 4 played a video clip about how to punctuate on the Interactive white Board and the children watched it as a whole class. The video clip was made by one of the Y6 class teachers. Class Teacher 4 summarised some important points in the video clip. Then, the children got their own iPads and watched the video clip again individually with their earphones. After watching it individually, Class Teacher 4 asked the children where to put apostrophe with a surname, 'Collins'. Class Teacher 4 wrote the surname and two choices on the white board next to the IWB: Collins'/ Collins's. Most of the children chose the first one. Then, Class Teacher 4 passed out today's handout, which was an extract from Agatha Christie's novel but in the extract, there were only words and its punctuation was missing. Class Teacher 4 explained the task, which was to correct punctuation in the extract. Class Teacher 4 and the TA walked around to see how the children were getting on with their activities. Class Teacher 4 noticed something and suddenly drew children's attention and clarified a punctuation. She wrote a sentence, "*Hello, how are you?* ", *said Jim* on the white board and asked the children whether the comma after the question mark was needed. After the clarification, the children continued to work on punctuating in the extract individually with their handouts. While the children were working with their handouts, Class Teacher 4 told me that this lesson was not originally planned in the lesson plan, but in the previous lesson, Class Teacher 4 and TA had noticed that the children did not understand punctuation when they were writing their own horror stories, so they decided to do punctuation in this week. And then, children were told to put the handout in their exercise books as well as writing today's learning objective on the top of the page. To close and as a summary of today's lesson, Class Teacher 4 asked the children the questions, "What have we done?" and "What are something we

need to remember from today?" The children responded what they learned today, that was, how to punctuate, including putting apostrophes to name like Class Teacher 4' and commas after question marks and so on. And then, Class Teacher 4 told the children what they were going to do next week.

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Observation Note No. 10: 24 February 2014, Class Teacher 4 (Year 6)

Today was Monday and was also the first day after the half-term break. The children were gathering around Class Teacher 4's desk. Class Teacher 4 called a register, asking what the children did during the half-term break. One of the children asked Class Teacher 4 'Why don't you tell us what you did during the half-term holiday?' and Class Teacher 4 said that she joined triathlon race during the break. At 9.10am, the children were back to their desks and Class Teacher 4 started to explain today's activity. The TA called one or two children in each group of desks looking at a list of their names and gave them badges. The children who wore these badges were going to experience 'discrimination' today. This was cross curricular activity based on the Jewish discrimination during the Second World War. All of the staff in the primary school knew this activity and the selected children were supposed to be discriminate for the rest of the morning today. Over the next few days, children were going to write and to make videos and then present them based on today's activity. On the interactive white board, a web portal called 'Journalism' was shown. Class Teacher 4 explained about the presentation that the children were going to do in the end of the activity. The children were told that they were also going to do peer reading their writings, so Class Teacher 4 used the white board besides the interactive white board, and explained what the children needed to bear in mind when they evaluate their peers' writings. For example, Class Teacher 4 told that the children needed to evaluate their peers' writings based on the following points: 'What did you enjoy?', 'What did you find interesting?', 'What challenges did you face?', 'How did you overcome them?', 'Next time, what could you improve?' Around 9.30am, the children went to the corridor and got their laptops from the charge station and started to work individually. Class Teacher 4 and the TA were looking around and joined them when necessary. The children who wore the badges were not allowed to use new laptops or to drink water during the lesson without permission. Later, one of the children with badges told me that she felt very scared while wearing the badge because she was said bad things by the other children.

Around 10.14am, Class Teacher 4 closed the lesson with the explanation of what they were going to do in the next lesson, which was to continue to write and to make comments on other's writings.

