

Beata Kouhan

Teaching foreign languages in Polish and
English upper secondary schools: A
comparative study

Nauczanie języków obcych w polskich i
angielskich szkołach
ponadgimnazjalnych: badania
porównawcze

Praca doktorska napisana
na Wydziale Anglistyki

Uniwersytetu im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu
pod kierunkiem prof. zw. dra hab. Mirosława Pawlaka

Poznań, 2016

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Though only my name appears on the cover of this dissertation, a great many people have contributed to its production. I owe my appreciation to all those people who have made this dissertation possible and because of whom my gratitude experience has been one that I will cherish forever.

First and foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor Prof. Mirosław Pawlak for the continuous support of my PhD research, especially for his patience and immense knowledge. His guidance helped me in all the time of research and writing of this dissertation. In particular, his insightful comments and discussions incited me to widen my research from various perspectives and do my best. I could not have imagined having a better advisor and mentor for my PhD study.

Besides my advisor, I am extremely indebted to Dr John J. Guy OBE, the long-standing Principal of the Sixth Form College Farnborough. He inspired me to start my research and has always been a role model to me. Dr Guy was an invaluable source of information and without his patience and sacrifice, I could not have completed my project. I greatly value his support and friendship and I also deeply appreciate his belief in me.

Most importantly, none of this would have been possible without the love, patience, encouragement and sacrifice of my dear family: my parents, husband and daughter. I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to them for supporting me spiritually throughout my life and helping me overcome many crisis situations.

Beata Kouhan

Poznań, dnia 03.11.2016

OŚWIADCZENIE

Ja, niżej podpisana Beata Kouhan doktorantka Wydziału Anglistyki Uniwersytetu im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu oświadczam, że przedkładaną rozprawę doktorską pt: „Nauczanie języków obcych w polskich i angielskich szkołach ponadgimnazjalnych: badania porównawcze” napisałam samodzielnie. Oznacza to, że przy pisaniu pracy, poza niezbędnymi konsultacjami, nie korzystałam z pomocy innych osób, a w szczególności nie zlecałam opracowania rozprawy lub jej części innym osobom, ani nie odpisywałam tej rozprawy lub jej części od innych osób. Oświadczam również, że egzemplarz rozprawy doktorskiej w formie wydruku komputerowego jest zgodny z egzemplarzem rozprawy doktorskiej w formie elektronicznej.

Jednocześnie przyjmuję do wiadomości, że przypisanie sobie, w rozprawie doktorskiej, autorstwa istotnego fragmentu lub innych elementów cudzego utworu lub ustalenia naukowego stanowi podstawę stwierdzenia nieważności postępowania w sprawie nadania tytułu zawodowego.

TAK* - wyrażam zgodę na udostępnianie mojej pracy w czytelni Archiwum UAM

TAK* - wyrażam zgodę na udostępnianie mojej pracy w zakresie koniecznym do ochrony mojego prawa do autorstwa lub praw osób trzecich

*Należy wpisać TAK w przypadku wyrażenia zgody na udostępnianie pracy w czytelni Archiwum UAM, NIE w przypadku braku zgody. Niewypełnienie pola oznacza brak zgody na udostępnianie pracy.

.....
(czytelny podpis studenta)

Table of contents

TABLE OF CONTENTS	IV
LIST OF TABLES	IX
LIST OF FIGURES	XIII
INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER 1 : LANGUAGE POLICY.....	6
INTRODUCTION	6
1.1. DEFINING LANGUAGE POLICY.....	7
1.2. LANGUAGE POLICY AND PLANNING IN THE EUROPEAN UNION.....	11
1.2.1. <i>Foreign language learning situation in Europe</i>	<i>13</i>
1.2.2. <i>Documents related to foreign language learning/teaching</i>	<i>15</i>
1.2.3. <i>European Union programs, frameworks and other facilitators of foreign language learning and teaching</i>	<i>18</i>
1.2.4. <i>European Union agencies and institutions involved in foreign language learning and teaching</i>	<i>24</i>
1.3. LANGUAGE POLICY IN POLAND	25
1.3.1. <i>The organisation and structure of foreign language teaching in Poland.....</i>	<i>26</i>
1.3.2. <i>Reforms and current trends</i>	<i>30</i>
1.4. LANGUAGE POLICY IN ENGLAND.....	30
1.4.1. <i>The organisation and structure of foreign language teaching in England... </i>	<i>31</i>
1.4.2. <i>Reforms and current trends</i>	<i>37</i>
1.5. SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES OF THE ORGANISATION AND STRUCTURE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN POLAND AND ENGLAND.....	38

<i>Conclusion</i>	40
CHAPTER 2 : PROGRAM EVALUATION	42
INTRODUCTION	42
2.1. DEFINING LANGUAGE PROGRAM EVALUATION	43
2.2. AIMS, PRINCIPLES, STANDARDS AND CRITERIA OF PROGRAM EVALUATION	47
2.3. MODELS AND TYPES OF LANGUAGE PROGRAM EVALUATION.....	51
2.4. STAGES IN DESIGNING AND PERFORMING PROGRAM EVALUATION	56
2.4.1. <i>Defining the subject of program evaluation</i>	56
2.4.2. <i>Identifying stakeholders</i>	58
2.4.3. <i>Defining aims and goals of program evaluation</i>	59
2.4.4. <i>Asking key questions</i>	61
2.4.5. <i>Choosing methods for performing program evaluation</i>	62
2.4.6. <i>Managing program evaluation</i>	64
2.4.7. <i>Processing information</i>	69
2.4.8. <i>Reporting</i>	71
2.4.9. <i>Assessing the evaluation process</i>	73
CONCLUSION.....	74
CHAPTER 3 : LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN POLISH AND ENGLISH UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOLS	76
INTRODUCTION	76
3.1. THE ORGANISATION AND STRUCTURE OF TWO TYPES OF THE UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN POLAND AND ENGLAND AFTER WORLD WAR II.....	77
3.1.1. <i>Polish general upper secondary school system</i>	77
3.1.1.1. Legal regulations.....	78
3.1.1.2. The organisation and structure of the general upper secondary school system	78
3.1.1.3. The role of a principal as a leader in Polish education	80
3.1.1.4. The organisation of foreign language teaching in Polish general upper secondary schools	84
3.1.2. <i>English sixth form college system</i>	86
3.1.2.1. Legal regulations.....	89
3.1.2.2. The organisation and structure of the sixth form college system	90

3.1.2.3. The role of a principal as a leader in English education	93
3.1.2.4. The organisation of foreign language teaching in English sixth form colleges	95
3.1.3. <i>Comparing the similarities and differences of Polish and English upper secondary school systems</i>	98
3.2. RATIONALE FOR INVESTIGATING SELECTED ASPECTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN POLISH AND ENGLISH UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOLS	99
3.2.1. <i>Teachers' teamwork and cooperation</i>	99
3.2.2. <i>The model of a foreign language lesson</i>	101
3.2.3. <i>Instructional procedures</i>	104
3.2.4. <i>The use of a coursebook</i>	110
3.2.5. <i>Forms of student assessment</i>	113
3.2.6. <i>Classroom interaction</i>	118
3.2.7. <i>Developing learner autonomy</i>	122
CONCLUSION.....	127
CHAPTER 4 : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	129
INTRODUCTION	129
4.1. THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY	129
4.2. SUBJECTS	133
4.2.1. <i>British foreign language teacher participants</i>	134
4.2.2. <i>Polish foreign language teacher participants</i>	135
4.2.3. <i>Students participating in the study</i>	136
4.3. INSTRUMENTS AND METHODOLOGY OF DATA COLLECTION	136
4.3.1. <i>Lesson observations</i>	137
4.3.2. <i>Questionnaires</i>	139
4.3.3. <i>Interview</i>	142
4.4. DATA ANALYSIS	143
CONCLUSION.....	148
CHAPTER 5 : RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	149
INTRODUCTION	149
5.1. FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT	150
5.1.1. <i>Structure and performance of the foreign language teacher teams</i>	151

5.1.2. <i>Principal as a leader in education</i>	156
5.1.3. <i>Model of the foreign language lesson</i>	160
5.1.4. <i>Foreign language teaching techniques and aids</i>	168
5.1.5. <i>Use of a coursebook</i>	176
5.1.6. <i>Forms of student assessment</i>	183
5.1.7. <i>Classroom interaction</i>	189
5.1.8. <i>Learner autonomy</i>	197
5.1.9. <i>Program evaluation</i>	201
5.2. DISCUSSION	206
5.2.1. <i>Teachers' teamwork and cooperation</i>	207
5.2.2. <i>Principal as a leader in education</i>	208
5.2.3. <i>The model of the foreign language lesson</i>	209
5.2.4. <i>Teaching techniques and teaching aids</i>	210
5.2.5. <i>The use of a coursebook</i>	212
5.2.6. <i>Forms of student assessment</i>	213
5.2.7. <i>Classroom interaction</i>	214
5.2.8. <i>Development of learner autonomy</i>	215
5.2.9. <i>Program evaluation</i>	217
5.3. WEAKNESSES OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT.....	218
CONCLUSION.....	219
CONCLUSION	221
SUMMARY	230
STRESZCZENIE	233
REFERENCES	236
APPENDIX	272
Appendix 1.....	273
Appendix 2.....	276
Appendix 3.....	278
Appendix 4.....	282
Appendix 5.....	309
Appendix 6.....	317

Appendix 7.....	337
Appendix 8.....	343

List of tables

Table 1. Assessment objectives for AS and A level defined by Ofqual (Ofqual 2011:5).	36
Table 2. The differences between the Polish and English upper secondary school systems.	98
Table 3. The structure of foreign language teacher teams described in the questionnaires.....	153
Table 4. The structure of foreign language teacher teams declared in the questionnaires- Chi-square test results.	153
Table 5. The working schedule of the foreign language teacher teams declared in the questionnaires (teachers could choose more than one option).....	154
Table 6. Examples of the foreign language teacher teams' joint projects - provided by the Polish and British teachers during the interviews (each teacher could provide any number of examples).....	154
Table 7. The strongest points of foreign language teacher teams' performance declared in the interviews each teacher could provide any number of points).....	155
Table 8. The weakest points of the foreign languages teams' performance declared in the interviews (each teacher could provide any number of points).	156
Table 9. The level of agreement of the teachers with the statement that having a principal who is a strong and efficient leader in education is beneficial for the school's performance (the results of the questionnaire).	157
Table 10. Examples of principal's direct positive influence on the foreign languages teams' performance declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one option).....	158

Table 11. Examples of principal’s direct support for foreign language teacher teams provided by the Polish and British teachers during the interviews (each teacher could provide any number of examples).....	159
Table 12. Examples of foreign language teaching goals followed in the foreign language lessons declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one option).....	161
Table 13. Crosstabulation for the examples of the foreign teaching goals followed in the foreign language lessons and declared in the questionnaires.....	161
Table 14. Planning lessons according to an official model declared in the questionnaires.....	162
Table 15. The teachers’ descriptions of planning lessons according to an official model (results of the questionnaires, when the teachers chose the <i>yes</i> option).	163
Table 16. Elements taken into consideration when planning lessons according to different models – declared in the questionnaires, when the teachers chose the <i>no</i> option.....	164
Table 17. Elements of the foreign language lesson declared in the interviews (each teacher could provide any number of the elements of the foreign language lesson).	166
Table 18. The observed elements of the foreign language lesson.	166
Table 19. Students' involvement observed in the foreign language lessons.	167
Table 20. Factors taken into consideration while choosing teaching techniques (replies from the questionnaires- each teacher could choose more than one option).	169
Table 21. Teaching techniques declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one method).	170
Table 22. Teaching techniques observed during the foreign language lessons.	171
Table 23. Students' reactions to the applied teaching techniques observed during the foreign language lessons.	172
Table 24. The use of teaching aids observed during the foreign language lessons	173
Table 25. The use of teaching aids declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one example of teaching aids).....	174
Table 26. Students' reactions to the applied teaching aids observed during the foreign language lessons.....	175

Table 27. The observed innovative teaching techniques/aids applied in the foreign language lessons.	175
Table 28. The way of choosing a coursebook declared in the questionnaires.	176
Table 29. The frequency of changing a coursebook declared in the interviews.	177
Table 30. The reasons for changing a coursebook declared in the interviews (each teacher could provide more than one reason).	178
Table 31. The criteria of assessing the usefulness of a coursebook declared in the interviews (each teacher could provide more than one criterion).	178
Table 32. The criteria of assessing the usefulness of a coursebook declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one reply).	179
Table 33. The frequency of the use of a coursebook observed during a lesson.	180
Table 34. The stages of the lessons to which a coursebook was used – the results of the lesson observations.	181
Table 35. Students' reactions to the use of a coursebook observed during the foreign language lessons.	181
Table 36. The teachers' declarations from the questionnaires about creating their own teaching materials.	182
Table 37. The use of additional teaching materials during the foreign language lessons.	183
Table 38. Forms of students' assessment declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one form).	185
Table 39. Forms of students' assessment declared in the interview.	186
Table 40. The forms of students' assessment observed in the foreign language lessons.	187
Table 41. The frequency of students' assessment observed in the foreign language lessons.	187
Table 42. The observed students' reactions to being assessed.	188
Table 43. The teachers' explanations given in the interviews why they thought the existing forms of assessment were sufficient.	188
Table 44. The proportions of controlling the interaction during the foreign language lesson declared in the questionnaires.	190
Table 45. The proportions of controlling the interaction observed during the foreign language lessons.	191

Table 46. The types of speech modification and body language of the foreign language teachers observed during the lessons.	191
Table 47. The observed situations when the speech modification and/or body language was used.	192
Table 48. The range of situations when teachers used speech modification and/or body language declared during the interview.	193
Table 49. Students' reactions to being exposed to speech modification and/or body language observed during the foreign language lessons.	194
Table 50. Types of interactions during elicitation observed during foreign language lessons.	195
Table 51. The ways of correcting students' errors/mistake observed during the foreign language lessons.	196
Table 52. Who made the corrections during foreign language lessons.	197
Table 53. The teachers' declarations regarding whether their students are able to control their own learning process (replies from the questionnaires).	198
Table 54. The teachers' opinions about how to improve learner autonomy (replies from the questionnaires).	199
Table 55. Examples of situations stimulating students' autonomous behaviour from the foreign language lessons.	200
Table 56. The examples of learner's autonomy declared by the teachers in the interviews.	201
Table 57. The ways of performing program evaluation declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one way).	202
Table 58. The ways of performing program evaluation declared in the interviews.	203
Table 59. The procedures of performing program evaluation declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one procedure).	204
Table 60. The procedures of performing program evaluation declared in the interviews.	205
Table 61. The teachers' justifications of positive opinions concerning program evaluation in their schools (included in the interviews).	206

List of figures

- Fig. 1. The crosstabulation for the examples of the foreign teaching goals followed in the foreign language lessons and declared in the questionnaires. 162
- Fig. 2. The crosstabulation of the results regarding the elements taken into consideration when planning lessons according to different models – declared in the questionnaires..... 164
- Fig. 3. Crosstabulation for the ways of performing program evaluation declared in the questionnaires..... 202

Introduction

After joining the European Union in 2004, Poland experienced major system transformations, including developments in foreign language teaching policy, which since that time has had to be in accordance with the mainstream EU language policy. As a result, not only a new system of school organisation was introduced, e.g. 6-year primary school, 3-year lower secondary school and 3-year upper secondary school, but also new types of foreign language examinations were introduced. As a consequence, both theoreticians and practitioners have been obliged to update and complement the range of approaches to the teaching of foreign languages in the classroom setting in order to adhere to the new legal requirements to meet the evolving needs of students. However, to the present author's best knowledge, it is unusual for Polish teachers to share good practice locally, let alone nationally or internationally, and the study reported in the present dissertation constitutes an attempt to initiate genuine discourse on exchanging best practices in the teaching of foreign languages between different countries. Another goal is to ascertain whether there are any differences between the teaching of foreign languages in the Polish and English upper secondary schools with an eye to proposing improvements in both settings.

Conducting a comparative exploration of the different educational systems, in Poland and England, particularly in view of the fact that English educational authorities are more experienced in EU language policy, seems to be of considerable value. An abundance of comparative studies focusing on, for example, general principles followed in particular educational systems, reform trends or more detailed aspects of foreign language teaching, such as forms of assessment, intercultural education, program evaluation, final exams and the role of a teacher, can provide important insights into the ways

in which such issues are handled in different contexts, shedding light on the similarities and differences between the foreign language policies in different countries. However, such comparative studies are useful mainly for educational authorities; what practitioners in Poland need, I believe, is more empirical research concentrating on the practical elements of foreign language teaching in different countries.

To date, the existing empirical comparative studies have been mainly conducted by such organisations as the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA 2011) with their outcomes, yet again, being more useful for the national authorities in terms of planning language policy, and not particularly helpful for teachers. Such studies usually contain a lot of statistical data but they lack information about the applied teaching methods and/or innovative teaching practices, which may be helpful for teachers. Without doubt, there is scarcity or even lack of empirical comparative studies carried out by practitioners for practitioners, the main goal of which would be to share good practices and improve learning from teachers from different countries.

Bearing all this in mind, the principal goal of the present author is to contribute to the improvement in the quality of foreign language teaching practices in upper secondary schools in Poland and England, as well as to assist Polish and English practitioners to update and adjust their teaching practices in line with the EU language policy requirements and recommendations. This will be achieved by exploring and discussing the similarities and differences between some elements of foreign language teaching in English upper secondary schools and upper secondary education in Poland. As a consequence, it is hoped that the main beneficiaries will be students whose needs may be better met. In this study, the following nine key elements of foreign language teaching in upper secondary schools were selected for examination primarily on account of the fact that they are often identified as the key elements of foreign language teaching (e.g. Brown 2004; Harmer 2002; Komorowska 2002; Long and Doughty 2011; Pawlak 2012, Ur 2002) These are as follows:

- the performance of foreign language teacher teams;
- the role of the principal as a leader in education;
- the model of foreign language lesson;
- foreign language teaching techniques and aids;
- the use of a coursebook;
- student assessment;

- classroom interaction;
- development of learner autonomy;
- the ways of conducting program evaluation.

The rationale behind addressing such issues was to provide a set of examples of good practice in Polish and English upper secondary schools that could be recognised by educational authorities and implemented by practitioners in order to improve the overall quality of foreign language teaching. Identifying the similarities and differences between different systems might aid the assessment of the suitability and efficacy of existing procedures and practices. It is hoped that a longer-term goal might be to encourage practitioners to be more reflective and inquisitive about their own foreign language teaching practices, as well as those adopted in other countries. All in all, both educational authorities and practitioners should seek inspiration and stimuli for new ideas concerning foreign language teaching, and exploring foreign educational systems in different countries could provide some incentives in this respect.

The present dissertation presents the results of an empirical comparative study which sought to compare the nine aspects of teaching modern foreign languages, listed above, in four general upper secondary schools in Poland and four sixth form colleges in England. The investigation involved both a pilot study and a main study. The former was designed to assess whether the students and teachers in Polish and English upper secondary schools were satisfied with the present structure and performance of their schools in a general sense. Following the analysis of the results of the pilot study, the methodology, instruments and the goals for the main study were developed.

The present dissertation consists of five chapters, the first three of which will deal with the relevant theoretical background, and the remaining two being devoted to the presentation and analysis of the data collected for the purposes of this study. *Chapter One* aims to examine how language policy in the broadest sense determines the actions of national language policy planners and policy makers resulting in the particular organisation of foreign language teaching in a specific country. Accordingly, the definitions and descriptions of general language policy principles are presented, followed by a presentation of the language policies of European Union regulations and requirements. Next, the comparative studies of Polish and English language policy issues are examined and discussed. The aim of *Chapter Two* aims to define and describe the process of program evaluation in foreign language teaching so that an in-depth comparison of the

ways in which such evaluation is conducted in Polish and English upper secondary schools can be made. The main focus of *Chapter Three* is to describe and compare different aspects of language instruction in the Polish and English upper secondary schools. The first part of the chapter is devoted to presenting and comparing the structure and organisation of Polish general upper secondary school system with that underlying English sixth form college system, since these two types of schools were the focus of the empirical investigation reported in this dissertation. Accordingly, the legal regulations, the structure and the organisation of foreign language teaching are presented. The first part of the chapter closes with a discussion of the similarities and differences between the organisation of foreign language teaching in both types of schools. The second part of *Chapter Three* identifies the rationale for the choice of certain elements of foreign language teaching that are the focal point of the research project. To be precise, it describes theoretical aspects of the organisation and performance of foreign language teacher teams as well as the theoretical models of the foreign language lesson. Moreover, the chapter focuses on the selection of teaching techniques and lesson aids that are proposed in the professional literature. Then the focal attention is shifted to the use of the coursebook and forms of student assessment that are provided by the theoreticians. Finally, some theoretical background information on classroom interaction and the ways of making learners autonomous will be presented. *Chapter Four* presents the design of the main study focusing in particular on the participants, the instruments and methodology of data collection. In addition, transcriptions, coding and analysis procedures are described. *Chapter Five* presents and discusses the results of the main research project conducted in four Polish upper general secondary schools and four English sixth form colleges. It intended to investigate similarities and differences of certain aspects of foreign language teaching between the two types of schools. In addition to this, the chapter includes evaluation of the overall outcomes of the main study and lays the basis for enumerating a set of examples of good practice in foreign language teaching in Polish and English upper secondary schools as well as some practical pedagogical recommendations in the conclusion to the entire dissertation.

This dissertation closes with suggestions for the ways in which instruction in both contexts can be improved. The main strength of the examples of good practice lies in the fact that they were observed in authentic foreign language contexts. It is the desire of the present writer through this dissertation:

- to contribute to better quality of foreign language teaching in Poland and England by providing innovative solutions from another country;
- to help Polish teachers to update and complement their teaching solutions in accordance with EU language policy recommendations and requirements through the observations of good practice in the more experienced country;
- to encourage Polish and English practitioners to be more reflective about sharing good practices locally, nationally and even internationally.

Chapter 1: Language policy

Introduction

The language policy of a country affects most fields of life of its citizens since it determines which language or languages are considered to be official ones and which might be deemed a second official language, and what additional languages will be recognised. Some scholars (e.g. Ricento 2006; Liddicoat 2013) have voiced the opinion that language policies presented in official documents and existing in more covert forms value official languages and, as a consequence, affect the future of society in a way desired by state authorities. As a result, the language policy of a particular state primarily influences the organisation and structure of foreign language teaching in schools at all educational levels.

The present dissertation reports original research comparing elements of foreign language teaching in upper secondary schools in Poland and England, and thus the language policies and foreign language policies of these countries provide the context in which the research and its results can be better understood. Therefore, the main objective of this chapter will be to present general as well as more detailed aspects of language policy and planning. Before launching a discussion of the language policies in the European Union, Poland and England, it is first necessary to define several key terms, which will aid the understanding of more specific descriptions of the particular language policy systems, namely: *language policy*, *language planning*, *language-in-education policy/language educational policy/language acquisition management*, *foreign languages policy/foreign language education policies*, *school language policy/language policy across curriculum*.

Logic dictates that since Poland and England are member countries of the European Union, the discussion should focus on the language policy and planning in the EU, which will be addressed in detail in the next section. In addition, the most influential EU documents relating to foreign language teaching principles, that is programs, frameworks concerning language-in-education policy and EU agencies and institutions that aim at implementing EU recommendations, will be enumerated and discussed. General principles of language policy and planning in Poland and England will then be described and compared in separate sections, with the emphasis being laid on the organisation and structure of foreign language teaching, and also the reforms introduced and current trends.

1.1. Defining language policy

Language policy has been a formal academic discipline since the 1960s (McKay 1996: 103) and since that time a lot of studies, which have drawn upon a multiplicity of related terms, have been published. Not surprisingly, in many publications some of the labels are used interchangeably while in others they are treated as separate concepts, with different meanings. For instance, the terms *language policy* (Cobarrubias 1983; Daust 1997; Jahr 1992; Liddicoat 2013; Lo Bianco 2006; Phillipson and Skutnabb 2011; Spolsky 2012), *language planning* (Cooper 1989; Haugen 1959; Liddicoat 2013; Wiley 1996), *language-in-education policy/language educational policy/language acquisition management* (Baldauf et al. 2010; Komorowska 2004; Liddicoat 2013), *foreign languages policy/foreign language education policies* (Liddicoat 2013; Spolsky 2012) or *school language policy/language policy across curriculum* (May 1999) are sometimes not interpreted in the same way. In view of such terminological confusion, it is important to provide clear definitions of the above terms and to discuss the distinctions between them so that it will be clear what they refer to in the present work.

It is fitting to begin the discussion by distinguishing between *language policy* and *language planning* in the broadest sense since the actions in these areas are the basis for the state's further steps related to education. Although the terms *language policy* and *language planning* are frequently used interchangeably, in fact they involve different forms of activities. In the first place, *language policy* may be considered as the out-

come of some preparatory work which is *language planning*, and in this sense, the two terms describe separate forms of a state's activities (Liddicoat 2013: 1-2). However, in the sense that *language policy* also involves *language planning* to manage its actions, they are interrelated (Liddicoat 2013: 2). Some researchers, however, see *language policy* simply as a more extensive scope of activities which embrace *language planning* (Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas 2011: 30). The adoption of a particular language/languages as a result of a state's official *language policy* can be seen as an instrument to unify the country and enable efficient communication between its inhabitants. When this is done to influence sociolinguistic norms, it is called *language planning* (Fettes 1997: 13-14).

As far as the concept of *language policy* is concerned, both Spolsky (2012: 5-6), Lo Bianco (2006: 740), Kennedy (2011: 2) and Liddicoat (2013: 2-3) associate this term with the government's deliberate action to decide on a language/languages to be taught; whatever the choice, it inevitably influences all aspects of life in the country, including the education sector (Liddicoat 2013: 2-3) and political and economic issues with the principal aim of providing the best possible solutions for the dominant and minority groups (Wiley 1996: 104). As a consequence, the authorities define the universal written and spoken patterns of the language/languages of instruction that must be followed by the members of the country (Jahr 1992:12-13, as cited in Wiley 1996: 109); the state's *language policy* aims, objectives and procedures are then the basis for *language planning* (Liddicoat 2013: 3). However, to use the words of Sallabank (2012: 119), *language policy* is also reflective of an ideology and a set of beliefs which, when documented in laws, influence every single member of a particular state. Moreover, *language policy* can be very dynamic and versatile in solving language problems in the country and it can shape the future of its citizens if it is implemented according to a thought-out plan (Jernudd and Nekvapil 2012: 16), but it may also be the cause of some political and social problems if it is not approved of by all groups in the country (McKay and Rubdy 2011: 10-11).

Although *language planning* is a term used frequently when defining *language policy*, it also has a quite separate meaning and relies on different actions. Fettes (1997: 14), Liddicoat (2013: 2), Haugen (1959: 8, as cited in Spolsky 2012: 24), Bright (1992: 310-311, as cited in Wiley 1996: 108), and Cooper (1989: 45, as cited in Wiley 1996: 110) state that *language planning* is a set of deliberate actions related to the role, struc-

ture and educational issues within a particular country and its inhabitants. Such actions involve the sociolinguistic aspects of a particular society and are also a kind of critical evaluation of the state's *language policy*. Logically, careful *language planning* seems to be indispensable in multilingual societies, where there is a dramatic need for solving communication problems. Taking all of this into account, the *language policy* of a particular country is understood in this dissertation as a set of the state's ideologies and beliefs about the usefulness of a particular language or languages to enable the members of the speech community to communicate efficiently in order to enhance the social, political and economic well-being. By contrast, *language planning* is viewed as a variety of actions conducted by the responsible authorities and institutions in order to implement and evaluate *language policy*.

There are three more specific labels that emerge from these two general terms, namely (Liddicoat 2013: 6-8; Baldauf et al. 2010: 240; May 1999: 231):

- *language-in-education policy*, which is sometimes called *language educational policy* or *language acquisition management*;
- *foreign languages policy*, which is occasionally named as *foreign language education policies*; and
- *school language policy*, also known as *language policy across the curriculum*.

When it comes to *language-in-education policy*, which will be used interchangeably with *language educational policy* and *language acquisition management* as these terms share a similar meaning, it is the state's determination of which language/languages have been chosen as first, second and foreign to be taught and/or learnt through the educational sector (Liddicoat 2013: 6; Baldauf et al. 2010: 240). As a result of such choices, the language/languages of instruction in schools is/are decided (Fettes 1997: 13). The obvious corollary of the state's *language educational policy* is that not only does it try to determine the national identity but also facilitates international cooperation (Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas 2011: 27). Komorowska (2004: 38) explains that *language educational policy* involves several steps, such as deciding upon the number and type of languages in schools, the way in which they are taught, including the curriculum and teaching methods, the role of foreign and minority languages, the system of examinations and certificates, as well as teachers' training and development. Boldizsár (2003: 10) refers to two varieties of *language-in-education policy*, namely *codified* and *not-codified versions*. In the former, language teaching is centralised, especially in the sense

of awarding legal certificates and qualifications, whilst the latter refers to the type of language teaching which is decentralised in all aspects of language education actions. To be more specific, Liddicoat (2013: 6) and other researchers (Baldauf et al. 2010: 238-240) refer to six dimensions of *language-in-education policy*:

- *access* – policies regarding which languages are to be studied and the levels of education at which they will be studied;
- *personnel* – policies regarding teacher recruitment, professional learning and standards;
- *curriculum and community* – policies regarding what will be taught and how the teaching will be organised, including the specification of outcomes and assessment instruments;
- *methods and materials* – policies regarding prescriptions of methodology and set texts for language study;
- *resourcing* – policies regarding the level of funding for languages in the education system;
- *evaluation* – policies regarding how the impact of language-in-education policy will be measured and how the effectiveness of policy implementation will be gauged.

In addition, Liddicoat (2013: 7) suggests four main types of scope of *language-in-education policy*, that is “official language education policies, foreign language education policies, minority language education policies and external language spread policies”. *Language-in-education policy* regulates the course of action for *foreign languages policy*, which varies from country to country and depends on the aims of the state’s educational programs and the demand for particular foreign languages regarded as the most useful for the society (Cenoz and Gorter 2012: 301). When it comes to a more precise explanation, *foreign languages policy* deals with the acquisition of such languages that are “official languages of other polities”, not spoken in the speech community as a rule, having no official functions in the target community, and which could be taught mainly through the educational system. (Liddicoat 2013: 7-8). It can reasonably be assumed that the last officially regulated stage of the state’s *official language policy* is *school language policy*, which is sometimes referred to as *language policy across the curriculum*. According to May (1999: 231), its narrow scope usually refers to a kind of document with an action plan which relates to the language requirements in a

particular school. If a *school language policy* is to be implemented successfully, it must rely on the cooperation of school community members (May 1999: 231).

In the light of the above discussion, in order to be able to compare elements of foreign language teaching in two different countries, first the *language policy* of particular states must be considered, followed by the *language-in-education policy* target background, then the state's *foreign language education policy* organisation and structure, and finally, the target *schools' language policy*. In the remainder of the dissertation these terms will be employed in accordance with the definitions given above.

1.2. Language policy and planning in the European Union

Having considered the terminological issues related to language policy and its current trends, some general aspects of European Union language policy will now be reviewed, including the main documents, programs, frameworks and agencies that have affected foreign language teaching systems in European Union countries.

In order to make the European Union language policy the most effective and beneficial for all the EU nations, four leading principles have been defined (Boldizsár 2003: 8):

- (1) *The defence of human rights, pluralistic democracy and the rule of the law*, which secures the status of minority and regional languages including *language-in-education policy*.
- (2) *The promotion and enhancement of cultural identity and diversity in Europe*, which also guarantees preservation of minority and regional languages.
- (3) *The search for solutions to problems in society*, which helps to solve variety of issues, including the language ones, in the most efficient ways.
- (4) *The development of democratic stability in Europe through support for political, legislative and constitutional reforms* which channel EU language policy towards particular ideologies and polities.

While there are many major and minor implications for the EU language policy which derive from the four main principles, for the sake of clarity, only eight EU language policy goals will be briefly explored. The first important aim of EU language policy that affects and shapes the foreign language teaching systems in member countries involves

removing internal linguistic boundaries and aims at facilitating national and international collaboration (Boldizsár 2003: 9; Liddicoat 2013: 61). In the view of EU officials, effective implementation of this aim will contribute to successful political and economic integration within the organisation and the means to achieve this goal include encouraging the member states to include the English language as the main foreign language in the national curriculum (Liddicoat 2013: 65).

The second EU language policy aim is to enable the creation of an effective European system of information (Boldizsár 2003: 9). What is also pertinent to EU language policy general goals is the adjustment of national foreign languages curricula so that widespread knowledge of foreign languages can facilitate global progress in various fields of life (European Council 2000: 1; Magnuszewska 2005: 10; Robichaud and De Schutter 2012: 139). Consequently, the more languages a EU citizen knows, the greater the chances of their international mobility in order to find a job or set up a business. Another EU language policy general principle, which is called *multilingualism* and *linguistic diversity*, influences the foreign languages teaching systems in the member states. According to it, all EU citizens should be trilingual (Ammon 2012: 589-590; Beacco and Byram 2003: 32; Komorowska 2007: 14; Krzyżanowski and Wodak 2011: 116). Such a stance has significant implications for the organisation of foreign language teaching in EU member states since it requires teaching at least two foreign languages at some stage of school education.

The next general aim of EU language policy is to promote cultural understanding among different countries through studying the foreign language with a strong emphasis on intercultural elements (Beacco and Byram 2003: 96; European Council 2000: 1; Liddicoat 2013: 60-63). Given the dramatic recent increase in migration from both within and beyond the EU region, this aspect of foreign language teaching may become increasingly important in promoting inter-cultural harmony. Another EU general language policy aim is to promote *lifelong language learning* where the necessity to improve language skills throughout the whole life is strongly emphasised since it enables constant enhancement of life conditions among EU citizens (European Commission 2003: 7; Krzyżanowski and Wodak 2011: 123). Finally, a further general goal of the EU language policy is to provide EU citizens with the opportunity for an early start to foreign language learning, which is justified by the results of some research which shows that “age factor can influence outcomes decisively” (Phillipson and Tove Skutnabb-

Kangas 2011: 36). In the subsequent subsection, the most significant EU documents concerning foreign language learning/teaching will be presented.

1.2.1. Foreign language learning situation in Europe

Teaching foreign languages is often an essential element of *language policy* and *planning* in a particular country. However, some researchers have identified direct and indirect factors which have a significant influence on *foreign languages policy*. For example, the globalisation of economic and political actions results in the choice of a particular language or languages for international communication whereas other influential elements include increase in lifelong learning of languages, which will be discussed in a more detailed way in the following section, and decentralisation of education in some countries (Baldauf et al. 2010: 241). Other indirect factors that also influence *foreign languages policy* in different countries are the growing tendency to consider foreign language knowledge as an important professional qualification as well as the dynamic development of modern information technology tools that facilitate international communication (Baldauf et al. 2010: 241). Furthermore, the changing structure of the workforce, increased international mobility, as well as changing attitudes and ambitions of young people toward work also subtly affect the *foreign languages policy* since individuals are more and more interested in learning foreign languages in order to fulfil their personal and professional goals (Baldauf et al. 2010: 241). The growing demand for learning languages encourages governments to adjust their *foreign languages policies* to address current trends and demands. Such factors, especially those leading to the choice of particular foreign languages, are critical to understanding the foreign language teaching systems in different countries when undertaking a comparative study.

To be more specific, the choice of foreign languages that are to be taught depends on their usefulness in the modern, highly globalised, world. The most frequently chosen, in the course of *foreign languages policy*, are the ones which enable widespread access to modern technology inventions, job opportunities, forms of entertainment and/or products of different cultures (Robichaud and De Schutter 2012: 126-127). As McKay and Rubdy (2011: 10) and many others aptly point out, English is the most popular foreign language that has gained a special status in *language-in-education pol-*

icy in numerous countries. In particular, it has become today's *lingua franca*, a language of international communication in the field of economics, politics, social issues and military science (European Commission 2011: 25; Réaume and Pinto 2012: 41; Ricento 2010: 128; Phillipson 2008: 261). Crystal (2007: 120-121; 1996: 106) emphasises some historical factors that explain the leading role of English as a *lingua franca*, namely the United Kingdom being:

- a colonial power in the seventeenth and eighteenth century;
- the initiator and facilitator of the industrial revolution in the eighteenth and nineteenth century;
- together with the USA, economic, electronic and Internet tycoons between the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

No other language has managed to arouse such intense interest and the teaching of English is included in the *language-in-education* official policies of many countries. Some researchers and official agencies (Crystal 2002: 1-2; European Commission 2011: 26) estimate that between 330 and 400 million people use English as a mother tongue; between 300 and 500 million people use it as a second language, and between 500 million and over a billion use it as a foreign language.

As for the implications for *foreign language policy in education*, the 2009/2010 *Eurydice/Eurostat* data reveal that more than 90% of students in general upper secondary education in Europe learn English as their foreign language as a mandatory and non-mandatory subject (European Commission 2012a: 11), with 98% secondary school students in Poland (Ośrodek Rozwoju Edukacji 2011: 19). It should perhaps be added that in European schools the remaining most popular foreign languages taught are German, which is widely taught in central and eastern European countries, and French, which is particularly popular in southern Europe (European Commission 2012: 11). The next most popular foreign languages are Spanish, Italian and Russian (European Commission 2012: 11). As for Poland, the second most popular language in general upper secondary education is German – 67.8%, then French 12.6%, followed by Russian, Latin, Italian and Spanish (Ośrodek Rozwoju Edukacji 2011: 19). As far as England is concerned, traditionally, the most popular foreign language in schools is French, which is learnt by slightly less than 30% of students, then German – about 10% and the third is Spanish – less than 10% (European Commission 2012: 77).

In order to compare elements of foreign language teaching in upper secondary schools in Poland and England, it is important to understand the factors behind the choice of foreign languages that are taught. For obvious reasons, English is not considered to be a foreign language in England. But, because English is so widespread, only a minority of British upper secondary school students learn a foreign language. Such a stance may limit the progress of the whole country, which could be faster and more effective if its citizens were bilingual or trilingual.

1.2.2. Documents related to foreign language learning/teaching

The primary focus of this subsection will be on a range of documents relating to language education which underpin the overall set of EU standards and recommendations for foreign language teaching and which shape the national foreign language policies in particular countries. Only the documents most relevant to language education will be considered; those concerning multilingualism or general principles of EU language policy, for example, will be omitted because they are not of significance to main research goals of this study.

At the very outset, it is fitting to discuss the provisions of *Teaching and learning: Towards the learning society*. This document emphasises the need for each EU citizen to know at least three European Union languages, including the mother tongue, and also recommends creating a universal assessment system, highlighting the importance of foreign language knowledge in vocational training. It also recommends an early start to the teaching of the languages used in the EU (European Commission 1995: 47-48) to increase the overall intellectual potential of children, enabling greater mobility across the EU and facilitating understanding of culture issues (European Commission 1995: 47-48).

Another EU document that needs to be mentioned is *Council Resolution of 31 March 1995*. This document develops and builds upon ideas focusing on the necessity of improving the quality of foreign language teaching in schools and placing emphasis on developing communicative skills within the cycle of education (European Council 1995: 1-3). Additionally, some means of achieving such general objectives are suggested, such as promoting:

- a balanced development of four basic skills at school;
- innovative methods at all levels of education;
- an early start of children's language education;
- support for adult foreign language education;
- measures relating to teachers' education and performance.

Another significant document related to foreign language policy, the *Council Resolution of 16 December 1997*. This document attaches primary importance to the question of an early start in foreign language teaching/learning in compulsory education (European Council 1997: 1). The reasons for taking such measures are explained in detail, and then some guidelines are listed, such as international schools' cooperation within the EU countries, developing adequate teaching materials and preparing teachers to cope with teaching young children (European Council 1997: 2).

In the overall presentation of the most influential documents that have given shape to the foreign language teaching policies in EU member countries the *Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe* must be mentioned. This *Guide* was prepared in order to serve as a kind of tool or framework for the analysis of national education systems regarding language teaching with the special emphasis on plurilingualism (Beacco and Byram 2003: 8). It is stressed throughout the document that member states might have different language policies that are more adequate for their internal needs, but they must all serve the main purpose which is enabling each individual to acquire a certain number of foreign languages in order to be more mobile and flexible in the whole territory of the European Union as far as the economy, social issues and culture are concerned. Furthermore, the national identity aspects of each individual must be respected (Beacco and Byram 2003:109). In addition to this, a later *Executive version* of this document was published which replaced the former one and included reflections and suggestions that appeared during the consultation period (European Council 2007: 3). The latter document emphasises that the language policies of EU countries ought to facilitate the learning of several languages for all citizens throughout their life and it gives advice how to maintain language education with a view to developing diverse and plurilingual societies (European Council 2007: 7).

Among many influential documents relating to foreign language policy, there is also an *Action Plan for the years 2004-2006*. Although it may seem somewhat outdated, this document laid solid foundations for the European Union key aspects of language

policy that have been incorporated by the EU countries. The chief recommendations for language teaching were included and they concerned all stages of the education cycle, such as the suggestion of introducing at least one foreign language at the earliest stage of primary education and at least two foreign languages at the secondary level with the emphasis on developing autonomous skills in order to enable students to learn in and outside the classroom environment (Commission of the European Communities 2003: 7-8). In this approach, teachers are encouraged to relate foreign language knowledge to the native language so as to make learners aware of the similarities and differences between the languages; as a result it is proposed that learning further languages might be contributing to *receptive multilingualism* (Commission of the European Communities 2003: 9).

Last but not least, the *Content and language integrated learning* will be briefly considered. This document derived from the idea of Canadian *immersion teaching* which gained popularity in the 1970s and 1980s, it is still reasonably widespread, and achieved enormous success (Ellis 2012a: 260-261). This way of teaching can be described in the following way:

It may be regarded as 'early' or 'late' depending on the age of the children for whom it is intended. It may be considered 'total' if the entire curriculum is taught in what is termed the target language, or 'partial' if that language is the language of instruction for just some subjects. These different approaches are a reflection of the rich variety of linguistic and educational environments, as well as the varied ambitions and aims of pupils or their parents and the education authorities. (European Commission 2006: 7)

Following its huge success, in the 1990s the approach laid the foundations for *content and language integrated learning* and has been incorporated ever since in many countries. In Poland and England, for example, it has been introduced under such labels as *bilingual teaching*, *CLIL* and *bilingual learning* (European Commission 2006: 67). The initial recommendations to promote innovative foreign language teaching methods and improve the general quality of language teaching were included in many previous EU documents, but at the May 2005 Education Council the idea of employing *CLIL* at different levels of the educational cycle was highlighted together with the recommendation of providing language teachers with special training in *CLIL* (European Commission 2006: 9).

1.2.3. European Union programs, frameworks and other facilitators of foreign language learning and teaching

There is an abundance of European Union programs, frameworks and other facilitators of foreign language learning and teaching that have contributed to the particular organisation and structure of language education in EU member states. For obvious reasons, it is impossible to present and discuss all of them in detail. Thus, the most influential ideas will be briefly mentioned so as to shed some light on the background of language education and structure in Poland and England.

One of the main EU was introducing the *European Year of Languages 2001* and then the annual *European Day of Languages 26 September* (Ammon 2012: 590), both of which were based on principles summarised in previous EU documents. These included (European Council 2000: 3):

- encouraging EU citizens to acquire a whole range of foreign languages in order to improve both economic and personal abilities;
- promoting intercultural understanding so as to prevent phenomena, such as xenophobia or racism;
- facilitating the idea of lifelong learning to maintain a high quality of life.

It was as a consequence of this that the *European Day of Languages 26 September* was established in the Parliamentary Assembly Recommendation in 2001 (Council of Europe 2001a: 1). In addition to this, the *Council Resolution of 14 February 2002* included four chief principles, which have been mentioned above, continuing to emphasise the role of learning foreign languages by EU citizens in developing integration of the Union and providing social and economic prosperity of EU inhabitants (European Council 2002: 2).

An important EU initiative that has affected all the areas of European Union language policy is the action program established in 2006 concerning *lifelong language learning*. In the European Union decision document of 15 November 2006, *lifelong learning* was defined as referring to formal and informal actions related to general and vocational education as well as different forms of training and individual actions throughout life that bring about progress in varied fields of professional and personal life of EU citizens (Council of Europe 2006: 50). Thus, *lifelong language learning* is emphasised as one of the most efficient means of facilitating the general lifelong learn-

ing process since acquiring a variety of languages throughout the whole life can provide an individual with many opportunities (Council of Europe 2006: 46). In addition to this, four sectoral sub-programs were named in the document that would support *lifelong learning* initiatives, including learning languages, at different stages of life.

In the first place, the *Comenius* program was directed at children between the pre-school and upper secondary education level including the agencies and organisations that deal with this level of education (Council of Europe 2006: 50). The most general goal of this program was to improve the European education system through the international cooperation of educational institutions. The detailed aims of this program concerned promoting cultural understanding and knowledge among students and teachers from different European countries as well as helping young people gain basic skills and competences necessary to be a citizen who is flexible and well prepared for professional life in the future (Foundation for the Development of the Education System 2011: 2). On top of that, promoting learning languages was an indispensable element of this program as it was based on international cooperation.

Similarly, the *Erasmus* program was dedicated to formal higher education and vocational education and training (Council of Europe 2006: 50). The program itself supported all actions concerning international cooperation between institutions of higher education including student and teacher exchanges, participation in apprenticeship schemes, organisation of international projects and tertiary education level employees' improvement programs (Foundation for the Development of the Education System 2012: 7; Członkowska-Naumiuk 2012: 90).

The third program, *Leonardo da Vinci*, was aimed at those involved in teaching and learning at the vocational and training level, excluding tertiary education (Council of Europe 2006: 50). The detailed goals covered promoting mobility in the European Union work market and supporting innovative projects that dealt with improving the quality of education and professional qualifications; it was clear that language education seemed to be key in improving the links between the education and job market needs (Foundation for the Development of the Education System 2012-2013: 1).

The fourth program is the *Grundtvig* program, which dealt with varied forms of adult education including the agencies and institutions involved in this level of education (Council of Europe 2006: 50). The main goals of this program constituted response to the overall demographical situation in Europe and some problems that were likely to

appear because of the phenomenon of aging of the European population (Foundation for the Development of the Education System 2012a: 1). As a result, the *Grundtvig* program aimed to support adults in the development of knowledge and skills including language learning so that people could cope with the demands of the job market throughout their professional life (Foundation for the Development of the Education System 2012a: 1).

The main strength of the European Union language policy lies in creating and introducing frameworks that unify and recommend important guidance concerning foreign language teaching. For example, the document, *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR)*, aims to unite European Union language policy including the educational systems implemented in different countries. In the introduction to the document, its goals are summarized in the following way:

The Common European Framework provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe. It describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. The description also covers the cultural context in which language is set. The Framework also defines levels of proficiency which allow learners' progress to be measured at each stage of learning and on a life-long basis. (Council of Europe 2001: 1)

Thanks to these guidelines, international cooperation in the field of teaching foreign languages is possible, enabling the recognition of language qualifications internationally, which in turn leads to greater mobility and flexibility of the European Union citizens (Council of Europe 2001: 1). Three basic language policy principles were taken into account while creating the *Common European Framework* (Council of Europe 2001: 2), namely:

- (1) The main goal of language policy should be taking advantage of the diverse European languages and culture, making the member societies more mingled, richer but still tolerant and cooperative.
- (2) Language learning is the key to eliminating communication barriers among EU citizens of different nationalities and interact with a variety of language users as well as learn about different cultures.

- (3) Employing the overall guidance for modern foreign language teaching by member countries contributes to success with respect to international cooperation.

Three general measures are provided in the framework to help implement the main principles. In the first place, all citizens in a particular EU country should, regardless of age, be provided with the opportunity to learn foreign languages effectively (Council of Europe 2001: 3). The second measure is related to supporting both teachers and learners in the process of acquiring foreign languages by adjusting the syllabus to their individual needs and characteristics (Council of Europe 2001: 3). Finally, conducting educational research as well as introducing innovative methods in language teaching should be facilitated with a general view to improving the language teaching quality (Council of Europe 2001: 3).

One of the most important goals concerning language policy included in the *CEFR*, the importance of methods of modern language teaching to promote learner autonomy (Council of Europe 2001: 4). To be more precise, learners are expected to participate actively in their learning processes, cooperate with foreign language teachers and other learners in order to negotiate the choice of teaching process, and also work independently outside the language classroom (Council of Europe 2001: 144-145). Trzcińska (2009: 84) points out, the results of the survey conducted by the European Council in 2005 revealed that the *CEFR* recommendations were most widely used when creating coursebooks, adjusting teacher training system and, importantly, creating tests and varied forms of final examinations. The role of descriptors defined in the *CEFR* is very significant in this respect alongside practical hints included in the *Manual for Relating Language Examinations to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Trzcińska 2009: 85-86). The descriptors include three levels of proficiency, namely the *Basic Level (A1 and A2)*, *Independent Level (B1 and B2)*, and *Proficient Level (C1 and C2)* (Council of Europe 2001: 24).

The *European Language Portfolio* seems to be one of the most important facilitators of language learning and self-assessment. The rationale behind creating The *European Language Portfolio* was to develop a companion piece to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* and it is “designed to mediate the *CEFR*’s approach to language learners” (Little 2011: 9). Its two main goals are documenting the language learning process and its effects and making students more reflective about their role in the process (Pawlak 2006a: 46). However, generally speaking, it is also an

important European Union project which helps to implement its language policy by fostering respect and understanding for other cultures and lifestyles as well as promoting linguistic and cultural diversity on the continent (Pawlak 2006b: 62). Each portfolio produced by an individual is his or her property and must comprise three parts, that is the *Language Passport*, the *Language Biography* and the *Dossier*. The *Language Passport* consists of three sections, such as “a list of language skills divided into the levels of proficiency”, records of the language learning and acquiring the target language culture and “a list of attestations, certificates and diplomas which confirm the competences and skills possessed as well as the intercultural experience gained” (Pawlak 2006d: 9-10). The *Language Biography* aims at making learners more autonomous since it relies mainly on a systematic summary of their language learning experiences and exploring other cultures and nationalities (Pawlak 2006a: 46). In the *Dossier*, a student chooses and collects both his or her outstanding and average pieces of language work such as projects, audio or video recordings (Pawlak 2006d: 73). Thanks to such systematic and varied ways of reflection, students have a chance to become aware of the fact that learning a foreign language is not limited to the school environment and it can take place in many other places and contexts (Pawlak 2006a: 46-47). The first portfolio was created in Switzerland and since that time many other European countries have created their own language portfolios; France, Russia, Germany, the Czech Republic, Great Britain, Ireland, Hungary, Holland, Sweden, Portugal, Austria, and Italy, Poland has also joined this list (Pawlak 2006c: 13).

In addition to developing frameworks which provide clear guidance for EU member states on foreign language teaching, the need for objective and universal language progress measure systems led to the creation of the *European Indicator of Language Competence* whose aim was to set the rules of how to measure effectively the execution of EU language policy goals (European Commission 2005: 3). This was incorporated into the *Framework of the European Survey on Language Competences*, which was established in order to conduct the first survey of its kind (European Commission 2007: 2-3). As a result, the first *European Survey on Language Competences* was undertaken in 2011 in fourteen European countries and it revealed rather low results of linguistic competence for second foreign language knowledge in the majority of European countries (European Commission 2013a: 1).

Other facilitators of EU language learning initiatives include the *European Language Label*, which is an award given to individuals who promote innovations in foreign language teaching and share examples of good practice (European Commission 2013: 1). Then, there are research programs that concern foreign language teaching or multilingualism, such as *Language Dynamics and Management of Diversity (DYLAN)*, whose aim was to “identify the conditions under which Europe’s linguistic diversity can be an asset for the development of knowledge and economy” and which was established under the *Framework Program 6* of the European Union and lasted between 2006-2011 (Dylan 2006: 1). Another research program is *Effects on the European Economy of Shortages of Foreign-language Skills in Enterprise (ELAN)*, whose main motivation was to conduct research that would contribute to the stimulation of economic growth and employment in the European Union countries. The main assumption of the project was that the widespread knowledge of foreign languages was the key to accomplishing this goal and the aim was to lay a basis for the future foreign language policy movements (European Commission 2005: 8). In addition, there is a new edition of the EU program called *The Erasmus+ Program*, which started in January 2014, and deals with education, training, youth and sport for the period of 2014-2020 (European Commission 2014: 9). This program replaced all the previous initiatives, such as *Lifelong Learning, Erasmus, Leonardo da Vinci, Comenius and Grundtvig* and its mission statement is the direct result of the integration of the aforementioned EU programs (Foundation for the Development of the Education System 2013-2015: 1). The *Erasmus+ Program* has got three Key Actions, namely (European Commission 2015: 1):

- *Key Action 1* – learning mobility of individuals;
- *Key Action 2* – cooperation for innovation and the exchange of good practices;
- *Key Action 3* – support for policy reform.

During the first year of implementation the program seems to have delivered at the expected level. It is reported that the majority of the activities were successfully launched in 2014, and the introduced innovations were well absorbed although with some faults which were identified at the level of strategic partnerships (European Commission 2015: 1).

1.2.4. European Union agencies and institutions involved in foreign language learning and teaching

In order to understand the detail of European Union language teaching policy, it is necessary to identify the most important agencies and institutions that develop the main laws, guidelines and recommendations. One crucial body is the *European Commission* which is the European Union's executive institution and represents the interests of Europe as a whole (European Commission 2013b: 1). As far as languages in the European Union are concerned, the *European Commission* recommends the ideas that have been previously mentioned in the present paper together with the policies and educational programs (European Commission 2013c: 1). The *European Commission* is active at supporting EU countries in developing new educational tools which may help school-graduates have better language skills (European Commission 2016: 1). In addition to this, the Commission facilitates the collection of adequate data in order to monitor progress in language teaching and learning (European Commission 2016: 1) and it rewards innovation in language learning and teaching (European Commission 2016: 1).

Another important body is the *Council of Europe* whose role is to determine the overall EU's political direction and priorities with the exception of passing laws (European Union 2015: 1). As far as language policy is concerned, it focuses mainly on facilitating linguistic diversity and formal language learning. Its *Language Policy Unit* in Strasbourg is the executive body which places a lot of emphasis on language policy development and program implementation (Council of Europe 2012: 1).

Another institution related to the *Council of Europe* is the *European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML)* in Graz which helps educational practitioners in member states with both theoretical and practical aspects of language education policies including foreign language teaching (ECML 2013: 1). The Strategic Objectives of the *ECML* include: "focusing on the practice of the learning and teaching of languages, promoting dialogue and exchange among those active in the field, training multipliers, and supporting program-related networks and research projects (ECML 2015: 1).

Other important institutions that deal with language education policy are the *European Parliament* with the *Committee on Culture and Education*, the *Council of the European Union* and the *Committee of the Regions* with the *Commission for Education, Youth, Culture and Research* (European Union 2013: 1). The *European Parliament* can

accept, reject or recommend amendments to a legislative initiative, including *language policy* issues (European Parliament 2015a: 1). The *Committee on Culture and Education* is responsible for all the cultural aspects of the activities of the EU including linguistic diversity *lifelong learning* and the *Erasmus+* program for education, training, youth and sport (European Parliament 2015: 1). The *Committee of the Regions* is a consulting agency for the European Commission, the Council of the EU and the European Parliament with regards to drawing up legislation issues including education (European Union 2015:1) and its *Commission for Education, Youth, Culture and Research* provides a forum for representatives from local and regional authorities to cooperate with EU institutions and exchange examples of good practice in the determined fields (European Union 2015b: 1).

1.3. Language policy in Poland

The overall language policy in Poland follows the laws and recommendations of the European Union and the Polish Constitution. In general, according to Article 27 of the Polish Constitution, the official language is Polish. However, the rights of language minorities are fully respected (The Constitution of the Republic of Poland 1997: 7). To be more specific, according to Article 9 of the October 7 1999 Bill, the Polish language is the language of instruction in all types of public and independent schools; however, it is possible to use other languages if it is required by international laws, decrees and agreements (Candelier 2004: 100; Chancellery of the Sejm 1999: 1). The general language policy in Poland has a profound impact on foreign languages education policy in the country. Accordingly, this policy is implemented by the Ministry of National Education and the main goal of foreign languages education policy is to enable the young generation to participate in cultural and scientific achievements of the European Union, and share valuable elements of Polish research, culture and history (Ministry of National Education and Science 2005-2006: 9). In sum, the official agencies in Poland which are responsible for general language policy and foreign languages education policy must respect both national and EU requirements and expectations. Now that the general aspects of Polish language policy have been briefly introduced, it is time to pre-

sent the details of the organisation and structure of foreign language education in Poland.

1.3.1. The organisation and structure of foreign language teaching in Poland

The official agency responsible for the organisation and structure of foreign language teaching in Poland is the Ministry of National Education which publishes the national curriculum containing all the required details (Council of Ministers 2006:1). The latest national curriculum, which was issued in 2009, places great emphasis on developing communicative skills at all levels of foreign language education (Ministry of National Education 2009: 10). The specific goal of foreign language education is defined as achieving written and oral language proficiency, and to accomplish this goal all key stages of primary and secondary education had to be adjusted (Ministry of National Education 2009: 14). Although *language accuracy* is considered to be significant, it does not override other important elements (Ministry of National Education 2009: 61). The latest national curriculum highlights the importance of *key competences* regarding *lifelong language learning*, such as learning skills, information and technology competences, social skills and cultural awareness (Ministry of National Education 2009: 62). To take account of these developments, the Polish version of the *CEFR* document was adapted to adjust the requirements to the Polish settings (Ministry of National Education 2009: 62).

In Poland, the first foreign language is introduced at the very beginning of primary school and students continue to learn this language throughout the period of lower secondary education stage. Following the EU recommendations, at a lower secondary level of education, a second foreign language should be introduced, English is recommended as one of them (Ministry of National Education 2009: 10-11). Furthermore, at the upper secondary level, students can just continue to learn the two previously chosen foreign languages or carry on learning one of them and start another from scratch. Importantly, there are some official recommendations that students should have the widest possible choice of foreign languages and that they should participate in a language group with students of similar levels of foreign language ability (Ministry of National Education 2009: 10-11). It is also recommended that, language education from the

lower secondary school level onwards ought to be conducted on the basic and extended levels, and, at the end of lower secondary school education, the expected level, according to the *Common European Framework* recommendations, should be A2 or A+ (Parr-Modrzejewska 2012: 3).

The key aim of such a structure of foreign language teaching to provide continuity of language education throughout the whole educational cycle (Parr-Modrzejewska 2012: 3). For the upper secondary basic school level, the desired level of proficiency is B1 and for the extended level learners are expected to achieve B2 (Ministry of National Education 2009: 60). In summary, all of the steps taken within the whole educational process in foreign language teaching should enable students to acquire an adequate range of vocabulary as well as confidence in the language (Parr-Modrzejewska 2012: 4). Language learners ought to be able to comprehend and process oral and written texts as well as produce adequate oral and written messages on their own (Parr-Modrzejewska 2012: 4).

It is interesting to reflect on how foreign language teaching at the upper secondary level in Poland compares with the main European Union standards and recommendations. Although the main principles and guidelines of the European Union are followed in Polish upper secondary foreign language teaching, there are some shortcomings related to finance, staff and the number of teaching hours, which adversely affects the full achievement of the goals set by the Polish Ministry of Education (Fituch 2007: 156-158). On average, Polish upper secondary students are taught two foreign languages, most often English, followed by German, French, Russian and finally Italian and Spanish (Fituch 2007: 156-158).

Adherence to the European Union recommendations and solutions in Poland, the organisation of language education varies from region to region; local authority's decisions and in-school initiatives may have an impact on the number of teaching hours, foreign exchanges, module teaching and miscellaneous organisational solutions (Fituch 2007: 160-163). As for the national language curriculum, there are some similarities and differences with other European countries. The Polish Ministry of National Education is responsible for the basic national curriculum together with foreign language teaching standards which constitute a point of reference for institutional or individual syllabus content that are then implemented in the teaching process. The main differences between Poland and other European countries lie in the types of institutions that are re-

sponsible for creating and monitoring curricular decisions, the composition of social groups that participate in creating the curriculum as well as the development of the final implementation through a pilot stage (Fituch 2007: 165).

In common with many European countries, there is no obligatory set of rules on teaching methods or how instruction should be conducted; however there are some recommendations and suggestions, related, for example, to the need for reliance on the communicative approach (Fituch 2007: 170). In the majority of introductory comments of officially issued curricula and/or syllabi, there are brief recommendations on the preferred teaching methods and techniques. For example, while introducing vocabulary related to a specific topic, it is recommended to present it in the widest possible meaningful context. In addition, when teaching simple grammatical structures, the inductive approach is often suggested, but with more difficult grammar a more deductive approach is often recommended (Fituch 2007: 170-171). Finally, there are restrictions on the choice of foreign language coursebooks. In common with other European countries, in Poland the educational and legal validity of foreign language coursebooks is assessed by independent experts who are chosen on the basis of the recommendation of universities, science and research institutes or the Polish Academy of Sciences. If a particular textbook is thus approved, it is officially accepted for school use by the Ministry of National Education and has an appropriate endorsement (Fituch 2007: 172).