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Observation Note No. 11: 26 February 2014, Class Teacher 6 (Year 6)

Today's lesson was going to be a student-led lesson. So one pupil was going to lead half of the lesson. The topic of the current unit was 'balanced argument' and the children were going to discuss about the soldiers in the Second World War. This was one of the cross curricular activities on the Second World War across the Year 6 classes. At 9.00, the children sat on the carpet (9 children were sitting at the desks), and Class Teacher 6 explained that Emilie (pseudonym) was going to lead and to moderate today's lesson. This classroom was the biggest room in the year group, and they had 2 teaching assistants. They used the space in the back in the classroom. The theme of the debate was, 'Men can make a better soldier than women'. On the far left was 100% disagree and far right was 100% agree and the children took their positions according to their opinions. On the far left (100% disagree), there were 2 children, in the next line, there were three children, in the next line, three children, in the next line there were 5 children and in the next line one child and on the far right (100% agree), there were 5 children. There were six lines. About from 9.15-30, each children expressed their opinions why they were standing there. At 9.30, Class Teacher 6 passed around 'discussion phrases' on which there were the phrases such as: 'in response to (name)', 'regarding (topic)', 'I also believe that', 'on the other hand', 'while I agree with some of what (name) says', and so on. The children were told that they needed to use one of the phrases when they expressed their opinions. Emilie chose who says next, and Class Teacher 6 and the TAs were watching, sitting on the desks by the window. The deputy head came to the classroom to observe how they were getting on. Then, the theme changed. The next theme was 'Do you like cats or dogs and why?' The children looked excited about the topic, and Class Teacher 6 and the TAs also joined the debate. Emilie continued to moderate this round too. This time, far left was for 'cats' and far right was for 'dogs'. This time, there were only three lines. 4 people were on the far left (cats) and 5 people including Class Teacher 6 in the middle, and 12 people were on the far right (dogs). They expressed pros and cons. The debate got lively as some of them actually owned cats and dogs. The debates got even fierce. Emilie tried to calm them down but the children didn't listen to her. Emilie jumped and shouted 'quite

please!' and Class Teacher 6 and the TAs giggled because Emilie seemed to realise that how hard it was to control the class. This lively debate on 'cats or dogs' lasted until 9.50 and then Class Teacher 6 summed up the debate with giving the children her feedback and the children praised Emilie's brilliant work as a moderator. Emilie looked pleased. At 10.00, the desks were arranged as usual positions, and then Class Teacher 6 passed around a copy of a cartoon story about the Auschwitz during the Second World War. The story was based on the true story that happened during the War, and there were three main characters in the cartoon: cats, mice and pigs. Class Teacher 6 explained about the cartoon and the story, which was each animal represented Nazis, Jews and people working at Auschwitz accordingly. As a whole class, they read the cartoon story. Three children read aloud the story like a role playing being. A map appeared in the cartoon. Class Teacher 6 stopped to read and explained the geographical relationship of the sites in the Auschwitz. Then, they back to reading. There was not enough time to read the whole story today. Class Teacher 6 closed the lesson by explaining about what they were going to do with this copy of the cartoon story in the next lesson and the lesson ended.

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Observation Note No. 12: 1 March 2014, Class Teacher 5 (Year 6)

Today, the children practised a script for a short play for their assembly, which was scheduled next week. The short play was based on the concept of the current unit: balanced argument. The theme of the argument was: 'Are iPads good for learning?' The script was in their iPads so the children were holding their iPads and checking their scripts while practising their lines. This short play was going to be their preparation at the assembly. First, Class Teacher 5 explained what they were going to do today, which was doing a rehearsal for the assembly. The play was like a TV debate show. There were two presenters (one girl and one boy) and the presenters were standing by the interactive white board. The debate show had six panels for discussion: an academic, a granny, the head teacher, a teenage girl, and so on. The panels were sitting at a table in the middle of the classroom and the children were acting as their roles accordingly. In the audience, there were also children who were acting as a photographer, a swimmer, an Olympic medallist and so on, who were supposed to raise their opinions from the audience. Every child had a role to play in the debate show. Class Teacher 5 was directing the play. He sometimes shouted 'push yourself!' Or he said to the children to raise their voices. He looked passionate about directing the play. At 9.40am, they had general feedback time. The children said how they felt while they were practising and commented on each other's acts and shared their thoughts. Then they had a short break for a couple of minutes. At 9.45am, they did a rehearsal for the second time again looking at their scripts on their iPads. The rehearsal lasted until 10.15 and Class Teacher 5 and the teaching assistant seemed happy with the children's acting. Class Teacher 5 praised the children because they pushed themselves so hard. Today's whole lesson was spent for the rehearsal.