The outcomes of students in foreign language learning are determined by examinations and the organization of these examinations is decided. The chief institution responsible for all major aspects of coordinating and conducting these examinations is the Central Examination Board which is supervised by the Ministry of National Education (The Central Examination Board 2012: 1). This body is responsible, *inter alia*, for preparing foreign language final examination sheets (Central Examination Board 2012: 1). The Central Examination Board, together with other agencies, draws up exam specifications, analyses and evaluates exam results, coordinates activities of eight District Examination Boards, creates and publishes resource materials for teachers, and initiates and supports innovations regarding forms of assessment (Central Examination Board 2012: 1). In addition to this, eight District Examination Boards organise and manage final external foreign languages examinations within the boundaries of a specific district (District Examination Board 2012: 1).

There exists one national pattern of foreign languages final examinations at the upper secondary level. The overall mastery of foreign languages is tested at the basic and extended levels, and, critically, it is obligatory for all the students to take the basic examination level as a minimum. The mandatory stage is composed of a written component as well as an oral exam. If students choose a modern foreign language as an additional subject, the examination is only at the extended level. The oral and written parts are assessed separately and students may choose whether to take an oral exam or not (The Central Examination Board 2013d: 7-8).

The compulsory written part of the examination at the basic level lasts 120 minutes. This examination sheet includes listening, reading, the use of English vocabulary and grammar structures as well as a writing task where writing relies on creating a text, such as an e-mail, an informal letter or a blog entry. This part of the exam is assessed by an external body (The Central Examination Board 2013: 16-18). The oral part of the final foreign languages examination can also be chosen as a compulsory or additional subject but there is no distinction in terms of level and it is assessed by a panel of subject examiners at the home school (The Central Examination Board 2013d:7-83). The oral exam includes 4 tasks, three of which are formally assessed, namely acting out a conversation with the examiner, describing and discussing a picture, and finally a short presentation and discussion based on stimuli material. There is also a warm-up conversation with the examiner which is not formally assessed. The overall timing of the oral exam is about 15 minutes (The Central Examination Board 2013: 11-13).

The written extended final examination lasts 150 minutes, and consists of tasks focusing on listening, reading, recognising grammar structures and lexis, the use of grammar-lexical structures, and writing, where a student has to choose one out of the two options which could be writing a composition, an article or a formal letter. The papers are assessed by external examiners outside the school (The Central Examination Board 2013: 18-19). The legal basis for the final examinations timetable is provided in the *Journal of Laws* where article 61.1 states that the final examinations including foreign languages are scheduled only once a year from May to September (Journal of Laws 2007: 5060).

1.3.2. Reforms and current trends

Since 1990 five major reforms have been introduced which have affected foreign language education in Poland. Komorowska (2004b: 34) mentions the 1990 educational reform that abolished Russian as a mandatory foreign language and introduced the freedom of choice between two foreign languages. Another 1990 reform concerned teacher training and led to the creation of teachers' language colleges of university and non-university types, whereas between the 1992-1996 the higher education reform established Bachelor's studies in philology in state schools of higher professional education and universities (Komorowska 2004b: 34-35). The fourth major reform, undertaken in 1999, lowered the age of starting foreign language education to the fourth grade in primary school and it changed the assessment and examination systems in Poland (Komorowska 2004b: 35). The latest 2009 educational reform lowered the age of starting foreign language education to the first grade in primary school, changed the foreign languages national curriculum and the requirements and criteria of recommended foreign language coursebooks (Ministry of National Education 2009: 8). Finally, some changes were implemented in the written part of the foreign languages final examinations structure starting from 2015. They involved altering the way of calculating summary results of particular skills, introducing tasks checking grammar-lexical knowledge at the basic level and modifications in the range of writing tasks at both levels (The Central Examination Board 2013: 16-18). The latest project of the new educational reform was presented by the Minister of National Education on 16 September 2016. It is planned to establish the eight-year primary school and, among other types of secondary schools, the four-year general upper secondary school system (Ministry of National Education 2016: 1).

1.4. Language policy in England

Discussing the language policy in England is fully warranted if we wish to set a background against which further comparison of certain elements of foreign language teaching between Polish and English upper secondary schools can be attempted. Although the overwhelming majority of the population in England speaks English, there are no

languages recognised as official on a statutory basis, since it has not been considered as necessary (U.S. English Foundation Research 2013: 1). Legal provisions have only been made to support and maintain some minority or regional languages (U.S. English Foundation Research 2013: 1). In the following sections, an attempt is made to present the organisation and structure of foreign language teaching in England including reforms and current trends in foreign language education.

1.4.1. The organisation and structure of foreign language teaching in England

The official body responsible for education to age 18 is the Department for Education. There are five key stages in the British educational system and different regulations for teaching modern foreign languages are applied at each stage. The first stage is called the *Early Years Foundation Stage*, the main aim of which is to provide children from birth to 5 years of age with activities to facilitate their overall development. There are seven areas of main focus at this stage but modern foreign languages are not included (Governmental Digital Service 2012: 1).

This is followed by primary education which consists of two key stages. *Key Stage 1* relates to children between the ages of five and seven whereas *Key Stage 2* concerns children between seven and eleven years of age. Interestingly, at this level, teaching foreign languages is compulsory at *Key Stage 2* but where primary schools decide to teach foreign languages at *Key Stage 1*¹ there are some non-statutory guidelines that they may follow (Department for Education and Employment 1999: 142). It is emphasised that introducing a foreign language at such an early age can be beneficial from a linguistic, cultural and social point of view but schools should consider carefully the aims and objectives for foreign language teaching, the possible choice and the starting age of the students, access to properly trained teachers, the provision of sufficient teaching hours and continuity and progression once the language education is started (Department for Education and Employment 1999: 142). The principal goal of such early learning should be “understanding and using the foreign language” and the teaching of foreign languages should be linked to other subjects (Department for Education and

¹ For *Key Stage 2*, the label foreign language is used whereas for *Key Stage 3*, the label modern foreign languages is employed (Department for Education 2013: 1).

Employment 1999: 43). Four levels of proficiency are described for each language skill that would help to evaluate children's progress, including *listening and responding*, *speaking*, *reading and responding* and *writing* (Department for Education and Employment 1999: 144-146).

For *Key Stage 2*, however, some statutory guidelines apply. These include (Department for Education 2013: 1):

Learning a foreign language is a liberation from insularity and provides an opening to other culture. A high-quality languages education should foster pupils' curiosity and deepen their understanding of the world. The teaching should enable pupils to express their ideas and thoughts in another language and to understand and respond to its speakers, both in speech and in writing. It should also provide opportunities for them to communicate for practical purposes, learn new ways of thinking and read great literature in the original language. Language teaching should provide the foundation for learning further languages, equipping pupils to study and work in other countries.

The detailed aims of teaching foreign languages include helping pupils with understanding and responding to spoken and written language from authentic contexts as well as developing speaking and writing skills. Special emphasis is put on boosting pupils' speaking confidence, fluency and spontaneity together with improving accuracy of their pronunciation and intonation. As far as writing skills are concerned, the aim is to make students "write at varying length, for different purposes and audiences, using the variety of grammatical structures that they have learnt" (Department for Education 2013: 1).

Key Stage 3 covers lower secondary education between the ages of eleven and fourteen. At this stage learning modern foreign languages is obligatory in England (Department for Education and Employment 2004: 108). The main teaching goals, related to "acquiring knowledge and understanding of the target language", include providing "the principles and interrelationship of sounds and writing in the target language", grammar rules and their application and the ways of expressing thoughts in the target language with the help of a range of lexis and structures (Department of Education and Employment 2004: 108). Furthermore, language-learning skills as well as cultural awareness must be developed in the language learning process (Department for Education and Employment 2004: 108-109). Finally, at this level, schools have to provide instruction in one or more of the official languages of the European Union but non-European Union languages are also allowed (Department for Education and Employment 2004: 109).

The final stage of lower secondary education is *Key Stage 4*, which concerns students between fourteen and sixteen years of age. Compulsory subjects are English, mathematics, science, information and communication technology (ICT), physical education and citizenship. Although modern foreign languages must be offered at every school, they have not been compulsory subjects on this level since 2004; but rather they are regarded as an entitlement area (Department for Education and Employment 2004: 202-203); every school must offer students at *Key Stage 4* the opportunity to study a modern foreign language. At the end of *Key Stage 4*, students are required to take the General Certificate of Secondary Education examinations in every chosen subject including one or more foreign languages (Department for Education and Employment 2004: 202-203). Interestingly, an incentive for schools at *Key Stage 4* to promote learning foreign languages was the introduction of the English Baccalaureate (EBacc) in 2010, which has become an important school performance measure (Department for Education 2016: 1). This measure of the schools' overall performance reveals how many students have a grade C or above, commonly known "a good pass", in each of the five core subjects defined as English, maths, sciences history or geography and a modern language (Department for Education 2016: 1). As a result of this development, some schools require pupils to take a GCSE in a language, even though it is not an official government requirement in order to achieve a higher score in the EBacc performance tables.

Until 2013 education in England after *Key Stage 4* was not compulsory. However, legislation was passed to extend the participation age to 17 in 2013 and to 18 in 2015; this is often referred to as raising the participation age (Department for Education 2012: 1). As a result, students can undertake a full-time apprenticeship, part-time education whilst being employed for up to 20 hours a week or continue their full-time education in a variety of upper secondary schools including sixth form colleges and further education colleges; this level of education is now formally called *Key Stage 5* (Department for Education 2012: 1) and responsibility for it rests with the Department for Education (European Commission 2012c: 1). All the subjects in sixth form colleges are electives and students are generally required to choose a minimum number of three or four examination subjects with modern foreign languages usually being on offer. After one or two years of education, students can take exams such as *Advanced Subsidiary* and then *A2* that together comprise *A Level*. Moreover, some lower types of examina-

tions are also available, for instance, GCSE (The Sixth Form College Farnborough 2012: 9-14). There is no national curriculum for post compulsory education, and teaching methods and teaching aids are chosen by teachers after consultation with the principal and other senior teachers; in the case of teaching foreign languages, the head of the modern languages department in a particular school will play an influential role in these decisions. In addition, it is the individual teacher's responsibility to prepare lesson plans and make sure that they provide sufficient opportunities for students with a variety of needs and learning styles. There is no obligation to use specific coursebooks; however, the ones recommended by particular examination boards are most often chosen (European Commission 2012b: 1).

There are three main examination boards which conduct final foreign languages upper secondary examinations in England, with both in written and oral assessments. All the boards set their syllabus and assessment structure in accordance with approved criteria determined by The Office of Qualifications and Examinations Regulation (Ofqual), a government agency which oversees assessment (Ofqual 2012: 1). As has been stated above, modern foreign languages, like all the other upper secondary subjects, are optional, with the result that only upper secondary students take them as *Advanced Subsidiary*, *AS*, which is an intermediate advanced level and *A2*, which is the extended level. The two exams taken give the full qualification which is called the *Advanced Level* (*A Level*) and the name of the final certificate is *General Certificate in Education*, *GCE*. In other words, a student can take an *AS* only or *AS* and *A2* to have a full qualification called *A Level* or *GCE* (Education Advisers 2009: 1).

Because the examination boards must comply with the requirements set by Ofqual, the structures of the *AS* and *A2* final examinations in modern foreign languages are very similar. Assessment and Qualification Alliance, *AQA*, is an examination board which emerged from the northern universities in the UK; it is an education charity and a "not-for-profit" organisation, any surpluses being invested in the mission of the board. Its mission statement declares that it aims to "bring out the best in students and teachers by providing services that lead to inspiring lessons and great learning" (Assessment and Qualification Alliance 2012: 1). To be more specific, the board's responsibility is to provide GCSE and GCE examinations including modern foreign languages, issuing progress tests and final examinations as well as training teachers and supporting them professionally (Assessment and Qualification Alliance 2012: 1). For the final form of

AS examinations in modern languages, four main topics are obligatory with some sub-topics. The written part of the exam lasts two hours and covers listening, reading and writing, where a student answers one question out of three introduced, and he or she has to produce a piece of minimum 200 words (AQA 2007: 8). The oral part lasts thirty five minutes and consists of two components, such as “discussion of a stimulus card” and a conversation (AQA 2007: 10). As far as the A2 level is concerned, two out of five cultural topics are compulsory together with three more general issues. The written part, which lasts two and a half hours, covers listening, reading and writing, where one piece of writing with a minimum of 250 words must be provided (AQA 2007: 12). The oral part, which takes thirty five minutes, includes a “discussion over a stimulus card” and a conversation (AQA 2007: 14). The specification provided by this examination board is in accordance with 1988 Resolution of the Council of the European Community and facts regarding the target culture (AQA 2007: 28).

Edexcel which is a Pearson company claims to be the biggest awarding examination board. This agency offers “academic and vocational qualifications and testing to schools, colleges, employers and other places of learning in the UK and internationally” (Edexcel 2012: 1). The AS level comprises written and oral exams which are assessed externally. The written part consists of listening, reading and writing and lasts two and a half hours. The writing task relies on producing a letter, report or article of about 200-220 words (Edexcel 2010: 5). As for the oral part of the AS examination, it covers one of the four obligatory topics and it lasts from eight to ten minutes. There are two tasks and in the first of them a student has to respond to four questions included in the examination set while in the second question he or she must discuss an issue with the examiner and all the procedures are recorded and sent to the Edexcel centre (Edexcel 2010: 4). There are two components of A2 examinations, including written and oral exams, assessed externally. Listening, reading and writing tasks are included in the written section which lasts two and a half hours. For the writing part, a “research-based essay in the target language is required with the word amount between 240-270” (Edexcel 2010: 7). The oral part, which lasts from eleven up to thirteen minutes, involves presenting the chosen issue including expressing and justifying the opinion, following which a spontaneous discussion is conducted. The whole procedure is recorded and sent to the Edexcel centre for official assessment (Edexcel 2007: 6).

Oxford, Cambridge and RSA Examinations, OCR is the third English examination board. It is also a not-for-profit organisation and is wholly owned by the University of Cambridge; its main task is to provide academic and professional qualifications (OCR 2012: 1). There are slight differences in the structure of the exams, in the written part in particular, between OCR and AQA and Edexcel specifications. First, the written part of the AS, which lasts two and a half hours, consists of listening and writing as well as reading and writing activities, and there is no separate writing section for this stage (OCR 2008: 11). Consequently, there are two tasks in the AS oral section in which a student has to act out a role-play conversation with the examiner and discuss a specific topic, and the whole procedure lasts fifteen minutes (OCR 2008: 11). Finally, there are three sections in the written part of the A2 examination which are listening and writing, reading and writing, and writing an essay, while in the oral A2 part students have to discuss a given article and talk about one or two sub-topics related to the article area (OCR 2008: 12). The general timetable for both AS and A2 final examinations, including modern foreign languages, is determined by the *Joint Council for Qualifications*, which is an organisation which deals with exams administration, and states that the final examinations are scheduled twice a year in January and June (Joint Council for Qualifications 2013: 1).

Table 1. Assessment objectives for AS and A level defined by Ofqual (Ofqual 2011:5).

Assessment objectives		Weighting		
		AS level	A2 level	A level
AO1	Understand and respond, in speech and writing to spoken language	35-40%	25-30%	30-35%
AO2	Understand and respond, in speech and writing to written language	35-40%	45-50%	40-45%
AO3	Show knowledge of and apply accurately the grammar and syntax prescribed in the specification	25%	25%	25%

Although the structure of the final examinations in modern foreign languages differs slightly from one examination board to next, there are three main assessment objectives that must be obligatorily followed by all the three boards (see Table 1). To start with, the first two assessment objectives state that students must be able to understand and respond in speech and writing to spoken and written language while the third

objective requires from students to “show knowledge of and apply accurately the grammar and syntax prescribed in the specification” (Ofqual 2011: 5).

1.4.2. Reforms and current trends

Since 2000, there have been some education reforms and government interventions that have affected the teaching of modern foreign languages and there are also issues under discussion that may result in further changes in the official educational language policy in England. A document which triggered many changes in the English foreign language teaching system was issued in 2002 and outlined the objectives and necessary steps which should be taken within the following ten years to improve the quality of foreign language teaching in England (Department for Education and Skills 2002: 4). Three chief goals to be achieved within a decade were set in this document. These are as follows (Department for Education and Skills 2002: 5):

- to improve teaching and learning of languages, including delivering an entitlement to language learning for pupils at Key Stage 2, making the most of e-learning and ensuring that the opportunity to learn languages has a key place in the transformed secondary school of the future;
- to introduce a recognition system to complement existing qualification frameworks and give individuals credit for their language skills;
- to increase the number of people studying languages in further and higher education and in work-based training by stimulating demands for language learning, developing Virtual Language Communities and encouraging employers to play their part in supporting language learning.

Another significant document that has influenced the directions of changes in the foreign language teaching system in England is *Languages Review*, which was essentially a guidance document that includes a package of measures intended to motivate students to choose foreign languages as school subjects (Department for Education and Skills 2007: 4-5). The document, which is aimed at school governors, headteachers, local authorities and teachers, assessed the current progress in implementing the guidelines and recommendations offered by the European Union but also suggested the actions that were intended to encourage more *key stage 4* and *5* students to engage suc-

cessfully in the study of modern foreign languages (Department for Education and Skills 2007: 4-5).

There have been ongoing changes to the National Curriculum since 2011 and the “core subjects” have been listed with core programs and targets. As a result, modern foreign languages have been defined as “foundation subjects” which should have “significant but refined and condensed programs of study with minimal or no attainment targets” (Department for Education 2011: 25). In the same document, the necessity of introducing instruction in compulsory modern foreign languages teaching at the upper *Key Stage 2* is emphasised and the possibility of extending this to the lower *Key Stage 2* is being considered as well as to *Key Stage 4* (European Commission 2012c: 1). The Education Secretary Michael Gove consulted on a reform that would require all English children to learn a foreign language from the age of seven, in response to his concern at the dramatic decline of taking-up foreign languages by *Key Stage 4* and *Key Stage 5* students in England. Such a significant decrease in the number of students taking up modern foreign languages is said to be a direct result of the government education reform of 2004 when modern foreign languages were removed as obligatory subjects to be taken as part of GCSE (Richardson 2011: 1) and renamed as entitlement subjects. The national consultation concerning Gove’s reforms lasted between 6 July 2012 and 28 September 2012, and revealed overall acceptance of this idea. The new reforms were officially implemented in September 2014 as predicted by Vasagar (2012: 1). On the basis of the outcomes of the consultations, a new proposal emerged for primary schools according to which language instruction should focus on one or two out of the following: French, German, Italian, Mandarin, Spanish or a classical language for students at *Key Stage 2* (Department for Education 2012: 1).

1.5. Similarities and differences of the organisation and structure of foreign language teaching in Poland and England

For the sake of clarity, pointing out the similarities and differences concerning the organisation and structure of foreign language teaching in Poland and England seems to be of significant importance as this will serve as a point of reference for making further comparisons in this field between both countries.

The most significant similarity is the fact that both Polish and English education systems follow the recommendations and guidelines of the EU concerning foreign language teaching, which have been listed in the 1.3 section of this chapter. This reflection of the EU standards is particularly evident in the content of the national curriculum in each country and is frequently addressed by the agencies responsible for drawing up foreign languages specifications. However, English education authorities appear to be more experienced in dealing with the EU foreign language teaching standards since this country joined the European Union in 1973, 31 years earlier than Poland accession in 2004. Secondly, both countries have quite a similar structure of final examinations and both have a basic and extended level of final examinations. In addition, there are supervising agencies in both countries which strive to guarantee that the legal regulations adhere to the national laws; there are also ongoing reforms in both states which are intended to improve the quality of foreign language education.

One of the most critical differences concerns the age of completion of compulsory education, which is now 18 in Poland and different in England. Following the changes introduced by the *Education and Skills Act 2008*, from 2015 English students must either continue formal education until they are 18 or apply for an apprenticeship or traineeship (Government Digital Service 2015: 1); in neither case is there a requirement to study a foreign language. This distinction is crucial since all Polish students are taught foreign languages for a longer period of time than in England.

Teaching and learning foreign languages is obligatory in Poland throughout all the stages of compulsory education whereas in England it is obligatory only between the ages of 7 and 11, the new *Key Stage 2* requirement, and 11 and 14 which is reflective of the provisions of *key stage 3*. Obviously this particular difference must have a huge impact on the effectiveness of foreign language teaching in both countries. It seems certain that because of the continuity of 12 consecutive years of being taught foreign languages, Polish students obtain great chances of mastering at least two foreign languages whereas in England opportunities for foreign language mastery are more limited. In addition to this, a foreign language is obligatory as a final exam subject in Poland at every level of education whereas in England it is always an individual choice of a student. Needless to say, this may have serious implications for students' both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and their willingness to invest effort in learning foreign languages.

Another difference is related to the way in which different parts of the final examinations in foreign languages are assessed. In the first place, the oral and written parts of such an exam are assessed jointly through a single grade in England and separately in Poland. Moreover, the fact should be emphasized that there is a national curriculum for teaching foreign languages in Poland throughout the whole cycle of formal school education while in England the national curriculum is obligatory only at certain key stages. This indicates that foreign language teaching tends to be more centralised in Poland.

Conclusion

The principal aim of this introductory chapter has been to provide a backdrop for further discussion, research findings and pedagogical recommendations that will be explored and provided in the subsequent chapters. In particular, the significance of the guidelines and recommendations advanced by the European Union in determining final national and schools' language policy has been demonstrated. In addition, the sometimes confusing terminology concerning general and detailed aspects of language policy issues has been explored and explained, followed by a brief presentation of current trends in European foreign language teaching. Subsequently, the general principles and ideas of European Union language policy have been presented together with the description of some documents, institutions and facilitators regarding foreign language teaching. Finally, language policy issues in Poland and England have been considered and the organisation and structure of foreign language education in both countries have been compared and contrasted.

The overwhelming conclusion is that, despite all the efforts and reforms, foreign languages teaching policy in England appears to be inadequate. Because modern foreign languages are compulsory only at *Key Stages 2* and *3*, students may be deprived of a chance to develop superior mastery in this area. This suggests that British workers may be less able to compete successfully in the international market with other EU citizens whose countries may have more effective foreign languages policies. However, English is the most widely studied second language in the non-UK countries in the European

Community, and some might argue that the necessity for foreign language learning among native English-speakers is less important

The overview presented in this chapter suggests that a description of a foreign language educational system in any of the European Union countries should take account of the EU general and more detailed language policy principles and recommendations. If a language policy is undertaken, it is important to establish the exact meaning of specific concepts, which may differ between countries. It is also of significant importance to understand the context of schools and colleges within the framework of their country or region; and to understand the language policy issues in the light of national directives. An analysis of a language program should thus focus on teaching and learning processes as well as the ways in which students' outcomes are measured.

Chapter 2: Program evaluation

Introduction

There is a broad consensus that evaluation in education is of considerable value for the overall development of this sector. It seems to be logical that in order to check the effectiveness of the language policies advanced by the European Union, initiatives embodying program evaluation should be conducted. Consequently, as mentioned at the very end of the previous chapter, program evaluation is frequently viewed as an integral element of many European Union educational programs. Additionally, performing regular program evaluation in foreign language education is of vital importance in monitoring the current role of the programs within the existing European Union language policy frameworks and setting directions for future developments related to overall foreign language policy issues.

The aim of the present chapter is to discuss aspects of program evaluation that could contribute to better understanding and improving such evaluation in the teaching and learning of modern foreign languages in Polish and English upper secondary schools, which is the subject of this dissertation. In the first place, the general concept of evaluation will be defined with a subsequent focus on language program evaluation. Next, some key terms such as *evaluand*, *evaluators*, *stakeholders* and *metaevaluation* will be defined. Attention will then be shifted to aims, principles, standards and criteria of program evaluation together with such important concepts as *measurement*, *description*, *judgement* and *responsive constructivist evaluation* (Ciężka 2012: 70). This will be followed by the presentation of the models and types of language program evaluation, their main characteristic features and description of organisations that officially deal

with issues involved in evaluation in European Union countries, including Poland and England. The chapter will close with listing and elucidating the stages in designing and performing program evaluation.

2.1. Defining language program evaluation

There are many definitions regarding *language program evaluation*, but before discussing them, in order to be able to understand better the subtle meaning of this term, it seems reasonable to present the most general definitions of the term *evaluation*. At the very outset, some space will be devoted to a brief presentation of the dictionary definitions of this concept. In the first place, *evaluation* is defined as “assessment, defining value” (Tokarski 1980: 205), “establishing value and price of something; judging, assessing” (Szymczak 1978: 562), thinking “carefully about something before making a judgement about its value, importance, or quality” (*Macmillan English dictionary for advanced learners* 2002: 471), calculating or judging the value of something (*Longman dictionary of English language and culture* 1992: 438), “determining the merit, worth or significance of things; a report of such determination” (Mathison 2005: 235), and, forming “an opinion of the amount, value or quality of sth after thinking about it carefully” (Wehmeier 2000: 428). In addition, the Latin definition of *evaleo/evalere* means “be able to” (Brzezińska 2000: 94). Although there are slight differences between these general definitions, all of them lead to the conclusion that evaluation is a complex process that requires thorough examination of the situation before making final judgements as to the usefulness and/or value of the subject of interest, and this is how the most general meaning of the term *evaluation* will be understood and used in the present work.

Scholars have understood the term *evaluation* as a process that is aimed at assessing the value of various enterprises (Hogan 2003: 421; Sechrest and Figueredo 1993: 650; Ciężka 2005: 3; Owen 2007: 9). In a broader sense, *evaluation* is defined as a systematic endeavour to collect sufficient information so as to draw valid conclusions and make judgements or decisions regarding the subject under investigation. The process itself must rely on such procedures that will enable the decision-makers to find out about the efficiency of a venture and/or implement changes to improve its quality (Brzezinska 2000: 94; European Funds Portal 2014: 1; Komorowska 1999: 86-88;

Lynch 1996: 2; Nedkova 2004: 206; Oleszak 2010: 153). Evaluation is also defined in European Union documents as aiming at improving “the quality, effectiveness and consistency” of EU programs and ongoing legislation (Council of the European Union 2006: 26) but the definitions are mostly applied to the use of EU funds. In the present dissertation, the term *evaluation* will cover the broader meaning of this concept.

Language program *evaluation* may concern a variety of actions that are undertaken in foreign language education, such as the evaluation of a foreign language curriculum, teaching materials evaluation, course evaluation, language teachers’ evaluation or syllabus evaluation. Thus, the definitions provided below will relate to any of the educational activities of this kind. In its basic meaning, language program evaluation is the process of collecting, processing, analysing and interpreting the data in order to make judgements about the value of a concrete program (Brown 1995: 24; Chelimsky 1997: 246; Cohen and Manion 1995: 275-277; Hedge 2000: 351; Kelly 2011: 160; Mizerek 2010b: 21; Murphy 1985: 4; Nevo 1997: 62; Norris 2006: 579; Patel 2010: 15; Richards 2012: 4; Zohrabi 2012: 62). To extend this brief definition, language program evaluation ought to be focused on investigating the overall productivity of the program, and on no account should it be limited to assessing learners’ achievements (Zohrabi 2012: 63). Likewise, after making judgements about the value of a program, some changes or alterations might be recommended to stakeholders so that its objectives can be attained in more efficient ways (Kiely 1999: 99; Nunan 1999: 185; Rea-Dickins and Germanine 1992: 3). Closely related to such characteristics is the concentration on possibilities of improving the value of the program which may include deciding whether the investigated program should be continued or terminated, enhancement of the program by modifying its structure, adding or removing certain teaching techniques, redirecting the program into a different context, considering the application of different programs, as well as approving or disapproving of the program’s philosophy (Komorowska 1995: 46). Olejniczak (2008: 17) emphasises three features of program evaluation which distinguish evaluation from other forms of assessment, such as *monitoring* or *audit*. Firstly, evaluation relies on exploring the program and all the phenomena related to it. Next, program evaluation is aimed at supporting the stakeholders in their need for information and should facilitate positive changes and improvements of the interventions. Thirdly, evaluation supports learning, interactions and negotiations of all program users (Olejniczak 2008: 17).

Thus, language program evaluation refers to various aspects of language teaching and it may be defined in various ways. As Kiely and Rea-Dickins (2005: 5) comment:

It is part of the novice teacher's checklist to guide the development of initial lesson plans and teaching practice, a process of determining learning achievements or student satisfaction, and a dimension of the analysis of data in a formal evaluation or research study. It refers to judgment about students by teachers and by external assessors; the performance of teachers by their students, program managers and institutions; and programs, departments and institutions by internal assessors, external monitors and inspectors. Evaluation is about the relationship between different program components, the procedures and epistemologies developed by the people involved in programs, and the processes and outcomes which are used to show the value of a program – accountability – and enhance this value – development.

In the light of the above definitions, the term *language program evaluation* will be used in the present work to cover a variety of educational activities performed by teachers and/or educational authorities whose aim is to appraise the value of the program through careful, and, preferably, systematic, collection of necessary information and then making final judgements and recommendations concerning its utility. Finally, a set of guidance rules can be created which will facilitate making the most of the program.

There are four key notions related to language program evaluation which will be referred to throughout the whole chapter, namely, *evaluand*, *stakeholders*, *evaluator* and *metaevaluation*. The term *evaluand* refers to the subject of evaluation whose worth is being investigated, which could be program, personnel, policy, materials and/or process (Owen 2007:9). For instance, when assessing the overall performance of an organisation, the *evaluand* is the educational institution; such assessment may also focus on particular aspects of a particular institution (Cieźka 2010a: 58), perhaps in order to study a problem or make a diagnosis of what prevents a school, the *evaluand*, from achieving certain goals (Cieźka 2010a: 58). When dealing with educational program evaluation, the quality of its goals may be evaluated together with the quality of its plan, the extent to which it has been implemented and the validity of its results (Nevo 1997: 56-57). In addition, the *evaluand* could be school syllabuses, teaching methods, instructional materials and even administrative personnel (Nedkova 2004: 208). Finally, the *evaluand* could also refer to classroom-based processes (Kiely and Rea-Dickins 2005: 248), which, includes both the content and the achievement of the objectives and learning activities (Patel 2010: 11).

Stakeholders may be defined as groups of interest for whom the outcomes of a program will be important, and they may be the primary and/or secondary users and participants of the program (Kiely and Rea-Dickins 2005: 11; Owen 2007: 69, Rodriguez-Campos and Rincones-Gomez 2013: 11). Additionally, they may need the outcomes of the program evaluation to make plans and adequate choices (Weiss 1986: 186-187). Although stakeholders can be classified in different ways, they typically include three main groups, such as teachers, students, principalship, students' parent and school partners; policy and/or decision makers and researchers (Kasprzak 2010: 68; Rossi et al. 2004: 408). According to another typology, there are four groups of stakeholders: *clients*, whom the outcomes will affect; *suppliers*, who deliver the funds and resources; *competitors/collaborators*, which are mainly other institutions of similar performance; and *regulators*, who are supervising agencies (Aspinwall et al. 1992: 84-85). Guba and Lincoln (1989: 40-41) provide another typology of stakeholders, namely; *agents*, who are engaged in producing, using and implementing the subject of evaluation; *beneficiaries*, who profit from the program evaluation outcomes; and *victims*, who experience the negative effects of the program evaluation.

Those who evaluate are known as *evaluators* and the efficiency of evaluators is said to contribute highly to the success or failure of program evaluation. In this study, the evaluator will be defined as a person or group of people who have been chosen to estimate "officially the worth or value or quality of things" (*The Free Dictionary* 2014: 1). Scholars have defined the most desired characteristics of a good evaluator as possessing adequate knowledge about conducting research and research methods (Ciolan 2010: 77; Drozd and Piotrowska 2010: 85; Nevo 1997: 60). An efficient evaluator should also possess the ability to relate program evaluation to the social background context, should have good interpersonal skills and personal integrity, ought to have sense of objectivism, managerial and organisational skills, as well as reliability (Ciolan 2010: 77; Drozd and Piotrowska 2010: 85; Nevo 1997: 60). Evaluators can be classified into certain types, such as *insiders*, who are members of the institution being evaluated who possess profound knowledge of the inner context and processes and there are *outsiders*, who do not belong to the institution and usually conduct program evaluation on behalf of the educational authorities (Nedkova 2004: 207; van Lackerveld 2010: 77). According to another typology, there are *professional evaluators*, with formal training, and *amateur evaluators*, either with some on-the-job training or none; within this con-

text some combinations are possible, such as *internal-amateur*, *external amateur*, *internal-professional* and *external-professional* (Nedkova 2004: 207; Nevo 1997: 61).

When it comes to the term *metaevaluation*, the definition proposed by Stafflebeam (2001: 185) is applied for the purpose of the present research, namely, “the process of delineating, obtaining, and applying descriptive information and judgemental information-about the utility, feasibility, propriety and accuracy of an evaluation and its systematic nature, competent conduct, integrity/honesty, respectfulness, and social responsibility-to guide the evaluation and/or report its strengths and weaknesses.” A further discussion on metaevaluation will be provided in one of the subsequent subsections.

2.2. Aims, principles, standards and criteria of program evaluation

The goal of a program evaluation is to find answers to key questions so that necessary improvements can be made. Wider benefits, however, can follow such as integrating the groups which constitute a particular educational institution or improving performance within the groups as a result of useful outcomes that derive from program evaluation. Further benefits may include increasing the overall motivation within a group and encouraging a disposition to innovations, changing attitudes to a more desirable behaviour, including the enhancement of morale among staff who might identify more with the institution since they will be more insightful themselves. Another advantage may be the encouragement of ongoing professional development as well as self-evaluation. Finally, the benefits may also include overall organizational improvement of the educational institution as a consequence of applying evaluation outcomes (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 63; Mazurkiewicz 2010d: 17; Owen 2007: 127).

The need to understand the intricacies of program evaluation requires assigning its principles to certain historical time periods and scientific approaches. In the first place, the beginnings of evaluation activities date back to the times between the nineteenth and twentieth centuries when efforts were related to measuring students' achievements solely or measuring psychological phenomena with the use of specially designed tests (Ciężka 2012: 70). The initial theoretical background for program evaluation was established by the works of Taylor (1947), Fayol (1952) and Urwick (1953).

However, the frameworks they created were initially applied in industry and engineering in the USA (Kiely and Rea-Dickins 2005: 20). Guba and Lincoln (1989: 22) define this period as *the first generation of evaluation: measurement*. The theory underpinning program evaluation, is largely that of Ralph Tyler (1950) (Kiely and Rea-Dickins 2005: 20). Tyler's views on program evaluation were influenced by behavioural psychology and thus, he recommended the use of quantitative methods (Watanabe et al. 2009: 7). For example, he opted for the use of large-scale quasi-experimental studies, which focused mainly on learning achievements and theoretical comprehension of the particular program rather than on program improvement or teacher development (Watanabe et al. 2009: 7). As Ciężka (2012: 74) explains, Tyler recommended eight stages for program evaluation:

- (1) Creating a list of goals of the evaluated program.
- (2) Selecting the most desirable goals which could bring about positive effects thorough the program.
- (3) Reflection on desirable and expected behaviours of program participants.
- (4) Preparing objective and reliable measuring tools for each goal.
- (5) Checking subjects' background knowledge before the intervention.
- (6) Analysing the results in order to learn about the strongest and weakest points of the program.
- (7) Creating hypotheses regarding the reasons for the program failures.
- (8) Program modification and repeating the whole process.

The next period of evaluation development was defined as *the second generation of evaluation: description* (Guba and Lincoln 1989: 27). The theoretical frameworks for program evaluation were expanded in the 1960s through the works of Hilda Taba (1962), who pointed out that evaluation should not implement a strict set of rules and procedures in order to check the efficiency of the program. In her view, some additional, unpredicted and unplanned issues ought to be taken into account emerge in the evaluation process (Kiely and Dickins 2005: 21). Interesting proposals related to program evaluation were advanced by Robert Stake (1967), who dealt with the issue of who should assess school programs and acknowledged that there were many social groups which were entitled to this including parents, teachers and taxpayers. He did not reject the opinions of highly qualified specialists, though. He stated that the final as-

assessment ought to be achieved by way of compromise and mutual agreement rather than a judgement passed by an individual evaluator (Simons 1997b: 70).

Guba and Lincoln (1989: 29) consider the year 1967 as the time of emergence of *the third generation evaluation: judgement*, where an evaluator acts as judge and assesses whether the objectives are worthwhile. The theoretical approaches to program evaluation evolved even more in the 1970s and *the fourth generation of evaluation: responsive constructivist evaluation* was developed (Cieężka 2012: 77). A set of powerful ideas enhancing the effectiveness of program evaluation appeared to be the suggestions of Worthen and Sanders (1973) and Popham (1973), who concentrated on *worth* in the evaluation of a program and made use of human and material resources (Kiely and Rea-Dickins 2005: 27). Stufflebeam's (1971) work, *Context, Input, Process, Product* model (CIPP) concentrated upon the provision of information for decision makers through analysis of the strong and weak points of the program. Careful choice of the means through which the aims of the program are to be evaluated are needed, and several techniques can be employed in order to perform the evaluation. Finally, an assessment of how far the aims of the program are attained must be undertaken before recommending whether the program itself should be terminated or continued (Mathison 2005: 60; Zohrabi 2012).

As frequently pointed out in the literature, since the 1980s interest in qualitative approaches to program evaluation has grown rapidly, which resulted in more focus on improving ongoing programs (Sechrest and Figueredo 1993: 652). Guthrie's (1982) small-scale ethnographic study is of particular relevance for illustrating the ongoing changes in the views on approaches towards program evaluation (Lynch 1996: 22). In the same vein, Lee Cronbach's (1980) work proposes involving all possible parties in the process of program evaluation together with debating and negotiating the outcomes (Simons 1997b: 66-70). In the 1990s, the tendency in language program evaluation saw a gradual shift from quantitative methods toward qualitative ones; examples of relevant studies are Patton's (1997: 61) *utilisation-focused* evaluation, which relied on the principle that an evaluation ought to be useful for its stakeholders, who should be involved in the majority of phases of the program evaluation, and Lynch's (1996) *pragmatic approaches*, which emphasised expanding the range of program users in the evaluation process (Ross 2011: 757). In summary, program evaluation is an evolving process and the 1990s trends have continued until the present day.

As mentioned in the introductory part of the present chapter, some information about the standards of program evaluation will now be provided. In the first place, sixteen professional associations identified four main principles that should be followed while conducting a program evaluation. These include (Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation 2014: 1):

- *utility*, which requires that program evaluation outcomes should serve the needs of stakeholders; such users must be specifically identified, and the evaluators should manifest utmost credibility and professionalism; broad and varied data should be collected in order to make judgements; the methodology of the process of program evaluation should be chosen carefully; the report that is created afterwards ought to be informative as well as understandable; and there should be no delays in providing outcomes;
- *feasibility*, which depends upon the evaluation being effective and efficient; in order to achieve this goal adequate project management strategies should be employed as well as practical procedures and the needs of stakeholders ought to be recognised and followed;
- *propriety*, which means that the evaluation must be proper, fair, legal, right and just;
- *accuracy*, which requires collecting relevant and technically correct data; all the procedures should be documented in a clear and accurate way; the analysis should be deep and thorough; all the information included must be valid and reliable.

Keeping these important points in mind, the names of the organisations which deal with evaluation in the European Union countries, together with Poland and England, will be presented below. In the first place, it seems logical that all national program evaluations in the EU countries must follow the guidelines and recommendations provided by the European Commission, the Council of the European Union and the European Parliament (Library of the European Parliament 2013: 1; Stern 2009: 68). Although the definitions of evaluation provided by the official EU institutions cover a wide variety of EU programs and projects, their core principles are respected and incorporated by the EU member countries, and apply also to educational programs. As far as Polish official institutions that deal with evaluation are concerned, the Polish Evaluation Society is the most responsible body (the Polish Evaluation Society 2012: 1). Its mission statement covers promoting essential information about the value of evaluation

practices, facilitating the cooperation between the evaluation community members and upholding the proper standards of evaluation (the Polish Evaluation Society 2012: 1). In education in Poland the latest System of Evaluating Education includes principal actions aimed to support the Polish educational system in all possible areas with special emphasis being placed on the quality of teaching and supporting long-life learning (Nadzór Pedagogiczny. System Ewaluacji Oświaty 2014: 1). In England, the most recognised national official organisation founded with the aim of dealing with evaluation theory and practice is the United Kingdom Evaluation Society (UKES 2012: 1). In education, the chief organisation that is entitled to perform and/or supervise evaluation in English schools is the Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted 2014: 1).

Apart from the officially recognised general standards, it should also be noted that a set of more specific criteria is usually applied in order to analyse the data gathered during program evaluation, and to arrive at final conclusions. Ciężka (2005a: 17; 2010a: 60) enumerates five most commonly applied examples of evaluation criteria, namely *effectiveness*, which helps to assess the degree to which the goals of program evaluation have been accomplished; *efficiency*, which deals with cost-benefit issues; *utility*, which seeks to determine whether the intervention brought about elimination of problems and benefited the stakeholders; *relevance*, which is related to whether the goals and applied methods are suitable to solving specific problems and/or fulfil the needs of clients; and, finally, *sustainability*, which helps to establish if the final results of the program evaluation will be long-lasting. In-depth knowledge and understanding of at least basic aims, principles, standards and criteria are indispensable if program evaluation is to be designed and performed successfully.

2.3. Models and types of language program evaluation

As was mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, language program evaluation can be related to many aspects of language teaching activities, ranging from evaluating a particular school to assessing foreign language teachers. Hence, the models of program evaluation in a general sense will be presented in this section, followed by listing and discussing different typologies regarding evaluating different foreign language teaching

activities. The present section will not deal with all possible models and types of evaluation but it will mainly concentrate on such models and types that are closely related to foreign language program evaluation

Among the wide range of models of program evaluation, House (1997) has established eight models which are most frequently applied:

- *system analysis*, which relies on quantitative methods in order to assess whether the program is successful or not and if it has achieved its goals (House 1997a: 102);
- *behavioural objectives/goal bases*, where the data from evaluation is compared with standards and criteria so as to determine whether the program is efficient or not (House 1997a: 102);
- *decision-making*, which emphasises the necessity of providing sufficient information for stakeholders in order to make strategic decisions about the future of the program (Green and South 2006: 14; House 1997a: 102);
- *goal-free evaluation*, which is intended to discover unintended outcomes and no preset goals of the evaluation are presented to evaluators beforehand (Green and South 2006: 14; Perloff et al. 1976: 574; House 1997a: 104);
- *art criticism*, which is based on the assumption that assessing a specific program in the way that art critics assess a work of art can enable stakeholders to gain overall awareness of the program in order to make appropriate decisions (House 1997a: 107);
- *professional review*, which aims at holistic assessment of the program in a certain field of profession; the leading standards and criteria are drawn up by professionals from the same field, and evaluators are also professionals representing the same field of knowledge; at school, for instance, the aim could be to motivate teachers to perform regular self-evaluation and then checking the results through inspections (House 1997a: 110-111);
- *quasi legal evaluation*, which relies on simulating trial procedures and involves identifying disputable issues, as well as presenting them to program users in order to narrow the number of issues. It also involves preparing arguments, and finally analysing and questioning the evidence (House 1997a: 111-113);
- *case study/transaction*, which is focused on assessing the process of program implementation and how it is perceived by the program users; qualitative methods dominate in this model and the presentation of how the program users perceive it is

essential to enable stakeholders to make adequate decisions (House 1997a: 114-115).

Naturally, the models listed above are related to certain theoretical principles of program evaluation presented in the previous section. In addition to this, the decision as to which model should be applied in a particular case depends on the nature of the program which is to be evaluated and the goals.

Having outlined the main models of program evaluation, the most general types of program evaluation that can be applied in order to assess the value of different forms of foreign language teaching will be presented and discussed. The first set, listed by a number of scholars, includes:

- *self-evaluation/intrinsic evaluation/internal evaluation*, in which the majority of the decisions regarding evaluation are made by the internal bodies of the institution; it is usually conducted by one or more individuals from the evaluated institution (Olejniczak 2008: 29; Rodriguez-Campos and Rincones-Gomez 2013: 29; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 23);
- *additionalneous evaluation/extrinsic evaluation/external evaluation*, where the strategic decisions concerning program evaluation are made by external bodies; it usually relies on judgements passed by a person or people from outside of the investigated institution (Olejniczak 2008: 29; Mazurkiewicz and Berdzik 2010: 16-18; Rodriguez-Campos and Rincones-Gomez 2013: 30; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 23);
- *process evaluation*, where the main focus of attention is placed on the activities that go on within the whole program implementation (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 24);
- *product evaluation*, which concentrates on the main outcomes of the evaluated program (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 24);
- *ex-ante program evaluation*, which relies on collecting and interpreting the data before the program is implemented in order to assess whether it is worth dealing with (Ciężka 2005: 5; Gârboan 2009: 56; Olejniczak 2008: 28);
- *formative evaluation/proactive evaluation/clarificative evaluation/interim evaluation*, which is undertaken while the program is still being implemented; it enables the introduction of ongoing changes and/or improvements (Brzezińska 2000: 38; Gârboan 2009: 56; Green and South 2006: 15; Hogan 2003: 427; Olejniczak 2008:

27; Owen 2007: 191-192; Sechrest and Figueredo 1993: 660; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 24);

- *summative evaluation/reactive evaluation/impact evaluation/ex-post evaluation*, which takes place after the process of program implementation has been completed; final conclusions are drawn and changes and/or improvements can be made so as to create a better program in the future (Brzezińska 2000: 38; Ciężka 2005: 6; Gârboan 2009: 56; Green and South 2006: 14; Hogan 2003: 428; Olejniczak 2008: 27; Owen 2007: 237-238; Sechrest and Figueredo 1993: 660; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 24).

This most general typology can concern any kind of foreign language program evaluation but it is perhaps most suitable for evaluating a school as an educational institution which offers foreign language instruction.

When it comes to *curriculum evaluation* as a kind of program evaluation in education, apart from assessing the value of what is offered in the curriculum, most weight is given to the effectiveness of curriculum “delivery” (Kelly 2009: 18). Among the many types of program evaluation related to curriculum assessment, *formative* and *summative* evaluation seem to be most frequently applied (Kelly 2009: 161). Yet other examples of this form of program evaluation include:

- *portrayal* evaluation, which provides a holistic portrayal of the program (Kelly 2009: 167);
- *illuminative* evaluation, which focuses on description and interpretation of the program together with the context in which it is placed (Green and South 2006: 14; Kelly 2009: 167);
- *responsive* evaluation, which concentrates on program users’ requirements, program activities and finding answers to varied questions related to the innovations introduced in the program (Hamilton 1976: 39);
- *bureaucratic* evaluation, which tends to assess whether the institution fulfils all the goals set by adequate national governmental agencies and if the official state’s language policy is being followed (Kelly 2009: 171);
- *autocratic* evaluation, which is defined as “a conditional service to the governmental agencies which have major control over the allocation of educational resources” and the outcomes serve the existing policy goals (Kelly 2009: 171);

- *democratic* evaluation, which relies on cooperation of different program users and the final information is widely disseminated as a result of negotiations among program users, stakeholders and evaluators (Kelly 2009: 171; Mathison 2005: 104).

Another typology of program evaluation concerns the types which could be useful for *syllabus evaluation*. In this dissertation the term the *syllabus* is used and understood as a set of teaching guidelines for foreign language teachers, designed by educational professionals in order to achieve the national curriculum goals. Komorowska (1999: 96-104) presents six types of evaluation which could be suitable tools for syllabus evaluation:

- *SWOT*, which relies on determining the best direction for the program; the key activities in the process are identifying *strengths* of the program which can positively affect foreign language teaching and learning, *weaknesses*, which should be eliminated or limited to the minimum if the program is to be successful, *opportunities*, which can pinpoint the goals of the program or help to achieve positive results which were not previously intended, and *threats*, which are mainly external factors that can disturb the implementation of the program (Rudolf 2005: 12);
- *action research*, which depends on planning the scope of actions, collecting a variety of data, making judgements about the worth of the program and finally determining the scope of interventions;
- *classic model*, which is focused on the quantitative methods of collecting data and finding out whether a program has achieved its goals or not;
- *accreditation model*, in which the quality of teaching and teaching standards in an educational institution are assessed by experts and the main goal is to provide professional assessment of the quality of the program;
- *triangulation model*, which is connected with expressing opinions about the value of a program by a variety of users with the use of questionnaires and interviews;
- *sociological model*, which concentrates on discovering *cause and effect* relations in the learning and teaching processes, which are present while implementing the program .

It now appears justified to focus on presenting stages in designing and performing program evaluation.

2.4. Stages in designing and performing program evaluation

As for the theoretical underpinnings, specialists provide a number of frameworks for program evaluation. On the one hand, some scholars focus on the limited number of stages for program evaluation in order to provide only general directions, such as identifying goals for program evaluation, planning the main stages of the process, performing the evaluation, collecting the necessary data, processing and revision (Ciężka 2010a: 58-68; Mazurkiewicz and Berdzik 2010: 19; Richards 2010: 43). On the other hand, many specialists enumerate as many as eleven key elements of the program evaluation framework, which include matching the evaluated program with the language policy regulations, defining the general and specific goals for the evaluation, identifying the stakeholders, choosing appropriate research methodology, determining the sources of information, choosing the ethical standards, deciding on the budget and timeline, gathering and processing the data, drawing conclusions and, finally, making the outcomes available to all interested parties (Kiely and Rea-Dickins 2005: 262; Komorowska 1999: 92; Owen 2007: 68-72; Rea-Dickins and Germaine 1992: 74). The list of stages for program evaluation in the present section will be based on the frameworks suggested by specialists, nine being selected as the most important for preparing and conducting an effective language program evaluation.

2.4.1. Defining the subject of program evaluation

One way to ensure beneficial effects of program evaluation is precisely to define the subject of this evaluation, known as the *evaluand* (Davidson 2005: 8). As mentioned above, program evaluation can focus upon a variety of educational activities; hence, the subject of program evaluation could be, for instance, the overall performance of the educational institution or some particular aspects of this performance (Ciężka 2010a: 58). In the first place, however, an *evaluand* must be closely related to the needs and expectations of stakeholders (Ciężka 2010a: 58).

While dealing with educational program evaluation, the quality of its goals may be evaluated together with the quality of its plan, the extent to which it has been implemented and the utility of its results (Nevo 1997: 56-57). A good example of an *evaluand*

can be exploring a tutorial program (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 51). On the one hand, some phenomena concerning a tutorial program cannot be assessed; for example, a student's behaviour, but, on the other hand, the actions taken while implementing the tutorial program which changed the student's behaviour in a positive way can be determined (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 51). Some more examples of school program evaluation can be provided, such as evaluating the *mission statement* of a school, the working plan of a school and the initial diagnosis of an educational institution with certain problems (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 51-52). Nedkova (2004: 208) also includes here school syllabuses, methods, instructional materials and administrative personnel as potential objects for educational evaluations. According to Owen (2007: 54), there are more elements concerning the background of a program evaluation, namely, the social, political and economic context in which a program is to be developed, the coherence and sufficiency of program design, elements of program delivery or implementation, and program outcomes.

At this point, it seems warranted to concentrate on classroom-based program evaluation where the leading focus may be assessing the level of student achievement, mainly through judgements on the extent to which the content curriculum objectives have been achieved. When the key object is curriculum evaluation, some particular aspects can be explored, such as the extent to which the curricular component is effective in the manner intended, what elements of the curriculum are beneficial for classroom practices and whether there are any additional outcomes apart from the expected ones (Kiely and Rea-Dickins 2005: 248). In addition to this, the *evaluand* for classroom-based program evaluation might be some particular factors that influence learner achievement (Richards 2010: 47-48). Among others, Kiely and Rea-Dickins (2005: 247) suggest factors that influence student's achievement, such as learners' needs and wants, appropriateness of coursebooks, materials, task types, teaching-learning interactions, assessment formats and resources including IT. Without doubt, precise determination of the subject of program evaluation is of vital importance when designing the framework for a successful evaluation process.

2.4.2. Identifying stakeholders

Identifying which interest groups the outcomes of the program will be important for is a key issue when planning the design for program evaluation. In the broadest sense, the users and participants of a program, who are either directly or indirectly affected by the program itself or just make decisions about the future of the program, can be defined as *stakeholders* (Kiely and Rea-Dickins 2005: 11; Weiss 1986: 187). To be more specific, there are *primary stakeholders*, for whom the outcomes of program evaluation have a vital meaning; for instance, they will use the knowledge, conclusions and recommendations to improve the overall performance (Owen 2007: 69; Ross 2011: 758; Rossi et al. 2004: 18). There are also *secondary stakeholders* which are other interested groups that are indirectly affected by the implementation of the program (Owen 2007: 69; Ross 2011: 758; Rossi et al. 2004: 18).

Since stakeholders play a significant role in the course of program evaluation, it is hardly surprising that there are so many detailed examples of their classifications and the roles they play. For the purpose of our discussion, only four main examples of stakeholders' classifications will be listed below. To start with, Kasprzak (2010: 68) distinguishes three main groups of stakeholders, namely:

- people who are closely related to the school where the program is being evaluated: teachers, students, principalship, students' parents and school partners;
- policy and/or decision makers;
- other researchers.

Another distinction includes *clients*, whom the outcomes will affect; *suppliers*, who deliver the funds and resources to make the program evaluation possible; *competitors*, *collaborators*, which are other institutions and that could also be interested in the outcomes of program evaluation; and *regulators*, who are supervising agencies (Aspinwall et al. 1992: 84-85). Some other division is suggested by Guba and Lincoln (1989: 40-41), who list *agents* that are involved in the procedures and use of program evaluation, *beneficiaries*, who will use the outcomes, and *victims* who will experience the negative effects of the program evaluation. Finally, Rossi and Freeman (1993: 408, as quoted in Kiely and Rea-Dickins 2005: 202) define stakeholders by listing their roles in the program that is being evaluated:

- *policy and/or decision makers*, who supervise the extent to which the program adheres to the national language policy and decide about the program's future;
- *program sponsors*, who not only demand high quality of the program but also expect low costs;
- *evaluation sponsors*, who usually initiate the whole process of a program evaluation, provide the funding for the process, and also decide how and when it will take place;
- *target participants*, who will receive the intervention;
- *program management*, who are expected to secure the actual benefits of the program;
- *program staff*, who are responsible for providing evidence whether the program is effective or not, and if it is with accordance with legal regulations;
- *evaluators*, who must collect the most adequate information in order to make accurate conclusions and judgements;
- *program competitors*, which are usually different organizations who compete for the program available resources;
- *contextual stakeholders*, who are closely related to the environment of the program, and who are interested in the content of the program as well as its implementation;
- *evaluation community*, are professionals who read the evaluations and assess their technical quality and credibility of their findings.

Irrespective of what kind of classification should be adopted, it seems certain that the outcomes of the program will be important for a wide circle of individuals or groups of people. Thus, bearing the possible primary and secondary stakeholders in mind can enable professionals to design and perform a more efficient and in-depth program evaluation. In other words, the more widely defined stakeholders, the more-cost efficient the program evaluation can be.

2.4.3. Defining aims and goals of program evaluation

Another distinctive stage of program evaluation involves defining the aims and goals of the evaluation. In the first place, the most general goal of each program evaluation is to assess whether the program has been successful, and how the impact of the intervention has changed the situation (Green and South 2003: 66; Langbein and Felbinger 2006:

21). Consequently, it is necessary to determine how success is understood, and it is essential to clarify the program objectives (Green and South 2003: 66). As for specific aims and goals demonstrated in the relevant literature, the focus here will be on those that are closely related to educational program evaluation.

One frequent goal of program evaluation is to check whether the goals have been implemented successfully. It is not usual for the whole program to be assessed and it is recommended to compare the program with another one with an identical set of educational goals (Komorowska 1999: 89; Oleszak 2010: 155; Priest 2001: 35; Zohrabi 2012: 64). Thus, a specific aim of program evaluation could also be to determine the degree to which the goals of the program have been achieved; which of them have been fully and which have been partially implemented. Another specific goal of could be evaluating the chances of the program's prospective success before the program is even introduced in order to predict what the impact of the program may be and how much the stakeholders will benefit from implementation of the program. In order to accomplish a specific goal, it is necessary to apply empirical *feasibility* studies (Komorowska 1999: 90; Oleszak 2010: 155).

The next goal of program evaluation might be determining coherence between the content and goals of the evaluation. Employing a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods can be of vital importance since it can provide a thorough insight into the phenomena (Green and South 2006: 66; Komorowska 1999: 90). When there are different levels of exam requirements, such as basic and extended levels, a specific goal for program evaluation could be established, such as determining which group of students would be the most appropriate recipients of each program (Komorowska 1999: 90). Yet another aim of program evaluation could be determining whether the students' success can really be attributed to the program implementation or if some external factors might have interfered (Komorowska 1999: 91-92). It is not uncommon for the policy and decision makers to consider a cost-benefit analysis, especially if there are two or more similar programs that might be implemented (Bruhn and Rebach 2007: 180; Mathison 2005: 88). In difficult economic circumstances, evaluating which of the recommended programs could bring similar benefits at the least cost, more quickly and with less effort can be of considerable importance (Komorowska 1999: 92; Perloff et al. 1976: 580).

2.4.4. Asking key questions

Once the overall goals and aims of the program evaluation have been negotiated and established, the next logical step should be asking key questions which are supposed to relate to the subject of evaluation, its scope and criteria. According to Ciężka (2005a: 16; 2010a: 59, 2010b: 86) as well as Rodriguez-Campos and Rincones-Gomez (2013: 30), key questions in program evaluation are the determination of the evaluation goals, and they should determine what particular answers the evaluation is supposed to provide. To be more specific, key questions are not those that will be directly addressed to the program users while conducting the evaluation, but they are issues to which the evaluators will try to find answers while collecting the data (Ciężka 2010b: 86). This will serve as a basis for the answers to key questions and will lay a basis for drawing conclusions in the final section of the evaluation report (Ciężka 2010a: 59).

More ideas are provided by Scriven (1980: 46), who specifies that the choice and construct of key evaluation questions must be well considered, since finding answers to them makes the entire program evaluation purposeful and reasonable. Although the validity of such a general view can hardly be denied, it should be supplemented with a list of qualities which make the key questions effective, Rodriguez-Campos and Rincones-Gomez list the following (2013: 32):

- being within the scope of interest for potential audiences;
- limiting the uncertainty and anxiety of the stakeholders;
- being of continuing interest;
- contributing to receiving important and valuable information;
- being related to the scope of the program evaluation;
- having an important impact on the overall process of program evaluation;
- being answerable and manageable.

As regards particular examples of program evaluation key questions types, Owen (2007: 97) mentions *non-casual* questions, which explore and describe the process and outcomes of what was happening in the program. A good example of such a type of a key question could be “What actually works in this program” (Owen 2007: 97). Next, there are *casual* questions, whose main aim is to determine which elements contributed to the program outcomes, and the evaluator might be obliged to discover possible *casual links* (Owen 2007: 97-98). Well-designed key questions in program evaluation can result in a

greater chance that other stages in designing the overall assessment process will be more successful.

2.4.5. Choosing methods for performing program evaluation

Choosing appropriate methods for performing program evaluation is another aspect of the whole process that may determine its success or failure. It requires following rigorous procedures in order to provide the highest standards. Mizerek (2010b: 50) recommends the use of the simplest possible methods that are participant-friendly and do not require any complex statistical analysis, and he also stresses that only purposeful and necessary information ought to be collected.

Yet it seems justified to start the discussion with the consideration whether to opt for *quantitative* or *qualitative* methods, or a combination of both. The choice of *quantitative* methods for program evaluation requires applying standardized measures “so that the varying perspectives and experiences can be fit into a limited number of predetermined response categories to which numbers are assigned” (Patton 2002: 14), and they are frequently used for large-scale programs (Garboan 2009: 56). In other words, such a choice of quantitative methods for program evaluation seems to guarantee better objectivity of the data analysis and the opportunity to determine some important correlations between different factors appearing in the program (Powell 2006: 110). However, the greatest drawback of employing quantitative methods for program evaluation appears to be the tendency to overlook those factors related to the program that cannot be measured in terms of numbers but still affect the process and outcomes (Nedkova 2004: 208). It is generally agreed that the validity and reliability of quantitative methods for program evaluation rely on the construction of a valid instrument that measures what was determined to be measured (Patton 2002). There is a whole set of examples of methods that are reflective of the quantitative principles; however, only the models closely related to program evaluation will be described here:

- *clinical trials model*, which uses complete *randomization* in order to reduce bias. It also requires assigning participants to the *intervention condition*; it is most frequently used for evaluating medical programs and very rarely for educational programs (Ross 2011: 768);

- *quasi experimental design*, which relies on comparing the results of implementing the program goals within groups where at least one group is subjected to the program itself and the other executes the same goals by different means than those employed in the evaluated program (Bruhn and Rebach 2007: 195; Ross 2011: 769);
- *regression discontinuity*, which is a kind of *quasi experiment*, where the main goals are also to estimate the results of program implementation, but it does not depend on *randomization* and the main focus is on these participants who are the most affected by the program (Berk 2010: 563-564; Ross 2011: 770);
- *survey designs*, which depend on creating standardized questionnaires which can be used in *cross-sectional* or *longitudinal* designs (Bruhn and Rebach 2007: 196; Rudolf 2005: 9).

On the other hand, *qualitative* methods enable researchers to study program issues in depth and focus to a greater extent on the holistic context of the evaluated program (Patton 2002: 14; Powell 2006: 111; Priest 2001: 36; Rudolf 2005: 10) and such methods are mainly used when dealing with medium-scale or very complex programs (Garboan 2009: 56-57). Consequently, the majority of data for qualitative program evaluation usually comes from fieldwork and the evaluator may fully or partly participate in the evaluated program (Patton 2002: 4). What is of vital importance, qualitative outcomes can be presented alone or in combination with quantitative findings (Patton 2002: 5), and their validity depends on the skills, competence and rigor of the evaluator (Patton 2002: 14).

It is understandable that presenting all possible examples of methods based on the qualitative approach would be extremely time-consuming; hence, only those of greatest relevance to program evaluation will be mentioned in this section. In the first place, specialists mention *interviews* with *open-ended* questions whose aim is to elicit in-depth responses about program users' experiences with the evaluated program, their feelings and knowledge about the phenomena within the program (Patton 2002: 4). Additionally, to reduce bias and ensure the greatest objectivity for qualitative interviews a set of precise standards should be employed (Tołwińska- Królikowska 2010: 75-78). Another example of a qualitative method for program evaluation is *observation* which relies on evaluator's fieldwork descriptions of a variety of phenomena that are important for better understanding of the situational context and in-depth analysis of the evaluation outcomes, such as activities, behaviours, conversations, interpersonal inter-

actions or organizational processes in the evaluated institution (Bruhn and Rebach 2007: 190-191; Patton 2002: 4, Rudolf 2005: 11; Tołwińska- Królikowska 2010: 74-75). Finally, specialists mention *document analysis* among the ways in which qualitative data is collected. Such an analysis relies on exploring formal or informal written accounts which again could be relevant for a better understanding of the context or explaining the phenomena related to the program (Ciężka 2010a: 63; Patton 2002: 4; Rudolf 2005: 8; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 78-79).

Komorowska (1999: 93-95) argues that the choice of methods is conditional upon the program evaluation goals. If the goal, for example, is student achievement, the quantitative methods seem to be the best option; this could be a *quasi-experiment* with *experimental* and *control* groups. If a new idea is evaluated, methods which combine quantitative and qualitative elements are the most suitable such as *experimental designs* without a *control* group or *non-experimental designs* (Komorowska 1999: 93-94). Finally, when methods and processes are the focus, the most recommended methods of collecting data are qualitative ones such as *ethnographic* evaluation, *descriptions* and/or *observations* (Komorowska 1999: 94-95).

Self-evaluation is another method which is employed by either program users or participants. On the one hand, self-evaluation may pose a formidable challenge since it requires assessing oneself and the program context realistically on a regular basis, but, on the other hand, if it is performed in the correct way, it can constitute a helpful learning and management tool for evaluation (Wilbur 2004: 21; Wlazło 2010: 123-125). Beyond doubt, the procedures should include some specific steps, such as self-assessing the aptness of planned actions, next, reflection on the way of managing the process, and, finally, focus on student achievement (Wlazło 2010: 125). In conclusion, the choice of methods for program evaluation is determined by the overall and detailed goals of the evaluation and must be carefully planned and thought through for each separate case.

2.4.6. Managing program evaluation

Beyond doubt, whatever steps are taken within the process of actual program evaluation, they have to be subordinate to achieving the main goals of the overall process, they must relate to the target groups involved and they must be implemented according to a

specific plan. Consequently, some important points ought to be considered, such as defining the scope of actions for evaluators and who the key information will be collected from and from what sources (Bruhn and Rebach 2007: 184-185). Other important aspects that must be considered are the question of expenditure and resources, sampling, piloting, timing, possible problems as well as interferences, and monitoring (Bruhn and Rebach 2007: 184-185).

Perhaps the most important of all seems to be appointing different internal roles for evaluators who work as a team and who can facilitate the whole process, especially if this is a large-scale evaluation. Similarly, choosing the manager of the project who can steer, monitor and supervise the process and its timeliness to be advisable. In the opinion of specialists, the most suitable person for this position would be someone who is competent and knows a lot about evaluation procedures. It ought to be someone who has excellent managerial and organizational skills in order to manage meetings, document the process and keep all deadlines. Such a person is supposed to manifest excellent interpersonal skills which are important so as to manage the team and deal with participants (Baizerman 2009: 89; Baizerman and Compton 2009: 14; Rodriguez-Campos and Rincones-Gomez 2012: 169-171; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 133). In addition, experts recommend creating specialized groups including a *steering group* at school that may include the principal, the manager of the project and managers of the project groups (Skierniewski 2005: 31; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 133-134). The scope of activities of such a group ought to cover managing the whole process, coordinating project groups, initiating processes, collecting internal reports from *working group* managers and creating general report that will be presented to stakeholders (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 133-134). Another possibility is creating *project groups* whose members do the planning and solve problems that arise in the process of evaluation. Undoubtedly, a set of potentially important qualities for group members have to include being communicative when dealing with participants and having good organizational skills (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 135). Next, a group member should possess good note-taking and writing skills in order to create instructions and collect materials for an internal report as well as having appropriate computer skills in order to organize and process data (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 135). The final option included by Towińska-Królikowska (2010: 136) is creating *working groups* whose members will work on the evaluation that was agreed upon and planned together with the *steering group* and

the *project group*. Moreover, they will support each other in the performance of specific actions, collect feedback, and create internal reports about the outcomes related to this part of the project they participate in.

The question of human and information sources is of great importance when managing program evaluation. When it comes to determining the written sources of information, they may include already existing databases, documents and analyses, and they might provide useful background information about the institution in which the program is being implemented as well as about the program itself (Bruhn and Rebach 2007: 188; Tołwińska- Królikowska 2010: 58). As far as the human sources of information are concerned, reaching a variety of people in the evaluated institution seems to be highly recommended. When dealing with educational programs, such human sources of information could be students, teachers, parents, personnel, school's partners, graduates, or members of supervising agencies (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 58). It is also necessary to design appropriate tools and methods of collecting information from the target groups, bearing in mind their interpersonal connections (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 58).

Other important aspects of the successful management of program evaluation include determining means, costs and funding as well as overall and detailed timing. In the first place, it is indispensable to determine what kind of equipment will be needed in order to perform program evaluation within a given time frame and to achieve the set goals (Owen 2007: 72-73, Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 55). One should estimate the overall costs, including information on how to obtain funding (Owen 2007: 72-73; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 55). Timing is also of vital importance when dealing with educational program evaluation since such a process should not interfere with the school's performance. The most general timing framework for program evaluation ought to include the dates of implementing the whole process as well as specific stages and alternative dates in the case of unexpected problems (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 137). To be more specific, Ciężka (2010a: 67, 2010b: 90) suggests that detailed schedule for program evaluation ought to contain the dates for:

- *the conceptualization stage*, where the subject, goals and stakeholders are defined, key questions are asked and suitable methodology is appointed;
- *the preparatory stage*, in which the initial recognition of the program evaluation contexts is done, and the research tools are created;

- *the performing program evaluation stage*, where the data are collected and all previously planned activities are conducted;
- *the analysis of the outcomes stages*, where the preliminary version of the evaluation report is created;
- *the discussion of the results and the preliminary report stage*, where the negotiations with stakeholders take place;
- *the completion of the overall process stage*, where the final version of the evaluation report is published.

Sampling in evaluation research is important in order to secure objectivity and validity of the gathered data. According to Tołwińska-Królikowska (2010: 67) and Weiss (1975: 145), sampling in program evaluation concerns individuals that will participate in the process, as well as written records or situations that will be examined. Accordingly, two main types of sampling can be applied when collecting data. The first is *random sampling*, where an up-to-date, accurate and complete list of population members must be obtained and subjects have to be chosen in the unbiased way (Bryman 2004: 543; Cohen and Manion 1994: 87; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 67-68).

The next is *non-random/non-probability sampling* where some members of the population are more likely to be selected than others (Bryman 2004: 541; Mackey and Gass 2008: 122; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 68-69). When dealing with non-probability sampling in program evaluation, two different options seem to be most useful, that is *convenience sampling*, when the easiest accessible or the most suitable population representatives are chosen; and *purposive sampling*, where the most distinctive contexts members of the population are chosen (Bryman 2004: 100; Cohen and Manion 1994: 88-89; Mackey and Gass 2008: 122-123; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 68-69).

In order to create the most efficient and comprehensive research tools when managing program evaluation, conducting *a pilot study* is considered to be important. Such research may constitute a prelude to the main research and it can help to improve the research tools, and make all necessary changes in the procedures (Bruhn and Rebach 2007: 200-201; Mackey and Gass 2008: 43-44; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 110). Furthermore, piloting can be of assistance in confirming whether the sources of information are reliable and that a sufficient amount of information is accessible (Borek 2010: 33).

What is also of paramount importance, there are some problems that might occur during the process of program evaluation, and which may affect it in a negative way by either distorting the results or even hindering the procedures. Out of the many possible threats, three main groups of problems will be discussed here, namely, the *effects*, *procedural* failures and *miscellaneous*. As Tołwińska-Królikowska (2010: 66) explains, there are four *effects* which might bias results of program evaluation, such as *halo effect*, which involves overgeneralizing one factor of a person or a situation to all aspects of the overall performance; *recency effect*, which occurs when only recent information is taken into consideration, excluding the past events; *central tendency effect*, which refers to attempts to eliminate extreme cases of assessment; and *known evaluator effect*, which refers to a situation when participants are interviewed or asked to fill in a questionnaire not anonymously but by a known evaluator to whom they may be related in everyday life.

As far as procedural failures are concerned, four main issues may lead to the failure of program evaluation. In the first place, the biggest problem may appear when the outcomes of evaluation diverge from the intended goals. Consequently, it might result in lack of agreement on the validity of the outcomes between evaluators and stakeholders and general failure of the whole project (Komorowska 1999: 106-107). Next, an inaccurate or imprecise choice of variables may not reflect the efficacy of the program partly or fully (Komorowska 1999: 108-109). Additionally, employing inappropriate research methods and tools may fail to reveal the true efficacy of the program (Komorowska 1999: 109-110). Finally, inaccurate interpretation of the outcomes and/or judgments is another threat, including the so-called “Hawthorne effect”, which occurs when the very fact that new things are being introduced bring about positive effects since people generally are more involved and interested in new issues (Komorowska 1999: 111-112).

As for miscellaneous problems, they might concern such issues as a poorly defined scope of program evaluation, which may affect the future conclusions in a negative way; inadequate evaluator’s personal qualities, which may cause bias; insufficient data collection; and, finally, lack of possibility to use the outcomes in the future (Mazurkiewicz 2010d: 12). Other potential difficulties may include blind collection and processing of data without any forms of analysis and/or discussion, which prevent the stakeholders from obtaining any information about the success or failure of program.

This may be followed by superficial or trivial conclusions or, indeed, drawing inappropriate or too many conclusions. Additionally, a disproportionate effort put in to the process might cause confusion in attempting to answer the key questions of program evaluation (Mazurkiewicz 2010d: 12).

Systematic and reliable monitoring of all the stages of evaluation might minimize the occurrence of errors and gives an opportunity to employ repair procedures at the right time. Monitoring may rely on double checking the reliability of sources and resources, controlling the timing of procedures and supervising the work of other people involved. It is also recommended to have a kind of a contingency plan with alternative methods and procedures in case the originally chosen ones do not work (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 58). Tołwińska-Królikowska (2010: 137-138) also recommends establishing dates of meetings during which the current state of implementation will be discussed, and establishing an efficient and clear system of information flow between the evaluators. What all the aspects of managing program evaluation have in common is the fact that only on condition that strict and careful procedures are followed, can valuable data be obtained and subjected to further analysis.

2.4.7. Processing information

In order to answer the key questions involved in program evaluation, the collected information must be adequately processed and displayed. Among many guidelines concerning data analysis, six seem to be of the most practical value when dealing with program evaluation:

- *indexing documents*, which relies on labelling documents according to the particular issues they deal with; following such procedures is time-saving, especially when there is a huge amount of data and/or a lot of questions to be answered (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 82);
- *copying documents*, which is very useful and necessary for the further data analysis when the researcher no longer has access to some important sources (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 82);
- *summarizing documents*, a procedure that is especially helpful if the assessed document is extensive (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 82);

- *data display*, which relies on creating a well-organised collection of information that will facilitate making overall judgment and answering the key program evaluation questions (Owen 2007: 101);
- *data reduction*, which includes narrowing down the raw data in order to additionalct the most important and adequate information (Owen 2007: 101);
- *conclusion drawing*, which concerns classifying the data into meaningful chunks closely related to the questions addressed by program evaluation (Owen 2007: 101).

A critical procedure in conducting quantitative research in program evaluation is to use appropriate statistical tools when processing the data. In order to select the most appropriate statistical devices, it is necessary to consider some important issues, such as the general aim of program evaluation, key questions, *parametric and non-parametric statistics*, and *independent and dependent variables* (Pallant 2007: 116-117). The statistical procedures that are often employed in program evaluation include:

- *descriptive statistics*, whose aim is to characterize in a general way the important features of the tested population or its part (Ferguson and Takane 2003: 28; Piłatowska 2006: 7; Puławska-Turyna 2005: 21; Sobczyk 2005: 35);
- *Pearson's Chi-square test*, which enables researchers to assess whether the differences between the *observed frequencies* and the *expected frequencies*, on the basis of the theoretical model, are statistically significant or not, and if the *variables* were independent from each other or there was some kind of relationship between them (Boslaugh and Watters 2008: 191; Butler 1985: 112-113; Pallant 2007: 116-117; Woods et al. 1986: 134-136; Zaczyński 1997: 37-39);
- *t-test*, which allows the researcher to find out whether the mean of a sample is significantly different from the one the researcher had expected or if the means of two different groups are significantly different from one another (Boslaugh and Watters 2008: 152; Butler 1985: 83-92; Pallant 2007: 116-117; Woods et al. 1986: 102-103);
- *Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)*, which aims at determining if there are statistically significant differences between two or more independent groups; it relies on comparing the means of the comparison groups (Boslaugh and Watters 2008: 232; Butler 1985: 129; Pallant 2007: 116-117; Woods et al. 1986: 194-195).

Finally, it happens in some situations that the direct outcomes of data processing may not be objective, since evaluators might not have taken into consideration some important factors that may have affected what has been achieved. To prevent such a

situation, the *fairness* of presenting the outcomes and conclusions must be increased, and *value-added interventions* should be employed (Ross: 2011: 775). Such a procedure involves “capturing the contextual effects and normative environment inherent in clustered data” and its focus of attention is set on “assessing the moderating effects of contextual covariates on growth over time, and focus on the observed trajectories of learning growth, instead of absolute summative outcomes reported as percentages of students who meet the criterion or standard” (Ross 2011: 775).

2.4.8. Reporting

The final program evaluation report is a formal way of finishing the whole process. However, before the final version is created and published, some key points must be taken into consideration, such as defining what the concept of the highest quality of the report means, discussing report standards, choosing the most suitable type of report, and finally agreeing on the ways of presenting the report.

In the first place, it seems necessary to define what the concept of the highest quality for a program evaluation report is. According to some specialists (Ciężka 2010a: 68; Mizerek 2010b: 53; Olejniczak 2008: 102; Powell 2006: 117), the highest quality report should follow European scientific standards which must:

- be related only to the main subject of the program evaluation;
- answer the evaluation key questions in an exhaustive way;
- contain summary of research results;
- offer information about the sources of information;
- describe the research procedures;
- explain the way of making judgements and interpreting the data;
- present the outcomes in the relation with the whole process of program evaluation;
- include precise and clear recommendations;
- compare the current program evaluation with evaluations of similar programs from the past;
- offer suggestions for further evaluation.

The report is also the main proof of the quality of the valuers' work, and much effort must be made to follow the highest standards in order to achieve the best possible re-

sults (Mizerek 2010b: 52). In order to increase the overall quality of the evaluation report, Owen (2007: 126) and Ciężka (2010a: 68) suggest that the account might be reported under different headings, together with an executive summary of key findings.

In practical terms, applying certain standards and following particular qualities of a good professional evaluation report increases its quality. The first important feature is *authenticity*, which relies on presenting the facts in a professionally documented and relevant way (Mizerek 2010b: 53). Kasprzak (2010: 59-60) refers to three key terms while creating a report which are *democratic-ness*, which relies on discussing and negotiating the outcomes, conclusions and recommendations before the final version of the report is accepted, *transparency*, which involves making the report public, and *team work*, which is necessary when there are more evaluators involved in the process. Moreover, a separate list of standards that are to be followed while writing a report include *accuracy*, which relies on matching the content with the scope of evaluation and *reliability*, which guarantees that all the professional codes of conduct and an acknowledged methodology were employed (Kasprzak 2010: 63). Others are *credibility*, which ensures that the conclusions have been based on reliable sources, *comprehensibility*, which makes the report clear and approachable for stakeholders, and finally *conciseness*, which ensures that the report covers only the most significant aspects (Kasprzak 2010: 63). Some more points to follow, when discussing the quality of a report, are connected with making generalizations based on facts, selecting the most valid information, and *contextual-ness* (Kasprzak 2010: 63-64). This is important because there are no two identical institutions even if they are of the same type (Kasprzak 2010: 63-64). All in all, a final evaluation report ought to be a basis for institutional improvement.

There are a range of types of reports that may be chosen and it is important to select the most appropriate in a particular evaluation context. According to Owen (2007: 126), an evaluation report can be of the following types "written versus oral; progress versus final; substantive (main report) versus secondary (such as technical details of data management); summary versus main report; formal versus informal; descriptive versus recommendatory". Evaluators ought to decide upon the particular type they wish to use after careful consideration and also after discussion with the stakeholders.

The way of presenting the report is of vital importance and employing more interactive techniques is beneficial for its overall perception by clients. A good written report should include quotations so as to underline the most important information and

ought to incorporate evaluation briefs or a summary at the end (Owen 2007: 126-127). Furthermore, multimedia presentations, oral briefs, visual images and/or graphs, tables and charts could make the presentation more attractive (Owen 2007: 127). As has been mentioned above, preparing the final version of program evaluation report officially finishes the overall process. However, it only serves its purpose if it is comprehensively written and contains valuable information. This is because reports should fulfil the goals of the program evaluation and fairly reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the intervention.

2.4.9. Assessing the evaluation process

Evaluating the evaluation process or, in other words, *metaevaluation*, is critical for every kind of evaluation, including program evaluation, since it proves that the whole process was performed in an appropriate and efficient way (Stufflebeam 2001: 184; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 59). Stufflebeam (2001: 184) and Tołwińska-Królikowska (2010: 59) also provide numerous detailed reasons for performing metaevaluation, such as the possibility of improving similar future evaluation projects and assuring evaluators that they did their job well. Moreover, it is important to make stakeholders confident about the validity of the outcomes, trace the problems of the evaluated program which were not detected during the basic program evaluation, and finally make sure that the appropriate code of behaviour was applied and followed from the very beginning of the process (Owen 2007: 164-165; Stufflebeam 2001: 184).

There are a number of types of *metaevaluation*. Tołwińska-Królikowska (2010: 147-148) makes a distinction between *external* or *internal metaevaluation*, depending on who makes the decision about initiating this process and who performs it. She also mentions *formative metaevaluation*, in which case ongoing improvements are possible, and *summative metaevaluation*, when assessing the overall performance after completing all the procedures of the main program evaluation (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 147-148). As has been said above, with some slight variances the procedures of metaevaluation are quite similar irrespective of the type of evaluation and they may include (Stufflebeam 2001: 191):

- involving stakeholders in the procedures of metaevaluation;

- creating a trustworthy and qualified team of metaevaluators;
- creating key metaevaluation questions;
- establishing the standards and/or criteria of the program evaluation;
- signing a formal contract or agreement on metaevaluation actions;
- collecting necessary information, for instance, with the help of surveys;
- analysing the outcomes;
- assessing the program evaluation against the established standards and/or criteria;
- preparing and discussing the metaevaluation report;
- helping the evaluators and stakeholders to understand the report and supporting application of findings.

Conclusion

It is not possible or sensible to implement any educational program or conduct scientific research in foreign language education without detailed knowledge about program evaluation. Although the details of different theoretical frameworks for such evaluation may vary, some core principles remain universal and they have been the focus of the present chapter. Its main goal has been to present the theoretical and practical background for program evaluation as a background for work to enhance overall quality of foreign language teaching and also as a tool for research into foreign language instruction. Thus, the discussion in the first sections of the chapter centred upon the most important terms related to program evaluation, its aims, principles, standards and criteria. This was followed by enumerating and discussing the stages in designing and performing such evaluation.

Two inescapable conclusions seem to emerge from the above discussion. First, no empirical research into education can be done without some kind of knowledge about program evaluation. In addition to that, the nature of the main study of this dissertation includes many elements of the evaluation research. Hence, providing information of how to design and perform efficient program evaluation has been of vital importance. Secondly, the work described in this study compares language teaching in two countries with two distinct and contrasting contexts; it also considers schools within each country which in themselves differ from one another. Thus in drawing meaningful conclusions,

and in proposing pedagogical recommendations, these different contexts must be considered with care, thoroughness and understanding.

Chapter 3: Language instruction in Polish and English upper secondary schools

Introduction

There is a widespread agreement among educational officials and researchers that, in order to raise the quality of foreign language teaching, guidelines and frameworks for foreign language teaching policy recommended by European Union institutions should be incorporated into national curricula and foreign language programs. Sharing examples of good practice internationally may promote quality improvement further and thus comparing language instruction in the foreign language classrooms in two European Union member countries, such as Poland and England, may help to identify characteristics which increase the quality of foreign language teaching in both countries. However, detailed knowledge of the organisation and structure of the two types of schools examined in this study is necessary in order to make proper judgements about the validity and possible application of the research outcomes.

Before the nature of language instruction in Polish and English upper secondary schools is discussed, the chapter will also consider a brief history of the Polish general upper secondary school and English sixth form college systems, as well as current legal regulations. The role of a principal in each system, and his or her leadership requirements, will also be discussed and the organisation of the foreign language teaching in the two school systems will be described. The section will close with a discussion on the similarities and differences between the two school systems. The chapter will then consider the following aspects of instruction in Polish and English upper secondary schools:

- foreign language teacher teams;
- the preferred model of a foreign language lesson;
- teaching techniques and teaching aids;
- the use of a coursebook;
- forms of student assessment;
- classroom interaction;
- the development of learner autonomy.

The rationale for investigating the above points will also be included. As a consequence of this work, further pedagogical recommendations will be made in the chapter devoted to the present research.

3.1. The organisation and structure of two types of the upper secondary school systems in Poland and England after World War II

One way in which important and valuable conclusions arising from the comparison between the two different international school systems can be drawn is to analyse their organisation and structure separately. Because of the limitations of space, the focus here will only be in history of the two school systems after World War II.

3.1.1. Polish general upper secondary school system²

After World War II, Poland was heavily dependent upon, and influenced by, the Soviet Union; this impacted greatly upon the Polish educational system. Although the tradition of general upper secondary education was sustained, and the four-year general upper secondary schools welcomed students in September 1948, the ideology and the course of teaching were closely related to the Soviet ideology and pedagogy (Moraczewska 2010: 57). After liberation from Soviet dominance in 1989, some curricular and structural changes were introduced in the educational system, with a major reform in 1999

² The latest project of the new educational reform was presented by the Minister of National Education on 16 September 2016. It is planned to establish the eight-year primary school and, among other types of secondary schools, the four-year general upper secondary school system (Ministry of National Education 2016: 1).

which established the three-year general upper secondary school system, for students aged 16-19, still in existence today (Chancellery of the Sejm 2005: 1; Hörner and Nowosad 2007: 600; Kletko-Milejska 2007: 80-81). General upper secondary schools are located mainly in cities and there were 2312 such schools in Poland in the school year 2013/2014 (Eurydice 2015: 1). It should also be emphasised that education in state general upper secondary schools is free (The Constitution of the Republic of Poland 1997: 14). The following subsections identify legal regulations regarding the Polish upper secondary school system.

3.1.1.1. Legal regulations

All the legal regulations relating to Polish education must be in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of Poland (Constitutional Tribunal 2014: 1). Thus, The Act of Parliament of 7 September 1991, called the *Education Act* is the basis for all legal regulations regarding the overall school system including general upper secondary schools (Chancellery of the Sejm 2014: 1), and the Act of Parliament of 8 January 1999 defines the legal requirements of the latest educational reform (Chancellery of the Sejm 2005: 1). Additionally, the decrees of the Minister of Education update the legislative educational system in Poland (Eurydice 2015: 1).

3.1.1.2. The organisation and structure of the general upper secondary school system

Generally speaking, the organisation and structure of general upper secondary schools in Poland is based on the legal regulations included in the Act of Parliament of 7 September 1991 called the *Education Act* (Chancellery of the Sejm 2014:1), the Decree of the Minister of National Education of 7 October 2009 on pedagogic supervision (Journal of Laws 2009: 1) and the Decree of the Minister of National Education of 10 May 2013 on changing the decree on pedagogic supervision (Journal of Laws 2013: 1). Thus, the Minister of National Education coordinates and supervises the national educational system and oversees its institutions. A legal definition of the general upper secondary

school is found in Article 9.1 of the Act of Parliament of 7 September 1991 (Chancellery of the Sejm 2014: 13): a general upper secondary school in Poland is a three-year institution which provides its graduates with a matriculation certificate if they successfully pass compulsory final examinations. Students are offered a compulsory set of subjects at the basic and extended levels as well as some enrichment courses (Derecka et al. 2012: 21-22). Additionally, there are four main legal regulations with which each upper secondary school must comply:

- schools function according to the statute of the institution;
- the financial and organisational supervising authority is the Department of Education of a specific county;
- pedagogic supervision is conducted by a specific Education Office;
- the school is managed by the principal who is responsible for the school's finances, organisational issues, pedagogic supervision, and hiring and dismissing teachers or other employees (Public Information Bulletin 2012:1).

As far as the organisational structure of general upper secondary schools is concerned, the principal is the main authority in a school, supported by a deputy/deputies, the main accountant, school secretary, teachers, guidance counsellor and administrative and service staff (Public Information Bulletin 2012: 1). In each school there are also supportive and advisory bodies, such as the Staff Meeting, Student Association and Parent Association (The Teaching Staff Meeting of The General Upper Secondary School in Sulechów 2012: 6). A school's organisation is further defined by the statute of the general upper secondary school which contains vital information, such as general provisions, the mission statement, the aims of the school and the ways of attaining them, legal provisions, structure and management issues, teacher and staff job description, recruitment procedures, students' duties and rights, forms of available rewards and punishment and some miscellaneous information (The Teaching Staff Meeting of The General Upper Secondary School in Sulechów 2012: 1-32). The academic year, divided into two terms, runs from 1 September until 31 August (Chancellery of the Sejm 2014: 54). In practice, however, regular classes break up at the end of June.

3.1.1.3. The role of a principal as a leader in Polish education

There are many definitions of the role of a principal as a leader in education. Without doubt, the principal in an upper secondary school is a key figure who, in practice, implements the national educational policy requirements; his or her main aim is to make ongoing improvements in the school's performance. In the era of globalisation, the concept of leadership in education has been heavily influenced by international developments and thus in the majority of EU countries the expectations are very similar (Brundrett et al. 2003: 5; Mazurkiewicz 2012: 12; Woods 2005: 21). Thus, certain values, attributes, skills and knowledge, which are vital for the modern and efficient leader in education, have emerged. Brundrett Burton and Smith (2003: 16-17) have identified eight values that a leader might espouse:

- *learning-centeredness*, which highlights the importance of learning as a chief activity regarding schools;
- *innovation*, which relies on the conviction that introducing new ideas may improve the school's performance;
- *lifelong learning*, which depends on making the whole community aware of the fact that learning is an ongoing and systematic process;
- *education-for-all*, which is based on the principle that decent education ought to be accessible to all students;
- *service orientation*, which emphasises adjusting the actions to the needs of the particular community;
- *empowerment*, which is directed at encouraging the community members to involve in the life of the school;
- *equity and fairness*, which is meant to ensure that individual rights are recognised and everybody is treated with respect;
- *whole-person development*, which involves providing students with the best possible education.

Following such a set of values is critically important to the success of every leader in education. Additionally, in the era of ongoing educational reforms, the core principles of leadership should be stable and solid in order to guarantee stability and a sense of security both for the teaching staff and students.

An efficient leader in education should also be aware of the attributes which may be particularly beneficial to his or her performance. These include *adaptability* and *responsiveness* which make the leader more flexible and open to the different needs of the staff and students; *courage* and *resilience* which help the leader to face opposition and fight for the school's improvement; *tough-mindedness* which enables the leader to stick to the right course of action; *collaboration* with internal and external partners, and finally *integrity in their dealings with others* (Brundrett et al. 2003: 18). Another aspect of efficient leadership in education is possessing relevant knowledge, such as being acquainted with teaching, learning and curriculum theory and practice, knowing about the possibilities of leader and teacher development, having ample knowledge about managing staff and resources, acquiring thorough knowledge of legal regulations and the scope of activities, and also awareness of the need of collaboration and communication with external institutions (Brundrett et al. 2003: 17). Knowledge alone, however, does not guarantee success so the leader in education should also have a set of *personal, communicative, cultural* and *organisational skills* to translate theory into practice (Brundrett et al. 2003: 18; Dorczak 2013: 77; Madalińska-Michalak 2013: 27).

It is also important for an aspiring leader in education to decide what kind of leadership style would suit him or her in the context of his or her personal qualities and the needs of schools. Jameson (2006: 99-179) recommends several profiles of leadership that are especially suitable in upper secondary school education:

- *servant leadership*, which aims at achieving the best results within the school by following its mission, serving others and being extremely ethical and honest with all the actions;
- *guardianship and change agency*, which follows a parental model, together with being authoritative when necessary, and devoting some time to personal reflection and self-development;
- *quantum leadership*, which highlights the necessity of improving educational settings as a response to world changes;
- *systemic leadership*, which focuses on combining the external and internal issues that affect the school's performance and tries to keep it in balance;
- *inclusive leadership*, which concentrates on integrating all individuals with any kinds of needs into the school's environment;

- *ethical leadership*, which relies on creating the opportunities and the ways of fulfilling them by very fair actions;
- *network leadership*, which involves guiding a collaboration of a group of people in order to achieve united goals (Mazurkiewicz 2012: 13);
- *skills empowerment leadership*, which depends on supporting others in order to develop their leadership skills;
- *creative leadership*, where the leader creates ideas and concepts which acquire value with time.

As Gunter (2002: 104) explains, however, not every principal has to be a brilliant leader in education. It would be sufficient to be able to combine decent interpersonal skills with the ability to manage the school's organisational issues. However, a perfect combination would be either a natural or professionally-developed principal-leader who is both aware of and knowledgeable about some theoretical and legal aspects of managing the school successfully and is also creative, flexible, charismatic and open to new ideas. An effective principal should also have clear and concise goals in mind, such as improving the school's performance.

The appointment of a principal is clearly a critical decision but how is this process of finding an inspiring leader managed for a Polish upper secondary school? The Decree of the Minister of Education of 8 April 2010 defines the regulations for open competition for the position of the head of the state school or a state educational institution; these procedures are critical (Celuch 2012: 1; Journal of Laws 2010: 1). Thus, a principal is appointed through an open contest by the governing body of the particular general upper secondary school, with a vacancy being advertised detailing deadlines, job specification and requirements, and the list of necessary documents to be submitted. Two stages of the open competition are then conducted (Celuch 2012: 1). In the first part of the competitive process, the commission checks whether the candidates have met the formal requirements and if so they are invited for part two, a formal interview (Celuch 2012: 5). The composition of the interview panel is specified in the Education Act of 1991 and includes three representatives of the governing body, two representatives of the pedagogic supervisory institution, one member out of the Staff Meeting, one from Parent Association and one from the Teachers' Unions (Staszewska 2013: 1). Following the interviews, a secret ballot is conducted and the candidate with the absolute majority wins (Journal of Laws 2010: 5236).

The advertisement for the position of the principal, together with the official requirements, describes a good source of knowledge regarding the official expectations for the role of the principal.³ In a written application, the candidate is required to describe the set of values which he or she considers the most important in his or her professional career as well as his or her priorities for improving the school's performance (Celuch 2012: 3). However, great attention seems to be paid to the candidate's plans for managing the school through a thorough knowledge of the current situation in the school and the vision of its overall improvement (Celuch 2012: 3-4). Although documentation submitted by the candidate might provide details about a candidate's managerial qualifications, there is no official requirement to deliver documents or references regarding the leadership skills of the candidate (Celuch 2012: 1-2). Whilst it is clear that the process of appointing a principal seeks to identify high managerial skills, it is surprising that the importance of leadership in education is so starkly omitted in the official procedures.

³ The interview with the then Principal of the General Upper Secondary school in Sulechów MA Halina Szeląg, which was conducted on 15th October 2010, might throw light on to the way the Polish Principal understands the term leadership in education. In the first place, MA Szeląg highlighted that the *factual knowledge about leadership is indispensable together with hard work, being systematic and creative*. In her opinion the biggest threat for being an efficient leader is *not to have ideas, willingness and suitable people with whom a leader could work in an creative way*. MA Szeląg regarded the *innate talent to lead people as well as hard work and experience* as equally important to make a leader efficient. She also added that one thing which was also important but not possible to acquire was charisma. According to MA Szeląg, *a leader could improve his/her skills through self-education and reading relevant literature and many wise people she met inspired her to introduce changes and act*. MA Szeląg summarised that *factual knowledge, self-education, observing other people and constructive criticism from others help to be a good leader in education*. MA Szeląg added that *a good leader in education should motivate teachers and ought to have positive relationship with educational authorities in order to obtain their financial and moral support, which would facilitate to introduce improvements in the institution*. Finally, MA Szeląg emphasised that *a leader was a central person in the organisation but could not do things only on her/his own and the suitable and dedicated team of teachers is indispensable to achieve success*. Taking these remarks into consideration, it seems that a leader in Polish upper secondary schools considers his/her work as leading part of a dedicated team, finds good relationship with educational authorities as crucial for his/her efficient performance, ought to be self-motivated, hard working and experienced, should ongoingly self-educate and should have a set of ideas of what to do and how to do it.

3.1.1.4. The organisation of foreign language teaching in Polish general upper secondary schools

As outlined in the previous chapter, the policies concerning foreign language education in Poland are in accordance with the major guidelines and recommendations of the European Union including the major Polish legal regulations described in section 3.1.1.2. Together with *Core National Curriculum* (Ministry of National Education 2009: 1) and *the Decree of the Minister of National Education of 7 February 2012 on teaching frameworks in state schools* (Journal of Laws 2012: 1), they provide a basis for the organisation of foreign language education in Poland.

In accordance with *the Core National Curriculum*, in general upper secondary schools modern foreign languages are compulsory during the three-year cycle at two levels, namely the basic level with the requirement of B1 proficiency, and the extended level with the requirement of B2 proficiency: taking one foreign language at the basic level with the requirement of B2 proficiency: taking one foreign language at the basic level for the final examination is obligatory for all the students (Ministry of National Education 2009: 60). Additionally, following the directives included in the *Decree of the Minister of National Education of 21st June 2012*, the minimum number of teaching hours for two modern foreign languages in the three-year cycle of education in the general upper secondary school is 450 hours at the basic level and an additional 180 hours for the extended level (Journal of Laws 2012: 16). On the basis of these frameworks, the principal of each school creates term and weekly schedules for teaching foreign languages (Journal of Laws 2012: 5) and a typical weekly schedule for two languages on the basic level would be 5 hours per week (Derecka et al. 2012: 26), while one language on the extended level it would be 6 hours per week (Derecka et al. 2012: 29). In addition, it is advisable for the principal to create foreign language teaching groups of up to 24 students who share a more or less similar level of knowledge of the language. The groups can be form groups, inter-form groups and, if the governing body allows, inter-school groups (Journal of Laws 2012: 5-8). Each lesson in all types of schools, including the general upper secondary school, lasts forty five minutes.⁴

There are also strict rules regarding the choice of syllabi and coursebooks in general upper secondary schools. In accordance with the *Decree of the Minister of Na-*

⁴ The author provides this information as an experienced teacher who knows about the timing of lessons in Poland from his own experience.

tional Education of 21st of June 2012, the syllabus for a particular foreign language can be introduced at school only after the principal's approval at the request by foreign language teachers (Journal of Laws 2012a: 2). Moreover, the teacher can use a syllabus derived from a variety of sources on condition that it meets the users' needs and abilities. The syllabus may be externally created, the teacher's own created one, or a syllabus compiled or adapted with colleagues (Journal of Laws 2012a: 2). As far as the choice of the coursebook is concerned, the main requirement is that it should be in accordance with the content of the *National Core Curriculum*. However, there are eight detailed requirements, included in the *Decree of the Minister of National Education*, concerning the quality of a textbook (Journal of Laws 2012a: 3-4):

- it must contain factual knowledge;
- it must adhere to the core curriculum;
- it must fit the school's teaching frameworks;
- it must contain motivating and stimulating activities;
- it must be suitable for mixed ability students;
- it must clearly define whether it is for the basic or extended level;
- it must be in accordance with all legal regulations including the ratified international ones;
- it must have a clear layout;
- it must not include any form of advertising other than about the publishing company.

In addition, according to the *Decree of the Minister of National Education of 21st of June 2012*, the coursebook must be approved by the Ministry of Education after receiving at least three positive recommendations by specialists (Journal of Laws 2012a: 5). On that basis the coursebook is included in the special register which is published on the official website of the department of the Ministry of National Education (Journal of Laws 2012a: 10).

There is a related issue regarding the question of legal regulations on the formal qualifications of foreign language teachers. According to the *Decree of the Ministry of Education (2009a: 4606)*, the teacher is considered to be fully qualified to teach foreign languages in general upper secondary school if he or she has obtained a Master's degree in a foreign language philology with foreign language teaching specialization, or in applied linguistics with adequate pedagogic qualifications (Journal of Laws 2009a: 4606).

A Bachelor's degree in a foreign language philology (Journal of Laws 2009a: 4606) is also acceptable for all types of school. Another option is for the teacher to have graduated from a teachers' training college in the appropriate language specialization together with any type of higher education studies (Journal of Laws 2009a: 4606). It is also acceptable for the teacher to have a state teacher's second level proficiency certificate in the appropriate foreign language or a certificate of advanced or proficient knowledge of the appropriate foreign language together with pedagogic qualifications (Journal of Laws 2009a: 4606).

The organisation of foreign language teaching in Polish general upper secondary schools is highly centralized and supervised with clear rules concerning the teaching framework, curriculum and coursebooks. A measure of the efficiency of such a system can be established through the analysis of results of the final examinations in foreign languages.

3.1.2. English sixth form college system⁵

The origins of the contemporary sixth form college system seem to be quite complex, so only a brief description of the system can be undertaken at this point. The *sixth form* describes the two-year *post compulsory* period of education for 16-18 year olds in England. In schools it was modelled on the *public school system*,⁶ which paradoxically, is the name given to the private school sector in England, and within the state sector, it was further developed in *grammar schools* (Macfarlane 1993: 1). The 1944 *Education Act* required all children in state education in England to take an examination at the age of eleven, the *11 plus exam* (Macfarlane 1993: 11). This form of assessment was designed to determine whether a child should go to *grammar school*, to receive academic

⁵ The reliability of the factual information regarding the sixth form college system was consulted with Dr John J. Guy OBE, the long-standing Principal of The Sixth Form College Farnborough, the present board member of the awarding body OCR and Cambridge Assessment, a member of the expert panels advising the Secretary of State on the development of the Children's Workforce, a member of the LSC External Advisory Group, a former member of the Tomlinson 14-19 Working Group and a former chair of the Assessment Sub-Group.

⁶ *The public school system* dates back to the nineteenth century, however, a few well-known public schools were established around 400 years ago. In the early past public schools aimed at producing an administrative, political and social elite. Public schools must include a sixth form that comprises at least 25% of their population, and the admission to public schools is still very selective (Macfarlane 1993: 1-2).

education, or to a *secondary modern school* where education provision was less good, resources were poorer, the curriculum less challenging, and generally prepared young people to become *workers*⁷ (Macfarlane 1993: 3; Watkins 1982: 2). In their early stages, grammar schools were seen as a route by which bright working class children could achieve an academic education based on merit but over time they became much more middle class, mainly providing education to children from well-off families, since they were usually coached privately in order to pass 11 plus exam (Macfarlane 1993: 3-4; Watkins 1982: 1-2). In due course the children would proceed to the grammar sixth form⁸ (Macfarlane 1993: 3-4; Watkins 1982: 1-2). In the post-war period both the economic and social situations of the citizens were getting better and, as a consequence, more and more parents wanted their children to stay at school longer and get a better education. In 1965, the *11 plus* examination had become discredited as a means of fair selection of 11 year olds and the first comprehensive schools were introduced to replace the grammar and secondary modern system⁹ (Macfarlane 1978: 26). Some comprehensive schools covered the whole 11-18 age range but in some areas a different model was chosen, 11-16 schools and 16-18 specialist colleges (Macfarlane 1993: 6-7; Watkins 1982: 3-5). These colleges featured a new type of provision, *the comprehensive sixth form*, and were created with an open and democratic philosophy¹⁰ (Macfarlane 1993: 6-

⁷ The information was extended and explained to the present writer by Dr John J. Guy OBE.

⁸ The information was extended and explained to the present writer by Dr John J. Guy OBE.

⁹ Dr John J. Guy OBE explained that *grammar schools were seen by both Labour and Conservative governments as increasingly unfair because of the 11 plus hurdle- bright children passed and went to well-resourced grammar schools (with 11-18 education going to A level) and less bright students were condemned to secondary moderns (11-16 with a school leaving certificate at the age of 16) with poorer teaching and a weaker curriculum on the bases of a single hurdle at the age of 11. At the boundary (pass/fail) the accuracy of assessment was poor, so some children who should go to grammar schools were failed and others who scraped a pass were increasingly uncomfortable in the grammar school environment. The percentage of children passing the 11 plus exam was different from one local authority to another, depending on how many grammar school places were available locally. The percentage of the cohort passing the 11 plus ranged from 2 or 3% in some authorities to 20% in others.*

¹⁰ Dr John J. Guy OBE added that *the comprehensive school system was introduced to abandon the system of separating children at the age of 11 into two types of school-in favour of comprehensive schooling for all children at secondary age, ideally in well-resourced comprehensive school catering for children of all abilities, the very bright as well as those in need for remedial help. Different authorities could adopt different systems, and the most widely used system was for comprehensive schools covering the whole age range 11-18. However, this was not universally successful because, on the whole, former grammar schools which became comprehensive retained their teaching staff, and often an academic ethos, but so did the former secondary moderns becoming comprehensive schools, with a less academic staff, a weaker ethos, and thus a disadvantage in terms of developing a sixth form curriculum. An alternative model spread across the major conurbations, and series of 11-16 schools. In general, the sixth form colleges developed from the grammar schools where staff were used to teaching A level whilst the 11-16 schools tended to be developed in the old secondary modern school buildings. In areas where the 11-16 school*

7; Watkins 1982: 3-5). On top of that, the comprehensive sixth forms combined advanced level work with some less academic courses including vocational training (Macfarlane 1993: 7).

Although earlier attempts had been made to develop the 16-18 college concept in the independent sector,¹¹ the introduction of the comprehensive education approach, enabled the philosophy to emerge as the basis for the new kind of institution, *the sixth form college* (Macfarlane 1993: 7-8; Watkins 1982: 4-5). Bearing in mind the new demands of the contemporary society, the ideology behind the sixth form college system was based on the following principles (Macfarlane 1978: 30-33):

- improving the university preparation of the academically able students by employing highly qualified teachers and affording the best resources;
- providing a wide range of subjects to choose from, both academic, vocational and enrichment;
- varying the levels of study including GCE, non-examined cultural courses and vocational studies providing various professional qualifications;
- creating student groups with the capacity which allows a stimulating atmosphere and fosters competition;
- ensuring social and disciplinary organisation because of the nearly adult age of students;
- leaving the academic discipline in the hands of the principal and staff but with much greater students' responsibility for their own affairs;
- facilitating the initiatives undertaken by student councils.

Although the first independent sixth form colleges were opened out of mainstream in 1953, *Welbeck College*, and in 1962, *Atlantic College*,¹² the first state-funded institution to be agreed was *Mexborough Sixth Form College* in 1964 and *Luton* was the first op-

and 16-18 sixth form college system was introduced, the outcomes in terms of staying-on rate and post-16 success have been very good.

¹¹ The first known protagonist of the idea of the sixth form college open to wide variety of children was Rupert Wearing King, who tried to create a kind of prototype modern sixth form college in 1954. His idea, however, was rejected by the grammar school heads and staffs (Watkins 1982: 4). Secondly, Sir Geoffrey Crowther advocated the open sixth form college (Watkins 1982: 5).

¹² Dr John J. Guy OBE explained that *Although places like Welbeck and Atlantic College opened early on, they are not typical of sixth form colleges. Both are private schools – Welbeck is owned by the Ministry of Defence and essentially educates young people who are hoping to join the armed forces and Atlantic College is a private college which specialises in 16-19 year olds with an international focus. Sixth Form Colleges like Luton and the 93 listed by the Association of Colleges arose because of the emergence of comprehensive education in England.*

erational sixth form college in 1966 (Macfarlane 1993: 8-9; Watkins 1982: 5-6). In June 2015 there were 93 state-funded sixth form colleges in England (Association of Colleges 2015: 1); education is free of charge for students under nineteen years of age (The Sixth Form College Farnborough 2013: 2). At this point, we will proceed to describing legal regulations in England which deal with upper secondary education.

3.1.2.1. Legal regulations

The aim of this section is to provide some background information on the legal regulations relating to the English further education system.¹³ Because there is no written constitution in the United Kingdom, all the laws, including those relating education arise from legislation, such as the acts of the Parliament, common law, the European Union laws and the Human Convention of Human Rights (Chartered Institute of Legal Executives 2014: 1). In the first place, a significant shift took place as a result of the *1944 Education Act*, which imposed a statutory duty on *Local Education Authorities* (LEAs), to provide adequate and sufficient facilities for further, post compulsory education (Macfarlane 1993: 11). Furthermore, in 1988 a major educational reform was undertaken, which also affected further education institutions and the guiding principles of this reform are included in the *Education Reform Act 1988* (the National Archives 1993: 1). Additionally, the most detailed and specific regulations regarding only further and higher education are presented in the *Further and Higher Education Act 1992* (the National Archives 2014h: 1). This document also designates the *Secretary of State* as the person who determines all disputes, issues orders, and also supervises whether the quality of education is sufficient, the standards are high, students manifest adequate achievements, and whether the finances are managed properly (the National Archives 2014h: 1). Another important document is *Learning and Skills Act 2000*, which includes specific laws concerning further education institutions (the National Archives 2002: 1). The most fundamental legal regulations regarding English education, including further education, are incorporated in the *Education Act 2011* (the National Archives 2012:1).

¹³ *Further Education* refers to education for those age over 16 but not at a university (Wehmeier 2000: 524) while *Higher Education* provides education and training at college or university level (Wehmeier 2000: 611).

Once such issues have been clarified, it is time to focus on the actual organisation and structure of the sixth form college system.

3.1.2.2. The organisation and structure of the sixth form college system

As far as the organisation and structure of the sixth form college system are concerned, the legal instruments listed in the former section provide the basis for the overall functioning of schools and colleges, with the caveat that there are local variations. The senior agencies governing the sixth form college system are the *Department for Education* and the *Department for Business, Innovation and Skills* of the United Kingdom government, with the *Secretary of State for Education* taking major responsibility for coordinating the system (European Commission 2013d: 1). In addition, there are six agencies or public bodies answering to the *Department for Education* that regulate different aspects of the sixth form school system:

- The *Office of Qualifications and Examinations Regulation (Ofqual)*, which standardizes qualifications, examinations and assessment in England (the National Archives 2014: 1);
- The *Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted)*, which deals with sixth form colleges, school inspections and basic teacher education (the National Archives 2014a: 1);
- The *Education Funding Agency*, which determines funding for all state-provided post-16 education (the National Archives 2014b: 1);
- The *National College for Teaching and Leadership*, which aims at improving the quality of teachers' services and assists sixth form colleges in exchanging experience and helping each other to improve (the National Archives 2014c: 1);
- The *Office of the Children's Commissioner*, which guides the rights, views and interests of children under eighteen years of age (the National Archives 2014d: 1);
- The *Social Mobility and Child Poverty Commission*, which coordinates governmental actions in order to improve social mobility and limit child poverty in the United Kingdom (the National Archives 2014f: 1);
- The *Department for Business, Innovation and Skills*, whose main responsibility is to improve the quality of vocational further education and skills training by providing

funding systems, improving teacher training and apprenticeships schemes (the National Archives 2014g: 1).

In order to be eligible for national funding, it is obligatory for a sixth form college to provide certain types of courses which enable students to acquire approved vocational qualifications, prepare them for the *General Certificate of Secondary Education* (GCSE) or the *General Certificate of Education* (GCE) at *Advanced Level* examinations, and to secure other courses that are mentioned in the *Further and Higher Education Act 1992* (the National Archives 2014h: 74). In practice, as can be found on the official website, an average sixth form college offers *Advanced Level* courses such as *Advanced Subsidiary (AS)*, and *A2*; *General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE)* and *International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE)* courses for those students who would like to retake their lower secondary school exams, and some one- or two-year vocational courses (The Sixth Form College Farnborough 2014: 1). As is explained on the official website, during the average two-year cycle of education in the sixth form college students are required to choose three or four subjects that they will study and prepare for the final qualifications and/or examinations (the Sixth Form College Farnborough 2013a: 9).

Although there are general legal regulations regarding the organisation and structure of the sixth form college system in England, most of the responsibility over the establishment of such type of schools rests with the local authorities (European Commission 2013d: 1). At present, according to the *Further and Higher Education Act 1992*, local councils have the obligation to provide post-16 facilities adequately to the population of their area, and they can apply to the Secretary of State to establish a new sixth form college or sixth form within a school (The National Archives 2014h: 2-14). Additionally, there are also local education authorities with some power regarding supervising the quality, standards and financial management of further education schools (the National Archives 2014h: 9). Moreover, local county councils recommend the organisation of the academic year which must comprise 190 teaching days and an additional five 'teacher days' (Education Reform Act, 1988), for school or college-determined continuing professional development. The academic year in the UK runs from September to August, and a typical school year within the state-funded sector lasts from 1st/2nd September to mid-July and is divided into three terms: autumn, spring and summer (Hampshire County Council 2014: 1).

The 1992 *Further and Higher Education Act* changed the governance of all sixth form colleges¹⁴ (Panchamia 2012: 3-4), taking them out of local authority control and making them independent corporations. A new Governing Body, *The Corporation*, for each college was appointed by the Secretary of State, comprising independent members of the local community from the business and commercial sector, the voluntary sector, and other areas, including a minimum of two parent governors, a student, and a single representative of a local council. This body was given the power to determine the mission of the College, and crucially the power to appoint, appraise, and dismiss the Principal. The power and influence of the local authority in sixth form college education was effectively reduced to zero by this Act of Parliament.¹⁵

In terms of the structure of an average corporation of the sixth form college, the Principal is the head of the academic institution and the Chief Executive of the corporation¹⁶. He or she is assisted by Deputy principals who are responsible for different aspects of the college performance such as finance and administration, curriculum and innovation, student services and registry. All this information can be found in the document, *The Corporation of the Sixth Form College Farnborough management structure and responsibilities* (The Sixth Form College Farnborough 2014a: 1). In most colleges, the appointment and terms and conditions of employment of the members of this team are the responsibility of the Corporation. Additionally, many sixth form colleges have student associations where the President of the Association is also a member of the Governing Body of the College and oversees a variety of college activities including social and charity events (The Sixth Form College Farnborough 2014b: 1). Moreover,

¹⁴ Dr John J. Guy OBE shed some more light on this and explained that *The Act changed the sixth form colleges' status overnight so that on 1 April 1993 they became incorporated institutions. This meant that the ownership of the land and the buildings transferred to the governing body of the college, also referred to as the Corporation, who had complete responsibility for the college as defined in the Articles and instrument of government. In addition, staff employment was transferred from the local authority to the College Governing Body so new contracts were issued and staff were no longer subject to School Teachers' Review Body* (the National Archives 2014e). *So salaries were no longer linked to the school teachers' scale but were subject to decisions of the governing body. The Principal of the College who had previously been an employee of the local authority became the Chief Executive Officer of the corporation and was responsible for the overall budget of the college. At The Sixth Form College Farnborough this was about £16 million per year, about 65% of which was spent on staff salaries.*

¹⁵ This information was provided by the former long-standing Principal of the Sixth Form College Farnborough, Dr John J. Guy OBE

¹⁶ The term *corporation* is used in official documents with the reference to a sixth form college in order to put some emphasis on its independence.

occasionally parents' associations are also formed, the main role of which is to facilitate the community activities (Watkins 1982: 18).

Each sixth form college is required to publish a *college charter*, which provides information on admission, guidance and counselling, financial issues, teaching and learning information, legal provisions and other issues (The Sixth Form College Farnborough 2013: 1-4). Importantly, the Charter also outlines the complaints procedure so that students and parents have a clear pathway for escalating a complaint if it is not dealt with to their satisfaction (The Sixth Form College 2011: 1-7). Colleges also have a *code of conduct*, which defines the required pattern of behaviour of the sixth form college students as well as disciplinary procedures (The Sixth Form College 2011: 1-7). The following section focuses on the role of the principal of the sixth form college as a leader in education.

3.1.2.3. The role of a principal as a leader in English education

The framework for the general role of the principal as a leader in education has been described in section 3.1.1.3., and therefore, the main focus at this juncture will be on the presentation of the legal requirements for the principal of the sixth form college. In the first place, as the document *The further education regulations* specifies, an individual can be appointed as a principal of a further education institution, including a sixth form college if he or she has successfully completed the *Principals' Qualifying Program* organised by the *Centre for Excellence in Leadership* or if he or she holds an equivalent qualification received in an European Economic Area State or Switzerland which are in accordance with the suitable EU directives (the National Archives 2007: 1-2).

The process of recruitment of a principal is based on *The Employment Practices Code* (Information Commissioner's Office 2011) and some additional vetting is necessary under the *Protection of Children Act 1999* (Information Commissioner's Office 2011: 15). Consequently, the detailed procedures are as follows (Information Commissioner's Office 2011: 16):

- a national advertisement;
- applications;
- verification;

- short-listing;
- interviews, pre-employment vetting;
- retention of recruitment records.

Although there are no regulations governing the appointment process, typically the Governing Body will publish two important documents for prospective applicants: the *Job Description* and the *Person Specification*. The *job description*¹⁷ provides a useful overview of the scope of activities of the principal of such an educational institution. For example, it will require the principal to fulfil the main objectives of the institution, provide outstanding leadership in all aspects of the college management and performance, cooperate with the local community institutions and educational partners, improve different aspects of the college performance with the special emphasis on improving students' achievements, provide superb managerial skills in order to improve the college premises, and, last but not least, perform all actions in accordance with internal and external legal regulations and provisions. (see Appendix 1).

The *person specification*¹⁸ contains a list of essential and desirable attributes related to education, qualifications and self-development; leadership track record; strategic and visionary thinking abilities; inspirational communication skills; and ability to work and inspire young people and business acumen. (see Appendix 2). If the potential candidates feel that they meet the requirements of the person specification and are confident that they carry out the duties outlined in the *job description*, they may choose to apply for the position. Typically, this will involve completing an application form, which requires considerable effort and thought because it is designed to shed some light on the candidate's potential.¹⁹ The application form might include, apart from providing some personal, educational and experience information, three sections in which the candidates must define, in maximum 500 words per each section:

- how their experience in education has prepared them for the leadership role;
- examples of three of their meaningful achievements during their last 36 months that prove their suitability for the post;

¹⁷ The original document from the actual principal selection process at The Sixth Form College Farnborough in 2009-2010.

¹⁸ The original document obtained by the present author during the original process of principal selection process in The Sixth Form College Farnborough 2009-2010.

¹⁹ The information in this paragraph is based on Dr John J. Guy's comments and explanation.

- the possible challenges facing a newly appointed principal of the sixth form college and the way the candidate will deal with them. (see Appendix 3).

Even a cursory glance at the selection procedure indicates that the most cherished and valued qualities sought by the governors is the ability to provide good leadership combined with excellent managerial skills. It seems obvious that the principal's²⁰ role is not only to secure modern facilities, but also to employ the best possible teaching staff in order to create an inspirational atmosphere to support students in achieving the best possible results.

3.1.2.4. The organisation of foreign language teaching in English sixth form colleges

²⁰ The interview with Dr John J. Guy OBE, the then Principal of The Sixth Form College Farnborough, conducted by the present writer on 6th August 2010, may shed some additional light on the principal's of the sixth form college role as a leader in education. Being a long-term and highly successful Principal in two educational institutions he can be an excellent example of a leader in education in England and his views on this subject may reflect the general tendency and expectations from the leader in English sixth form colleges. Thus, Dr Guy remarked that a leader *need to build up a critical mass of people who are on the side of the idea and he/she must value the students, value the staff, and change things gradually*. As for the worst qualities that a leader in education should avoid, Dr Guy considered *isolating from people, not listening to the and doing things without planning*. Dr Guy also enumerated the most desired qualities of a leader which were: *self-motivation, so the leader has to have real drive and energy to really want to succeed for the organisation; the ability to motivate others; and self-awareness of own faults, fears and anxieties*. He highlighted that *blind hard work wouldn't produce a good leader*. Dr Guy emphasised that the ability to communicate with others was indispensable and people who were simply unable to communicate with others would never become good leaders. When asked what kind of activities should a person perform in order to improve leadership skills, Dr Guy replied that *they need to study the different types of leadership styles and they should ask their colleagues how well they were doing because a good leader was not afraid to take advice and constructive criticism from people that he or she leads*. Dr Guy added that *the principals of the eleven sixth form colleges in Hampshire meet up every six or eight weeks and they discussed a number of things including any difficulties they had in their own institutions*, and he considered this as very important since *they could share and understand what other leaders were doing*. His other reflections on leadership regarded the need for *constant evaluation of an organisation and developing a self-critical ethos within the organisation*. Moreover, in his view the principal as a leader in education should *work the hardest in an organisation, and not just delegate duties and then sit and watch*. However, it does not mean that the principal has to do all the things himself/herself. According to Dr Guy, a leader should *have in place people who have got a responsibility for developing excellence in teaching, develop excellence in the pastoral support of students, developing excellence in the buildings, delivering excellence in finance, but a leader could not afford not to take notice of everything*. Dr Guy also highlighted the importance of providing a nice environment in which people work since they would be more productive in their work. Having considered what Dr Guy said about the way he considers leadership in education, it may be concluded that a principal as a leader in the sixth form college education should have some developed and innate skills that help him to build up an efficient and dedicated team in the institution, should always have a plan to improve things but introduce changes gradually, must create a friendly and supportive atmosphere in the workplace, should set an excellent example for the co-workers and students by working extremely hard, should seek for constructive criticism and ought to exchange ideas and seek support among other leaders in education.

As is the case in Poland, educational foreign language policy in England has to be established in accordance with major documents of the European Union and English official documents which were listed in the section devoted to *the organisation and structure of the sixth form college system*. Interestingly, in post-16 education there is no national curriculum and the organisation of foreign language teaching in each college is determined by the school itself²¹. Additionally, the curriculum schemes are produced by foreign language teachers on the basis of GCE criteria for modern languages (Ofqual 2011) and exam specifications published by official examination boards such as *Assessment and Qualifications Alliance* (AQA 2013), *Pearson Education Limited* (Edexcel 2013) and *Oxford, Cambridge and RSA Examination Board* (OCR 2013) and approved later by the principal.

Students choose whether or not to study a modern foreign language in the post-16 sector; it is not compulsory. Typically, subjects are offered at two advanced levels. The first is the introductory advanced level, building upon the skills and knowledge successfully acquired in the GCSE course, which is called *Advanced Subsidiary (AS)* and may be equated to level B1 proficiency when referring to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (Council of Europe 2011). The examination at this level is taken after the first year of learning.²²

The second level of foreign language education is the extended level, called *A2*, which is equivalent to the B2 proficiency when taking *CEFR* (Council of Europe 2011) scales and the examination at this level is taken after the second year of studies²³. Moreover, such aspects as the length of the lesson and the minimum number of hours per week or year are decided by the college authorities. The length of individual lessons varies from 55 minutes to 1.5 hours in different colleges, with an average of 4.5 hours in total per week per subject, which translates into approximately 540 hours each year as for the minimum hours of teaching.²⁴ There are no national rules regulating the number

²¹ Majority of the factual information about the organisation and structure of modern foreign language teaching in sixth form colleges in England in this section comes from Dr John J. Guy OBE, the then Principal of the Sixth Form College Farnborough, and the Heads of Modern Foreign Languages Departments from the Sixth Form College Farnborough, Barton Peveril College, Strode's College and Peter Symonds College.

²² This information was obtained from Dr John Guy OBE and the Heads of Modern Languages Departments in four sixth form colleges in England.

²³ This information was obtained from Dr John J. Guy OBE and the Heads of Modern Languages Departments in four English sixth form colleges.

²⁴ This information was obtained from the Heads of Modern Foreign Languages Departments in four sixth form colleges in England.

of students in language groups; in this study, group sizes ranged from 15 to 22 in different colleges but across the country A level language groups may be as small as 2 or 3 students.²⁵

Similarly, there are no national legal regulations regarding the choice of the coursebook. To be more specific, it is the school leadership team and foreign language teachers who decide which textbook to use, if any, with the qualification that they usually stick to a coursebook endorsed by their examination board.²⁶ As far as employing new teachers is concerned, it is the individual college decision; however, the minimum criterion for a foreign language teacher is to have a teaching qualification in addition to a degree²⁷. Colleges prefer to hire teachers who have a good knowledge of a foreign language and who can communicate with and teach young people effectively; in the majority of colleges candidates for a new appointment have to do an observed teaching session as a part of the selection process²⁸ to demonstrate their competence. It must be emphasised that usually qualified and experienced teachers have an advantage but sometimes the College authorities decide that individuals without formal qualifications should be hired since they see their potential for being excellent teachers.²⁹

Taking everything into account, it seems that English sixth form colleges enjoy great freedom and represents a decentralised model of modern foreign language teaching. However, colleges are subject to supervision by suitable authorities such as the *Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills* (Ofsted 2014). The principalship and senior managers in each college retain the responsibility for providing the best quality teaching and they can make independent decisions in almost all strategic fields of the college performance, including modern foreign languages.

²⁵ This information was obtained from the Heads of Modern Foreign Languages Departments in four sixth form colleges in England.

²⁶ This information was obtained from the Heads of Modern Foreign Languages Department in four sixth form colleges in England.

²⁷ This information was obtained from the present Principal of the Sixth Form College Farnborough MSc Simon Jarvis, who also highlighted that *sixth form college have always had this freedom to appoint whoever they deem to be a good teacher.*

²⁸ This information was obtained from the present Principal of the Sixth Form College Farnborough, MSc Simon Jarvis.

²⁹ This information was obtained from MSc Simon Jarvis, the present Principal of the Sixth Form College Farnborough.

3.1.3. Comparing the similarities and differences of Polish and English upper secondary school systems

Even a cursory glance at the information which was provided in the preceding sections confirms that there are many organisational and structural differences between the general upper secondary school system in Poland and sixth form college system in England; these are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The differences between the Polish and English upper secondary school systems.

Characteristic	Polish general upper secondary schools	English sixth form colleges
Origin	Historical roots	Specifically created to meet demands of modern society
Curriculum	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Three-year cycle, mandatory subjects with optional extended subjects 2) Learning modern foreign languages is mandatory 3) Obligatory national core curriculum including foreign languages 4) There are firm regulations regarding the choice of a coursebook 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Two-year cycle, students choose 3 or 4 subjects, all individual choices 2) Learning modern foreign languages is optional 3) No national core curriculum 4) Colleges decide about the coursebook
General organisation and structure	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) There are firm national rules of employing foreign language teachers 2) The minimum teaching hours are nationally set 3) The length of lessons is set nationally 4) There is a maximum number of 24 students in a language group, which is regulated by national law 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) No national rules, the principal's responsibility 2) The college authorities regulate the minimum hours of teaching, and they seem to be higher than in Poland both at the basic/introductory and extended levels 3) The length of lessons is regulated by college authorities and seems to be considerably longer than in Poland 4) Colleges decide about the size of a language group

The most striking differences concern the curriculum and organisational issues. Similarities are rare and they mainly concern the fact that both Polish general upper secondary schools and English sixth form colleges must follow high-level organisational principles established by the acts of their parliaments and appropriate minister's decrees. Secondly, both types of schools operate on the basis of a set of internal documents that regulate some details of the schools' performance, such as *code of conduct* and *school charter*.

3.2. Rationale for investigating selected aspects of foreign language teaching in Polish and English upper secondary schools

At this point, it seems warranted to discuss the rationale for the selection of nine aspects of foreign language instruction in Polish and English upper secondary schools that were investigated in the study reported in this dissertation. Thus, the subsections that follow focus on such issues as functioning and cooperation of teacher teams, the model of the foreign language lesson, teaching techniques and aids, the use of a coursebook, forms of student assessment, classroom interactions and the ways of making students autonomous. Two other aspects of the present research were discussed previously, namely, program evaluation in *Chapter 2* and the role of the principal as a leader in education in sections *3.1.1.3.* and *3.1.2.3.*

3.2.1. Teachers' teamwork and cooperation

It is widely accepted that each teacher's obligation is to improve instructional practices throughout their career in order to help their students achieve the best possible results. In the opinion of many researchers, schools should aim to create an efficient teacher team which helps practitioners in their professional development and concentrates on students' achievement; this approach is applicable across all types of teacher teams (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009; Farber and Armaline 2012; Fischer and Taylor 2012; Jurczyk et al. 2012; Wlazło 2012). Additionally, professional development is the most effective when it is *on-site, job embedded, sustained over time, centred on active learning and focused on student outcomes*; most outside workshop trainings cannot provide such conditions on a regular basis (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 57).

Firstly, it seems warranted to define what a teacher team is, what the types of teams can be distinguished and what their goals are. Thus, a teacher team is a group of teachers whose cooperation and activities influence the overall performance of a school (Fischer and Taylor 2012: 236); the identification of particular teams, and how many, depend on the organisation of the school's performance and curriculum issues (Fischer and Taylor 2012: 236). It is crucial, however, for the teacher team to have clearly defined goals, such as:

- facilitating lasting positive changes in the classroom (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 57);
- improving professional knowledge and skills (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 57);
- solving existing problems (Farber and Armaline 2012: 230);
- providing mutual support and cooperating in educational processes (Jurczyk et al. 2012: 265).

Undoubtedly, there are numerous advantages of having efficient teacher teams at school to enable teachers to meet with each other on a regular basis and exchange ideas; this may encourage teachers to extend their own professional knowledge and feel more responsible for contributing to improving a school's performance. When there are efficient teacher teams in a school, it appears that teachers are more willing to identify educational problems and are more resourceful in dealing with them because of close cooperation. Finally, they can share their experience and good practice with younger colleagues, providing a supportive framework (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 57; Fischer and Taylor 2012: 236).

In order to create a well-performing teacher team, some rules of cooperation must be established. In the first place, there should be a *team facilitator* or *team leader* who manages the formal aspects of the team's performance as well as acts in the capacity of a professional expert (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 58). Secondly, the timetable for meetings should be scheduled in advance, together with establishing ways of communication between the team members and determining their responsibilities (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 59). Other things that require regulating concern agreeing on certain professional standards which the group will follow and the scope of good classroom practices. It is particularly important to build an atmosphere of trust and mutual respect within a group and to agree on the way of recording the group's achievements, as well as performing evaluation (Farber and Armaline 2012: 228-229; Fischer and Taylor 2012: 236). The principal of the school can play a significant role in the teams' performance affecting it either in a positive or negative way; providing support and inspiration is positive and raises spirits, but blame and criticism for poor results, for example, is negative and lowers morale (Fischer and Taylor 2012: 249).

These principles apply to all teaching teams but in this study are considered with respect to their impact on foreign language teachers. Since the overall goal of foreign language education is to provide the best possible teaching, creating well-functioning

teacher teams may be one of the means of achieving this goal. This is the reason why the present author has decided to focus on this issue in her research. It is her belief that finding examples of good practice regarding foreign language teacher teams' performance in Polish general upper secondary schools or English sixth form colleges may enrich and improve the overall quality of foreign language teaching in both contexts.

3.2.2. The model of a foreign language lesson

Employing a particular model of a foreign language lesson means implementing certain theories of foreign language learning and teaching and much research has been reported in the literature. As demonstrated in the relevant literature, a good foreign language lesson should focus on developing communicative skills; it should contain a logical and coherent structure which derives from careful planning and considering in-depth contexts; it should produce specific learning outcomes with regard to the syllabus and curriculum; and it should also provide each learner with a chance to use the target language and become more and more independent from the teacher (Rifkin 2003: 177; Woodin 2001: 61). Komorowska (2002: 51) specifies the stages of a good foreign language lesson which include efficient introduction of the new material, successful practice and consolidation of what has been taught and is hoped to be learned. According to some researchers (Harmer 2002; Haynes 2010; Woodin 2001), it is advisable to introduce some form of pair or group-work to facilitate efficient communication together with appropriate pacing and scheduling of activities (Woodin 2001: 61). Finally, the most frequently mentioned features of a good foreign language lesson include the necessity to connect the actual lesson with the previous and following ones, and to relate the language that has been taught and learned to different authentic contexts (Komorowska 2002: 51; Woodin 2001: 61). An interesting proposal has been advanced by Harmer (2002: 308-311) which concerns the pre-planning stage of a foreign language lesson. He compares the teacher to a doctor who should first make an accurate diagnosis before delving into actual lesson planning. The teacher's pre-planning activities ought to include assessing the students' language mastery, their *educational* and *cultural background*, *motivation* and *learning styles* and should be grounded in good knowledge of syllabus and curriculum. Harmer (2002: 317-318) has also introduced another interest-

ing proposal, that is the idea of planning a *sequence of lessons*, which are joined together logically and thematically by a set of *short* and *long-term goals*. Following this could provide students with more challenging and involving activities.

A good and efficient foreign language lesson should include the following phases:

- defining the *aims* of the lesson or, in other words, determining what the teacher would like to achieve and considering the *needs* of the students (Harmer 2002: 315; Haynes 2010: 8; Komorowska 2002: 49; Rifkin 2003: 173);
- specifying the *objectives* of the lesson, which involves determining what the teacher would like to succeed in during the lesson, but in a narrower and more specific way; such objectives should be *measurable, achievable, relevant* and *time-bound* (Haynes 2010: 67-68; Rifkin 2003: 173);
- assessing what students already know about the topic relevant to the particular lesson (Haynes 2010: 69);
- deciding on the *scope* and *content* of the lesson (Haynes 2010: 69; Komorowska 2002: 49-50);
- choosing adequate *methods* and *techniques*, which will successfully help the teacher to achieve his/her goals (Haynes 2010: 69; Komorowska 2002: 50);
- visualising the *teacher's expectations* before the actual lesson, which can help the teacher to assess whether the quality of learner achievement is sufficient or not (Haynes 2010: 70-71);
- choosing appropriate learning activities for different stages of the lesson and deciding on the ways in which they should be introduced (Haynes 2010: 71; Komorowska 2002: 50);
- deciding on *homework*, which will enhance the quality of learning as well as devising at which stage of the lesson the students should be informed about it, since, for instance, announcing homework at the end of the lesson may indicate that this is of less importance (Haynes 2010: 71-72; Komorowska 2002: 51);
- taking into account the *differentiation of learning* and adjusting the lesson activities in a way that will suit students with different learning styles and abilities as well as students at different proficiency levels (Haynes 2010: 72; Komorowska 2002: 50);
- ensuring the *progression in learning*, which means moving from one lesson to the next in a coherent and logical way (Haynes 2010: 72; Komorowska 2002: 50);

- considering other *curriculum links*, which may enrich language learning (Haynes 2010: 73-74; Komorowska 2002: 50);
- taking into account *time*, regarding the whole year, week and stages of a particular lesson (Haynes 2010: 95; Komorowska 50);
- taking into consideration the *school space* and *facilities* which are available, which may influence or even determine the choice of instructional procedures (Haynes 2010: 74-75);
- deciding what kind of *resources* will be the most appropriate in the course of a lesson, *teacher-made* or *ready-made* (Haynes 2010: 75; Komorowska 2002: 50-51);
- deciding on the proportions of *modes of language* that will be employed and developed in the particular lesson (Haynes 2010: 132-133);
- involving *ancillary staff* in the lesson procedures so that they could understand what is going on in the lesson and they could improve their own practices (Haynes 2010: 75);
- conducting *risk assessment* since some activities may pose health and safety risks if they are not managed properly (Haynes 2010: 75-76; Komorowska 2002: 51);
- providing *authentic* and *complex* forms of students' *assessment* as well as teachers' *evaluation* and *review*, which can facilitate the process of letting students know about their strengths and weaknesses rather than just assessing their reproduction of knowledge (Haynes 2010: 164).

Because there are so many recommendations regarding foreign language lesson planning, it is helpful to narrow such a list to the most necessary minimum. Rifkin (2003: 173-176) discusses five basic phases of the foreign language lesson such as *the overview phase (preview)*, where the goals and objectives of the lesson are presented to the students; *the presentation phase (prime)*, where the new material is introduced; *the drill and practice phase*, where students try to master new abilities thorough a set of learning tasks; *check (accountability) phase*, where students can display what skills and language concepts they have successfully mastered; and, finally *the follow-up phase*, which can include *cultural analysis* and overall discussion on what the students achieved and where they failed and why.

Even such a brief presentation of theoretical concepts related to lesson planning and the way in which a language lesson can be constructed clearly indicates that this issue must be dealt with very carefully. For this reason, it seems justified to include this

element into the present comparative research. In addition, the findings may provide other practitioners with examples of efficient lesson models and ways of preparing outstanding lesson plans; this may naturally enhance the overall quality of foreign language instruction

3.2.3. Instructional procedures

The adoption of adequate teaching techniques and teaching aids may improve the quality of foreign language teaching on condition that the instructional procedures have been selected according to the lesson goals and they take into account the needs of a particular group of students. Thus, the present section will focus on the selection of foreign language teaching methods and techniques, including available teaching aids together with guidelines for their most optimal use; there will be a special emphasis on modern Information and Communication Technology tools.

The use of appropriate teaching methods and techniques depends on several factors, such as the goals of the lesson and the needs of a particular group of learners; however, the main aim of choosing them should be to improve students' language *knowledge* and *skills* as well as to facilitate *interpersonal communication* based on real life situations (Harajová 2009: 1; Kumaravadivelu 2003: 24). Kumaravadivelu (2003: 25-27) groups teaching methods into three categories such as *language-centred methods*, which focus on developing *linguistic forms*; *learner-centred methods*, where the main goal is to ensure that learners are both grammatically correct and communicatively fluent since they concentrate on the *language content* and *students' needs*; and *learning-centred methods*, where the main focus is on the *learning process*. Active teaching methods are frequently recommended in modern pedagogy since they are considered to facilitate creativity, independence and motivation among learners (Harajová 2009: 4). Harajová (2009: 2-4) enumerates several techniques and approaches that may lay the basis for ensuring greater student engagement:

- the *inductive approach*, where the learners have to figure out the rules of the grammatical structure on the basis of a meaningful context;
- the *exploratory approach*, which relies on guessing the meaning of vocabulary by studying it in context;

- the *interpretational technique*, which relies on introducing new words, especially technical terms, in the form of visual aids that is then followed by text analysis;
- the *simulation technique*, which involves introducing authentic contexts in communicative tasks in order to facilitate communication skills and strategies;
- the *interactive approach*, which relies on making learners solve complex language problems;
- the *project work*, which, among other things, consists in making students incorporate the target culture into language learning;
- the *contrastive approach*, which relies on making students aware of intercultural differences between languages and react in an appropriate way in a particular real life situation.

Grouping students in various ways may also be a kind of instructional technique. Harmer (2002: 114-117) enumerates a whole range of advantages and disadvantages related to *whole-class grouping*, *individualised learning*, *pairwork* and *groupwork*. For instance, *whole-class grouping* boosts the sense of belonging to a group, is adequate for teachers who work as controllers at a particular phase of the lesson and gives the teacher the overall picture of the students' progress (Harmer 2002: 114-115). However, such a way of grouping learners may limit the process of individualisation, students may not feel responsible for their own learning, it may cause some discipline problems, and it may discourage shy students from participating in front of the whole group (Harmer 2002: 115). *Individual learning* may, on the one hand, provide a secure atmosphere where the teacher can focus on the learner's needs to a maximum degree, fostering learner autonomy, but on the other hand, working with students individually does not encourage cooperation and the teacher's preparations may be time-consuming (Harmer 2002: 115-116). Another form of grouping students is *pairwork*, which enhances opportunities to speak, facilitates independence from the teacher, promotes cooperation and is easy and quick to manage (Harmer 2002: 116). Nevertheless, grouping students in pairs may increase discipline problems and students might deal with their own issues rather than the lesson goals (Harmer 2002: 116-117). Last but not least, the advantages of *groupwork* include the increased possibility of speaking, it requires cooperation and it enables learners to make choices (Harmer 2002: 117). However, working in groups is more time-consuming and problematic in terms of classroom discipline, it may also lead to the situation when some students are passive (Harmer 2002: 117-118).

The choice of instructional techniques also depends on the language skills which are taught. As far as teaching *listening* is concerned, Haynes (2012: 122) places emphasis on “the provision of rich aural experiences and the encouragement of active listening”. He also gives some advice on how to make listening activities more efficient. For instance, Haynes (2010: 123) recommends providing learners with questions beforehand in order to direct their attention to particular situations, requesting students to concentrate on examples of specific topics and/or asking them to do some tasks while listening.

As for *reading skills*, Haynes (2010) points out that it is very important how the teacher wants to use written texts. Hence, one possibility is to use a text as a *script* when the teacher or students read the text and then some exercises are done (Haynes 2010: 129). A text can also be used as a *resource*, in which case some parts are omitted and/or only a single component of a text, such as a map or a picture may be used (Haynes 2010: 129). Another option is to use the text as a source of information, where students gain knowledge on a particular topic (Haynes 2010: 129-130). Finally, the text might be employed as an *object*, when after studying the text, students formulate questions (Haynes 2010: 130).

Thornbury (2008) provides a whole range of types of *speaking* activities that facilitate learner awareness. His ideas include (Thornbury 2008: 41-111):

- *using recordings and transcripts*, where students are exposed to the examples of speaking and they study transcripts of these examples; such activities may lack authenticity but they include pre-selected grammar issues and are usually adjusted to the learners’ level of competency;
- *using live listening*, which allows students to interact with the speaker without the distraction of the technological devices;
- *using noticing-the-gap activities*, which makes learners aware that some information has been omitted and they need some language competence to fill this gap;
- *drilling and chants*, which helps who pays attention to particular language patterns;
- *writing tasks*, such as *dictation*, *paper* or *computer chats*, which helps to slow down the speaking process and makes students pay more attention on accuracy;
- *assisted performance* and *scaffolding*, where the teacher can help learners by, for instance, rephrasing their spoken utterances;

- *dialogues*, which facilitate cooperation, independence and allows negation of meanings;
- *communicative activities*, which increase learners' motivation when achieving the goal of the task;
- *stories, jokes, and anecdotes*, which can help learners to understand the target culture better and at the same time contribute to releasing stress and negative emotions;
- *drama, role-play, and simulation*, which can direct students' attention to more dramatic and varied means of communication;
- *discussions and debates*, which encourage learners to use topical vocabulary as well as particular grammar structures.

As far as *writing* skills are concerned, it is recommended to foster treating writing more as *process* rather than only as *product* since this gives the teacher a chance to teach about the writing strategies and it may help to prevent cognitive overload (Haynes 2010: 132). Some specialists (Hedge 2008; Ur 2002) highlight the importance of following certain stages and principles while introducing writing task. For instance, Hedge (2008: 305-307) lists making student writers to do some planning beforehand, together with some reflection and making improvements. Then she emphasises the importance of making learners aware of the target reader and his or her needs as well as making information clear and accessible in an adequate style. Another set of principles may foster the effectiveness of writing tasks where the main goal should be letting learners express their ideas in a comprehensive way for the reader. Thus, according to Hedge (2008: 308-319), the first step should be assisting student writers to generate ideas regarding the task, which may be done through pair work and/or brainstorm activities. She also mentions providing practice in planning skills, which should foster finding students' individual ways of doing this. Hedge (2008: 308-319) highlights the importance of doing some contextualizing tasks, which may help to focus on the reader's needs. Some final stages required in introducing writing activities may be giving feedback on the student's progress, informing students about the technological devices which may be useful in writing and giving students instructions, such as timing frames. Ur (2002: 164) provides five criteria for selecting appropriate writing activities, these are as follows:

- student writers ought to find the tasks motivating, stimulating and interesting to do;
- the tasks should be of an adequate level;
- students must find writing activities relevant to their needs;

- in some cases some introductory teaching has to be done as a form of preparation for the particular activity;
- the teacher himself or herself should find the task appealing to them.

Many scholars maintain that employing teaching aids during a foreign language lesson should fulfil certain overall goals such as facilitating foreign language learning, making foreign language classes more attractive, appealing to students through a variety of channels in order to activate different senses at the same time, and providing stimuli for students with different learning strategies (Haynes 2010: 84; Komorowska 2002: 46; Ur 2002: 189; Wright and White 2001: 97). As Haynes (2010: 93) claims based on Nunan (1988), there are certain criteria which should be employed when selecting foreign language teaching aids with a special emphasis on the lesson goals. What should also be taken into account is how much interaction the teacher requires from the students. Consequently, the teacher can use teaching aids that are simply presented to students with no or very limited interaction, or the teacher can employ aids which demand some productive response from the students (Haynes 2010: 93).

Among many examples of teaching aids, the most suitable in the case of foreign language learning seem to be:

- *computers* and *Internet resources*, since students are usually very fond of using modern Information and Communication Technology devices and they can work at their own pace both at school and outside it (Madej 2011: 31; Szerszeń 2011: 28; Ur 2002: 190; Wright and White 2001: 98);
- *books* and *magazines*, including dictionaries, reference books, or grammar books, because they can not only provide supplementary and/or explanatory source of information for students can also help teachers bring their own knowledge up to date (Komorowska 2002: 44; Ur 2002: 190);
- *multimedia devices*, such as multimedia projectors and smartboards, since they can present both written and visual material; they are also attractive for students by making the lesson more vivid, and they also save a lot of teacher's time (Madej 2011: 34; Ur 2002: 191);
- *audio-visual equipment*, which can be an outstanding source of authentic spoken language (Ur 2002: 191),
- *audio equipment*, which not only provides spoken language texts but is also very cheap and easy to use (Ur 2002: 191);

- *visual materials* such as posters, pictures and games, which also guarantee a diversity of stimuli for learners (Komorowska 2002: 43; Ur 2002: 191).
- *authentic materials*, the use of which may increase students' *integrative motivation*, that is the desire to communicate with the natives or explore the target culture (Benson 2001: 125; Cook 1981: 5) and it may help learners develop a variety of learning strategies (Haines 1995: 5; Hedge 2008: 67-69).

Since present-day students use many different types of modern electronic devices, it seems to be of vital importance to employ such tools in the foreign language classroom as teaching aids. More precisely, the use of teaching aids based on *computer-assisted language learning* may bring about numerous benefits for foreign language learning, especially through integrating different forms of stimuli that learners can be exposed to (Benson: 2001: 138; Brett and González-Lloret 2011: 351). Furthermore, computer-based teaching aids provide both linguistic and non-linguistic contexts, they facilitate “exploratory learning and encourage learners to exercise control over the selection of materials and strategies of interpretation” (Benson 2001: 138-139). As Szerzeń (2011: 28) remarks, when dealing with electronic media as teaching aids, students are encouraged to become autonomous to a greater extent since the teacher acts more as a counsellor and moderator by pointing to aims and supporting students in their independence in achieving them. Furthermore, Madej (2011: 35-36) points to other numerous advantages of employing ICT devices, including making lessons more involving and motivating, as well as having the possibility of introducing consolidating exercises. Other advantages may promote the better memorising of facts by students and the possibility of instant checking or self-checking of students' knowledge (Madej 2011: 35-36). Thanks to the use of ICT devices, students may feel that their needs and interests are respected since they are involved in lesson planning and decision making (Madej 2011: 35-36). Finally, students may notice and appreciate the teacher's efforts in creating an efficient foreign language lesson (Madej 2011: 35-36).

ICT resources can be used in a multitude of ways as teaching aids. Madej (2011: 32-34), for example, enumerates *blended learning*, which is combining CALL with classroom learning; *podcasts*, which are a kind of audio Internet series that are usually thematically oriented; *screencasts*, which are usually a kind of instructional films made by the computer user; *vodcasts*, which could be defined as a form of the Internet TV with resources on demand; *Virtual Learning Environment*, which is a kind of Intranet

tool which facilitates teacher-student communication; *online dictionaries*, which are extremely efficient tools when checking the meaning and pronunciation of the target words; *Wikipedia*, which is a free international, multilanguage Internet encyclopaedia; *online language activities and games*, which often have the time-saving self-check option; *blogs*, which could be an excellent example of authentic material which can suit different interests of students; *WebQuests*, which could be a tool for students' independent search for information; and, finally, *RSS*, which are a kind of messages that could be sent.

Given the above arguments, the present author decided to incorporate both the use of teaching techniques and teaching aids in a foreign language lesson in the empirical part of her dissertation. Finding differences between the Polish general upper secondary schools and English sixth form colleges in this respect and discussing their relevance might contribute to overall improvement in foreign language teaching in both Polish and English upper secondary schools.

3.2.4. The use of a coursebook

Learning a foreign language is often associated with the use of a coursebook providing a variety of materials at a particular level. In the opinion of many researchers, however, the choice of a suitable textbook for a group of learners in foreign language teaching is not straightforward and demands an understanding of the main rationale for using a textbook, the benefits and drawbacks of employing a coursebook in a foreign language lesson, the way of choosing and evaluating a textbook, and the different uses to which a coursebook can be put in a foreign language lesson. It is such issues that will be the main focus of this section.

Irrespective of the theoretical approaches reflected in the coursebook, its main goal ought to be developing the principal language skills, allowing students to get greater command over target language subsystems (Komorowska 2002: 40). Since there is a general consensus that communication in particular is the leading goal of learning a language, effective teaching of this skill should be the principal aim of each textbook (Tomlinson 1998: 300; Waters 2011: 312). However, Waters and other scholars have emphasized two further aims; the first is that foreign language teaching materials, in-

cluding coursebooks ought to reflect the latest advances in the domain of *academic, theorizing and researching* related to *language, language learning and education* (Waters 2011: 311). Secondly, from the *audience-based* perspective, the needs of language learners should always be taken into consideration when creating or choosing language teaching materials (Waters 2011: 311).

There are advantages and disadvantages of using a coursebook during a foreign language lesson and being aware of them might help foreign language teachers make appropriate choices in this respect. On the positive side, an approved textbook can be confidently assumed to cover the syllabus requirements for both the teacher and the learner (Harmer 2002: 304; Tomlinson 1998: 298; Ur 2002: 184). Professional coursebooks are usually created by a team of specialists, and so they contain a carefully matched coverage of vocabulary, language structures, texts and sets of activities suitable for a particular level of proficiency. Their suitability is usually checked in pilot studies before publication (Cunningsworth 1984: 1; Harmer 2002: 304; Ur 2002: 184) because, apart from professional credibility, the costs of editing and producing a textbook, even for a limited group of learners, may be enormous (Ur 2002: 184). Furthermore, since a lot of preparation and presentation has been already done for teachers when using a coursebook, they can have much more free time to concentrate on creating complementary materials which can enhance the effectiveness of instruction (Tomlinson 1998: 299). Last but not least, an appropriately constructed textbook may foster learner autonomy, especially when it gives students some choices over, for example, the level of texts and tasks or even progression rate (Fenner 2000:80-81; Tomlinson 1998: 302).

At the same time, however, the teacher's excessive reliance on a textbook might result in diminishing teachers' creativity and making foreign language teaching too routine, which is seldom a good thing (Cunningsworth 1984: 1; Harmer 2002: 304; Tomlinson 1998: 298; Ur 2002: 185). To some extent at least, textbooks contain generally structured content which leads all learners in a particular way, and this may not facilitate individual learning and diversification of needs, interests, abilities and learning strategies of students (Fenner 2000: 78; Ur 2002: 185).

In order to avoid or at least limit the pitfalls of using a foreign language textbook, a careful consideration of which one to use and its thorough evaluation while using it is essential. Camilleri (2000) provides important suggestions for writers which may also be useful for language teachers when considering the choice of a new course-

book. She stresses in particular *authenticity*, *learner autonomy* and *cultural awareness* when designing a textbook since these features make foreign language learning more tangible for students and contribute to improving communication skills (Camilleri 2000: 13). Consequently, language teachers should make sure that these points are incorporated into the structure of their book of choice.

Harmer has suggested that creating a checklist of the most important points which a coursebook should contain would be a useful tool to assist a teacher to identify an appropriate book (Harmer 2002: 301); the following is an example:

- a good coursebook ought to follow the course aims and objectives (Cunningsworth 1984: 5; Hedge 2008: 357; Ur 2002: 186);
- the language included has to be adequate for students' needs and abilities as well as reflective of real-life language use (Cunningsworth 1984: 5; Harmer 2002: 301; Hedge 2008: 358; Komorowska 2002: 38),
- the content of the textbook ought to reflect the *relation between language, the learning process and the learner* (Cunningsworth 1984: 6; Harmer 2002: 301);
- it must be suitable for the particular level of students (Hedge 2008: 358; Komorowska 2002: 38);
- compliance with the national educational law regulations also must be taken into consideration (Hedge 2008: 358; Komorowska 2002: 42);
- the book should contain a varied range of tasks and activities at different levels which can be adequate for students with different learning styles and abilities (Komorowska 2002: 42; Ur 2002: 186);
- the teacher should consider whether the coursebook provides tasks and activities which encourage students to be more autonomous, for instance, the ones which foster learning outside the classroom, becoming more independent from the teacher and developing own learning strategies (Komorowska 2002: 40; Ur 2002: 186);
- the textbook includes tasks and activities which develop all primary language skills and abilities (Komorowska 2002: 40);
- an attractive *layout* and *design* should be taken into account since otherwise students might feel bored and demotivated (Harmer 2002: 301; Komorowska 2002: 42; Tomlinson 1998: 299; Ur 2002: 186);
- the choice of topics is also very important and should be either relevant to students' interests relevant to the curriculum (Harmer 2002: 301; Ur 2002: 186);

- a teacher ought to consider if enough of the cultural component is incorporated in the coursebook (Harmer 2002: 301; Hedge 2008: 358);
- choosing a textbook which is accompanied by a variety of additional teaching materials and a teacher's guide is also of considerable importance since it may enable the teacher to adjust the way in which it is used to the needs of the particular group of learners (Harmer 2002: 301; Komorowska 2002: 42; Ur 2002: 186).

On-going evaluation is a valuable process to enable practitioners to make decisions over the effective use of a coursebook and whether to continue or, indeed, terminate the use of the textbook. Fenner (2000: 83) suggests that the added value of knowledge from the use of the book should be checked and Harmer (2002: 302) recommends that other teachers as well as students, should be asked about their opinions.

The manner of use of a foreign language textbook is always the discretion of the teacher. In Harmer's (2002: 305-306) view, if a foreign language teacher decides that the goals of a particular lesson can be fully achieved by following a coursebook it should be definitely used. However, some changes may enhance its effectiveness; for instance, a teacher could add some additional tasks, rewrite certain parts of the coursebook, replace less effective activities, re-order the tasks and/or reduce their number (Harmer 2002: 306).

The way in which foreign language teachers choose and use the textbook may contribute to their overall success or failure in promoting language learning. Consequently, research into the role of the textbook and how it is chosen in Polish and English upper secondary schools is worthwhile and may form the basis of some pedagogical recommendations.

3.2.5. Forms of student assessment

One of the main goals of foreign language teaching is making sure that learners make satisfactory progress and this can only be achieved through some form of assessment. In this section, a brief description of the main points related to foreign language assessment, such as its definition, the roles it plays in language teaching/learning, as well as the types of assessment and its forms will be considered. Moreover, correction proce-

dures will also be concisely presented. Because of limitations of space, no attempt will be made to a detailed presentation of testing as a form of assessment.

To start with, out of many definitions regarding classroom-based assessment, Kunnan and Jang (2011: 615) aptly encapsulate its essence, claiming that assessment relies on gathering information by teachers in order to be able to evaluate learners' "level of achievement with reference to curricular goals or standards", and by learners so as to obtain *diagnostic feedback* concerning their progress. However, in drawing conclusions about the progress made by individuals being assessed, teachers provide information to other stakeholders, such as parents, junior teachers, also exam boards, researchers and educational institutions (Haynes 2010: 149; McNamara 2009: 610). What naturally follows from this definition is the fact that in order to be efficient, assessment should be closely related to the teaching context, and it also ought to be regular, positive and should equip learners with the knowledge enabling them to improve their achievements (Hunt 2001: 153). Furthermore, three concepts of assessment must be taken into consideration, such as *validity*, which is the adequate context of assessment; *reliability*, which is the objectivity of assessment, and *feasibility*, which makes assessment possible (Council of Europe 2001: 178).

The main goals and functions of assessment include improving learners' performance, providing learners with feedback about their progress, diagnosing learners' *strengths* and *weaknesses* in language learning, informing other stakeholders about learners' performance, progress and attitude towards learning, selecting learners for further levels of education, learning about students, providing positive feedback where possible in order to increase students' motivation, making learners assess themselves and making them reflective on their learning (Chater 1984: 6-7; Hunt 2001: 153; Kunnan and Jang 2011: 615).

Hunt (2001: 152) narrows the goals and functions of assessment to a classroom-based environment and enumerates those that directly influence students' performance in the language classroom. These include, for instance, *passing* or *failing* a student on the basis of a set of criteria, *grading* or *ranking* a learner, determining which parts of material have not been acquired by a student and *discriminating* between students on the same test and overall performance. Additionally, effective assessment can help teachers to find out if the learning objectives they have set are accomplished, whether the course fulfils the needs of a particular group and help to modify it in order to meet

these needs in the future, implement changes in the syllabus so as to improve teaching efficiency and assess the usefulness of the teaching methods and materials employed in the lessons (Hunt 2001: 153).

There are different types of language assessment that can be used in a classroom setting. The most frequently quoted types of *during-course* and *end-of-course* assessment are:

- *informal assessment*, which is not planned in advance and usually relies on giving students spontaneous comments and feedback (Brown 2004: 5);
- *formal assessment*, which is planned and regularly applied in order to inform learners about their progress in the structured way (Brown 2004: 6);
- *formative/continuous assessment*, which is an ongoing process of collecting information about students' progress and the course efficiency (Brown 2004: 6; Council of Europe 2001: 186; Hunt 2001: 155; Komorowska 2002a: 11);
- *summative/terminal assessment*, which is performed at the end of a course or after a significant part of it has been completed and provides information about overall students' progress or the effectiveness of the course (Brown 2004: 6; Council of Europe 2001: 186; Hunt 2001: 155; Komorowska 2002a: 13);
- *self-assessment*, which relies on a learner's own judgements about his/her strengths and weaknesses (Benson 2001: 155; Council of Europe 2001: 191; Hunt 2001: 155; Polio and Williams 2011: 505; Ur 2002: 245);
- *peer-assessment*, which involves other learners' judgements about the student's performance (Hunt 2001: 155; Luoma 2004: 189);
- *proficiency assessment*, which checks the learner's ability to apply target language knowledge in situations simulating real life (Council of Europe 2001: 183; Hunt 2001: 155);
- *achievement assessment*, which measures how successful a learner has been in achieving specific goals of the course (Council of Europe 2001: 183; Hunt 2001: 155);
- *performance assessment*, which relies on producing some samples of written or oral language in a specific context (Council of Europe 2001: 187);
- *knowledge assessment*, which requires feedback regarding language proficiency (Council of Europe 2001: 187);

- *criterion-referenced assessment*, which depends on estimating how successful a student is in relation to some set criteria (Council of Europe 2001: 184; Ur 2002: 245);
- *norm-referenced assessment*, which compares the student's performance in relation to the whole group of learners (Council of Europe 2001: 184; Ur 2002: 246);
- *individual-referenced assessment*, which relies on comparing the student's current achievements with the previous ones (Ur 2002: 246);
- *alternative assessment*, which is *authentic, dynamic* and *curriculum-embedded* and it focuses on teaching goals that facilitate most the individual language competence, it usually takes form of assessing project work, portfolio and intercultural competence (Hedge 2008: 390-391; Komorowska 2002a: 155; Polio and Williams 2011: 505).

Besides, there are some situations that require different forms of assessment and they may include *paper-and-pencil tests*, which is a form of a *formal assessment*, *observation-driven* learner assessment, which can help to follow a student's development through observation, *comments* about the learner's performance, *reports*, which are usually prepared to inform parents about their children's progress, as well as giving *marks* and *grades* for different activities in and outside the classroom (Harmer 2002: 101-102; Hedge 2008: 386; Ur 2002: 245).

Another important issue is the assessment of performance in *accuracy-based activities* and *fluency-based activities*. As for *accuracy-based activities*, they are "conceived as a way of encouraging learners to practice a particular language area, such as grammar structure for which the relevant rules have been provided or discovered by students, in highly controlled exercises, in which there is ample time to think about form, meaning and use" (Pawlak 2012: 125). Such activities are usually very controlled with plenty of time given to learners; they are also usually based on assessing a particular target language form (Pawlak 2012: 125). As far as the correction errors of *accuracy-based activities* is concerned, its effects seem to be quite limited since it mainly leads to the growth of *explicit knowledge*, which is conscious and declarative in its nature (Pawlak 2012: 127). On the other hand, *fluency-based activities* encourage learners to develop their communicative skills in order to be understood by others without focusing on any particular aspect of the language (Pawlak 2012: 125). Error correction during *fluency-based activities* seems to be more complex; if handled appropriately, however,

it may contribute to the growth of both *explicit* and *implicit knowledge*, which is tacit and intuitive as well as procedural.

In order to complete the picture of classroom-based assessment, correction techniques will be briefly considered since one of the roles for assessment is to make students improve their knowledge and skills, and without corrective feedback during performance this goal could be impossible to achieve. In the first place, it is necessary to establish who should offer the correction and, according to Pawlak (2012: 195-199), it may be a teacher since he or she has sufficient factual knowledge and methodology training, and is also responsible for the final outcome of teaching. Another important factor is time, since a teacher will provide high quality feedback without delay. However, it can also be another student which can enhance the involvement of the whole group and improve the focus on the language but *peer correction*, unless handled well by a skilled teacher, may cause disruptiveness and might bring about some anxiety among students. Last but not least, self-correction can be encouraged if the student is able to do that. Pawlak (2012: 197) emphasises some benefits of student self-correction to second language development, namely, the fact that a student may have a chance to comprehend the nature of the error and fix the problem by himself or herself.

There are a variety of correction techniques, which have been enumerated by researchers (Harmer 2002: 106; Komorowska 2002: 178; Pawlak 2012: 170-173; Ur 2002: 249). Examples include not reacting to an error in order not to disturb the communicative competence; indicating the mistake by asking guiding questions; explaining the mistake and advising how to avoid it in the future; repeating only the correct part of the utterance and making a pause, using a gesture to indicate the error; the teacher correcting the mistake and asking the student for repetition; teacher echoing and emphasising the error. Finally, a teacher may indicate an error and make the learner produce the correct utterance or provide alternatives for a learner to choose from. Pawlak (2012: 171-173) enumerates nine main techniques of error correction:

- *asking the learner to repeat the utterance*, which provokes the learner to rethink the quality of his or her message;
- *posing a query about the content of the erroneous sentence*, which may be signalled by asking a question;
- *pretending to misunderstand*, in which case the teacher indicates that she or he cannot understand the meaning of the incorrect utterance;

- *echoing or repeating what the learner has said*, which relies on emphasising the incorrect part of the utterance;
- *repeating the utterance up to the last correct word*, in which case the teacher uses hesitation and/or rising intonation to make a learner aware of a problem;
- *statement and question*, where the teacher directly indicates that there is a language problem;
- *hinting*, which relies on pointing to the type of an error that has been made;
- *providing learners with a choice of several target language options*, among which there is a correct utterance;
- *reformulation*, which relies on repeating the learners utterance but in a correct form; however, no direct indication of an error is mentioned.

The present author decided that comparing the ways in which the errors are corrected in Polish and English upper secondary schools may provide some practical solutions and ideas to broaden the knowledge of practitioners in each country. This was achieved by direct observations and interviews with Polish and British teachers to investigate what types and forms of assessment are used in different countries and how the students react to being assessed. When encountering differences, a thorough analysis can be made in order to conclude whether they are significant and in what way they affect the teaching process.

3.2.6. Classroom interaction

Pawlak (2000: 3) has suggested that the quality of interactions between teachers and students may significantly affect the level of students' proficiency of language skills and this may affect the learning opportunities available to students (Allwright and Bailey 1991: 149). The relationship between the use of a foreign language in a specific real-world context and its use in a classroom situation may influence overall relationships in the language classroom and the effectiveness of foreign language teaching (Kouhan 2012: 202).

To start with, in the most general way, discourse is defined as “the use of language in speech and writing in order to produce meaning; language that is studied, usually in order to see how the different parts of a text are connected” (*Oxford advanced*

learner's dictionary 2000: 359-360). Cook (1989: 6) defines *discourse* as language used for communication purposes while Duszak (1998: 242) highlights that the *discourse* strategies are influenced by some cultural and *typological-systemic* factors. In the present section, the terms *discourse* and *interaction* will be used interchangeably.

Cook (1989: 60) has suggested that *discourse* can be divided into two general categories such as *reciprocal discourse*, when there is a possibility of some kind of interaction; and *non-reciprocal discourse*, in which case there may not be any opportunity for interaction between the speakers. Ellis (2012: 95) enumerates four types of language used in *discourse*, namely, *mechanical*, where “no exchange of meaning is involved”; *meaningful*, where meaning is incorporated in the context but no new information is delivered; *pseudo-communicative*, where the information is delivered but in not in the way it would happen in naturalistic discourse; and *real communication*, where spontaneous oral utterances occur and the whole process resembles real life interaction. Classroom discourse, is often *goal-oriented*, being mostly controlled by language teachers, with limited learners’ or it may follow the pattern of *Initiative, Response and Feedback* (Walsh 2011: 20). Unfortunately, classroom interaction seldom reflects real life interaction and foreign language teachers ought to pay more attention to modifying it in order to make it more natural (Walsh 2011:21).

Beyond doubt, classroom interaction is shaped both by teachers and learners, and whether the teaching goals will be achieved depends on teachers’ preparation and learners’ involvement (Pawlak 2009: 312). Both the quality and quantity of teachers’ and learners’ involvement in the classroom discourse differs. Research shows that teacher talk usually occupies most of the available lesson time, something between a half or even three quarters of the lesson (Allwright and Bailey 1991: 139; Johnson 1998: 4). Another important issue concerns the way in which teachers modify their speech when addressing students, with such a register being called *teacher talk* and is the special register that helps students follow classroom discourse (Allwright and Bailey 1991: 139-140; Mesthrie 2010: 76). To be more precise, teacher talk often resembles the way in which parents talk to their young children and language teachers quite frequently apply simplified grammar and lexis, their pronunciation is more articulated, their pace of speech is considerably slower than native like language teachers. They are also in the habit of making longer and more recurring pauses and emphasis, and they tend to repeat the same utterances and speak considerable more loudly (Chaudron 1990: 82;

Walsh 2011: 6-7). Komorowska (2002: 87) highlights certain qualities of a teacher with good interactional skills, such as being friendly and positive towards students as well as praising and supporting them on a regular basis. Such a teacher usually uses a lot of gestures and body language during a lesson (Komorowska 2002: 87). On the other hand, learners also vary in the degree of their participation in classroom discourse. Some of them are more advanced linguistically or they are more confident and therefore they have a tendency to dominate the language interactions whereas some more timid and less linguistically competent students tend to withdraw from classroom *discourse* (Allwright and Bailey 1991: 135). However, in general, language teachers control what happens in the language classroom to a much greater extent than students through the way they manage classroom procedures and direct the majority of classroom activities (Chaudron 1990: 52; Johnson 1998: 9; Mesthrie 2010: 76; Pawlak 2000: 245).

The most frequently occurring pattern in classroom interaction has been characterised as *Initiation, Response, Feedback (IRF)*, or *Initiation, Response, Evaluation (IRE)* (Ellis 2012: 88; Johnson 1998: 9; Mesthrie 2010: 76; Walsh 2011: 17). As the label indicates, *IRF/IRE* relies partly on teacher initiation of classroom interaction, a learner's response to what the teacher demands from him or her, and, finally the teacher's comments on the quality of the student's performance (Ellis 2012: 88; Johnson 1998: 9; Mesthrie 2010: 76; Walsh 2011: 17). According to Ellis (2012: 90), this type of *discourse* dominates in foreign language lessons because of the teachers' tendency to control whether the discourse is organised in an orderly way and related to achieving the lesson goals. Another important aspect of classroom discourse is *negotiation of meaning*, which appears when a learner fails to comprehend the teacher's or another student's message and tries to find a way of having the utterance clarified (Ellis 2012: 93; Walsh 2011: 56-57). In this case learners ask questions in order to clarify their knowledge and/or confirm it (Ellis 2012: 92; Walsh 2011: 40). Walsh (2011: 4) proposes four main aspects of classroom *discourse*, such as *control of interaction*, which was partly discussed above; *speech modification*, which was also briefly mentioned above in this section, *elicitation* and *repair*.

In classroom *discourse* even in highly decentralised language classrooms *control of interaction* is still dominated by a teacher who makes decisions about stages of the language lesson and, consequently, learners' opportunity to control classroom *discourse* is limited by the teacher's actions (Walsh 2011: 4). *Speech modification* refers to strate-

gies used by teachers in classroom *discourse* to facilitate understanding but this often enhanced by the conscious use a lot of gestures and body language in order to help learners understand and follow what is happening in the lesson smoothly. Moreover, when teachers use body language as a teaching aid this increases a sense of security and encourages learners to participate in the *discourse* (Walsh 2011: 6). Another element of classroom *discourse* is *elicitation* since asking and answering questions often dominates classroom *discourse* (Walsh 2011: 11). Walsh (2011: 11) emphasises two types of questions used in elicitation, such as *display questions*, which rely on students demonstrating particular knowledge with a answer, and *referential questions*, which are “designed to promote discussion, debate, and engage learners to produce longer, more complex responses” (Walsh 2011: 12). The *repair* element of the classroom *discourse* was briefly discussed in the section concerning *student assessment* and may be classified as *self-initiated self-repair*, *self-initiated other repair*, *other-initiated self-repair* and *other-initiated other-repair* (Sacks et al. 1974: 723-724 as quoted in Ellis 2012: 100).

In the opinion of Pawlak (2009: 316-326), classroom interaction can be modified in order to optimise language learning by:

- encouraging students to control some aspects of the classroom discourse, showing some initiative in turn-taking, and producing spontaneous utterances;
- asking adequate questions and giving students time to respond;
- providing opportunities for negotiation of meaning to occur on regular basis;
- training students in the use of appropriate communication strategies;
- using a lot of target language in the classroom;
- managing discourse during different stages of the lesson in an adequate way.

Classroom discourse and interactions seem to be linked with some other important aspects of foreign language teaching such as forms of assessment, developing learner autonomy, using teaching techniques and lesson aids, and also using a particular model of the foreign language lesson. For this reason, different aspects of classroom interaction constituted an important part of the research project reported in this dissertation.

3.2.7. Developing learner autonomy

Since any foreign language is complex with many cultural contexts related to it, it is simply impossible for learners to master it only by attending classes at school (Harmer 2002: 335; Pawlak 2008: 128); hence, there is need for *making learners autonomous*. At the outset the definitions of the *learner autonomy* will be provided, which will be followed by the distinction between *autonomy* and *semi-autonomy*. The main emphasis will later be laid on discussing the qualities of an autonomous learner and the steps that can be taken to promote autonomy.

Learner autonomy may be defined as the ability to take responsibility for one's own learning (Benson 2001: 47) including being independent from the teacher and being competent and successful in managing one's own learning (Benson 1997: 25; Illés 2012: 509; Kumaravadivelu 2003: 133). Benson (2001: 109) aptly extends the definition of autonomy to all phenomena and actions which lead to taking control over one's own learning. Other specialists add that autonomy also relies on the capacity to learn a language without close supervision, the ability to approach language learning situations in a creative and original way both inside and outside the classroom, and awareness of the need to improve language skills that have been taught at school (Komorowska 2002: 167). To use the words of Pawlak (2011: 34), all that has been said above can be reduced to the statement that *language learner autonomy* is both an individual and social phenomenon since the learner must study the language on his or her own but also some form of cooperation is of vital importance in some situations at some points. Moreover, being able to take control over one's own learning means developing certain skills which facilitate independence learning and also possessing suitable mental capacity to employ all the strategies (Pawlak 2011: 34). Wilczyńska (1999: 14) also talks about developing autonomy which she defines as the indispensable extension of responsibility for improving communication skills to the learner. On the other hand, not all learners are capable of being fully autonomous. For this reason, Wilczyńska (1999: 131) introduces the concept of *learner semi-autonomy*, in which the learner is only partly responsible for controlling his or her learning. Some kind of learner's involvement in the process of language learning is essential in order to master it but learners must be either skilful enough to work outside the classroom settings or they must be taught how to do

it. In addition, an attempt to foster autonomy can be made in the classroom settings by negotiating what can be learned outside the classroom.

The choice of appropriate strategies by the teacher can foster teacher-student collaboration by making joint decisions about language learning which can help to develop greater autonomy. Making learners autonomous facilitates independent problem solving, and being autonomous facilitates the use of a wider range of different skills in variety of learning situations, making the language learning process more individualized (Komorowska 2002: 168-169). Furthermore, according to Benson (2009: 21), making learners autonomous contributes to better performance in a world that is becoming more and more globalized. Thus making no or too little effort to make language learners autonomous deprives them of developing some useful skills that may be beneficial both for language learning and for dealing with a range of other real life situations. Without successful attempts to foster autonomy, the learner faces a situation in which he or she may become a passive learner, who is reliant only on the teacher's instructions and whose learning activities are limited only to the classroom settings (Hedge 2008: 83-94).

In the development of learner autonomy, Legenhausen (2009) has proposed *guiding principles*. The guiding principles highlight the importance of combining the phenomenon of making learners responsible for their own learning with making them aware of why it is so important and how to do it in an authentic context (Legenhausen 2009: 381). Legenhausen's *procedural principles* focus on the practical implementation of the *guiding principles* in everyday language classroom procedures (Legenhausen 2009: 384). Benson (2001: 11) has proposed the following approaches for the development of learner autonomy:

- *resource-based approaches*, which emphasise the role of learners' independent use of learning materials;
- *technology-based approaches*, which promote learners' self-access and use of educational information and communication technologies;
- *learner-based approaches*, which recommend introducing some behavioural and psychological changes into students' attitude so that they would be able to be autonomous;
- *classroom-based approaches*, which facilitate teacher-student collaboration in planning language lessons and evaluating the learning outcomes;

- *curriculum-based approaches*, which “extends the idea of learner control to the curriculum as a whole;
- *teacher-based approaches*, that highlights the role of the teacher and teacher education in promoting and developing learner autonomy.

In terms of *guiding principles*, numerous researchers have suggested what could be done in order to promote autonomy. At the very outset, some *psychological preparation* appears to be necessary in order to make learners aware that language learning is much more than working in classroom conditions under the supervision of a teacher who is supposed to direct students (Hedge 2008: 85). Additionally, some *practical preparation* is also necessary so as to equip students with necessary skills and strategies to become independent learners (Harmer 2002: 335; Hedge 2008: 85; Walker 2001: 85), including teaching them about the importance of mutual collaboration and support in order to maximize learning outcomes (Walker 2001: 92). Of considerable interest are also Komorowska’s (2002: 171-172) recommendations concerning equipping learners with *interpersonal* and *social skills* in order to help them cooperate in their peer group on additional curricular activities. Her other ideas (Komorowska 2002: 171-172) include *reflective* and *analytical skills* which help learners to choose and evaluate their own appropriate learning strategies. Finally, Komorowska (2001: 171-172) suggests inviting learners to participate in decision making processes concerning the choice of additional activities, such as the topic of the additional homework, the methods and materials that can be useful and the way the material will be presented. More detailed suggestions are introduced by Kumaravadivelu (2003: 133) and they involve developing the capacity for *critical thinking* and *decision making* which are necessary for learners to be able to act out in an autonomous way. Furthermore, learning about language learning processes may help students self-evaluate the progress they make. Kumaravadivelu (2003: 133) also suggests that learners should be presented with information about some psychological challenges related to solving language learning problems independently. As a result, they are likely to improve *self-control* and *self-discipline* and boost *self-esteem*. In summary, there are very few students who are effective autonomous language learners without careful and complex preparation in order to engage in autonomous learning.

Thus, apart from possessing general knowledge about learner autonomy, teachers should be familiar with the characteristics of an autonomous learner in order to use appropriate and effective strategies. Specialists enumerate many features which show

that learners are autonomous, and, interestingly, such qualities often coincide with the profile of a good learner. A list of such characteristics is as follows:

- students know the goals they want to achieve and do their best as to be successful (Benson 2001: 49; Hedge 2008: 76; Pawlak 2011: 33; Walker 2001: 89);
- students learn the language inside and outside the language classroom (Hedge 2008: 76);
- students use outside what they have learned at school and extend their knowledge (Benson 2001: 84; Hedge 2008: 76);
- learners are aware of the available resources and use them productively (Hedge 2008: 76);
- autonomous learners employ suitable learning strategies and methods (Hedge 2008: 76; Pawlak 2011: 34; Walker 2001: 89);
- autonomous learners reflect on their learning and conduct regular evaluation of their progress (Walker 2001: 89);
- students are highly motivated and resourceful (Komorowska 2002: 168);
- students manage their independent learning effectively (Benson 2001: 49; Hedge 2008: 76; Komorowska 2002: 167; Walker 2001: 89);
- learners consider the teacher as a facilitator, counsellor and advisor more than a controller and chief master (Hedge 2008: 76).

A knowledge and understanding of the profile of an autonomous learner as outlined above may assist language teachers in evaluating their success in making their students autonomous.

There are also some *procedural principles* that provide practical guidance for foreign language teachers as to what roles they should play in the language classroom in order to foster learner autonomy, and what actions they ought to take to make learners engage in autonomous work outside the classroom. Such principles include:

- foreign language teachers ought to encourage students to keep personal records of their strengths and weaknesses so as to assess what should be improved and how (Godwin-Jones 2011: 4; Harmer 2002: 339; Hedge 2008: 87; Kumaravadivelu 2003: 142; Walker 2001: 91);
- teachers are supposed to involve students in *self-assessment* and *peer-assessment*, since this helps learners be more reflective with respect to their own learning (Hedge 2008: 94-95; Komorowska 2002: 173);

- there should be some *self-access facilities* available for the students so that they can have some facilities when searching for information, such as resource centres (Harmer 2002: 340; Hedge 2008: 96; Illés 2012: 507; Sheerin 1997: 54-55);
- teachers should provide learners with adequate homework which matches the individual interests and needs (Harmer 2002: 338);
- language teachers ought to update the techniques and materials they use since new ideas appear constantly in the professional literature (Harmer 2002: 340);
- teachers should let students build their own views about language learning and take such preferences into consideration (Kumaravadivelu 2003: 138);
- if necessary, teachers ought to support learners by giving them advice and guidance (Kumaravadivelu 2003: 138);
- it is highly advisable to inspire learners to carry out some projects and to create *learning communities* (Godwin-Jones 2011: 6; Kumaravadivleu 2003: 142);
- teachers ought to encourage learners to create and systematically update *language portfolios* which could be *e-portfolios*, because they may document the learner's progress and boost his/her self-confidence (Godwin-Jones 2011: 4; Illés 2012: 507; Pawlak 2008: 128);
- teachers should advise learners on possible sources of knowledge (Godwin-Jones 2011: 6; Ryan 1997: 218);
- teachers should promote the use of information and computer technology applications since it facilitates self-directed learning and creates authentic contexts for second language acquisition (Godwin-Jones 2011: 7).

The above list of practical actions that foster the process of making learners autonomous enables every foreign language teacher to choose suitable courses of action to foster autonomy, thus enhancing the effectiveness of the learning process, regardless of school facilities, the level of proficiency of learners or other factors. Not less importantly, teachers may regularly improve their own knowledge about making learners autonomous by conducting *action research*, reading professional topical literature, and also working in teacher teams where ideas can be exchanged freely (Harmer 2002: 344).

In order to help students to learn a foreign language more effectively and cope with demands of the modern world, they need to become autonomous. For this reason, as demonstrated in what follows, the development of autonomy was one of the facets being investigated in Polish and English upper secondary schools.

Conclusion

The aim of Chapter Three has been to offer a comprehensive and up-to-date overview of the topic of language instruction in Polish and English upper secondary schools, together with important contextual information on the educational organisation and structure in the two countries, and to provide a rationale for investigating some elements of foreign language teaching. In order to accomplish these goals, first background information concerning organisation and structure of the Polish general upper secondary school system and English sixth form system were presented. Special focal attention was given to legal regulations that are binding in both countries, the practical organisation and structure of performance of both school systems and the expected roles of the school principals. Moreover, the author included the description the application procedures involved in choosing a principal and detailed regulations concerning foreign language teaching. This part of the chapter was concluded with a brief comparison of Polish and English upper secondary school systems. Subsequently, a short overview of nine issues related to foreign language instruction and investigated in the present study was provided. This included the role of teacher teams and their collaboration, the models of a foreign language lesson, the types of teaching techniques and teaching aids, the ways of choosing a foreign language coursebook, forms of student assessment, the impact of the quality and quantity of classroom language interaction on teaching and finally, the significance of making learners autonomous. As mentioned at the beginning of this section, the rationale for carrying out research into the above aspects of foreign language teaching was also spelled out in each case. However, the discussion was rather brief given the amount of the issues.

Two important points emerge out of this presentation. Polish and English upper secondary schools differ significantly in the way the foreign language teaching is delivered to students, but the structure and requirements of final examinations is similar. In other words, both Polish and English educational authorities and specialists have similar ideas about what should be achieved after a course of modern foreign languages but they sometimes recommend different ways of providing students with knowledge. Secondly, the elements of foreign language teaching are common in both countries and issues concerning efficiency and effectiveness are therefore related. How these aspects of

foreign language teaching are dealt with in practice in Polish and English upper secondary schools will be the main theme of the study reported in the following two chapters.

Chapter 4: Research methodology

Introduction

The main concern of the previous chapters was to focus on the theory and description of the legal background in which both Polish and English upper secondary schools are set. Justification for the nine aspects of foreign language teaching chosen for comparison in the present research project was provided and, in order to make comparisons between two different educational systems, the issues of program evaluation were examined in detail. In addition to this, differences and similarities between the Polish and English educational systems were highlighted and discussed. By contrast, the main aim of this chapter is to present an overview of the methodology and main findings of the pilot research project, which is followed by the presentation of the main research methodology.

The chapter opens with a detailed description of the design of the main study including a brief description of the procedures and findings of the pilot study. A description of the subjects who participated in the research is given together with a discussion of the data collection instruments, the analytical procedures applied, the manner of transcribing the interviews, and a description of the coding procedures and the ways of analysis.

4.1. The design of the study

As has been stated above, the main aim of the research project was to compare and contrast nine elements of foreign language teaching between Polish and English upper sec-

ondary schools and to evaluate the usefulness of application of the detected differences in the contrasting educational systems. Bearing in mind these set goals, the *empirical model* of a *comparative study* was applied (Bryman 2004: 48; Cohen and Manion 1994: 108-109; Gnitecki 1989: 9).

A pilot study was conducted in The Sixth Form College Farnborough in July 2010 in England and in General Upper Secondary School in Sulechów in September 2010 in Poland with a view to collecting background information about Polish and English upper secondary school systems. The subjects of the pilot study were school principals, teachers and students. Although the researcher used the schools she had access to the choice of the subjects within the schools relied on *random sampling* (Bryman 2004: 543). The pilot study addressed six research questions:

- (1) Which aspects of the overall organisation of the school's structure and performance are favoured by students and teachers?
- (2) Are there any similarities and/or differences in preferences related to formative assessment between the Polish and English upper secondary schools?
- (3) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the principals' opinions about their autonomy?
- (4) Are there any similarities and/or differences in students' opinions about the extent of their autonomy between the Polish and English upper secondary schools?
- (5) Are there any similarities and/or differences in teachers' opinions about their autonomy between the Polish and English upper secondary schools?
- (6) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the teachers' and principals' knowledge of the corresponding school system?

Given that the pilot study had a minimal impact on the design of the main study, no detailed presentation of the results will be attempted. The pilot study focused upon the selected elements of the school structure and management, including the organisation of the school year, preferences related to types of formative assessment, the issue of principal's/teacher's/students' autonomy as well as respondents' knowledge about the Polish and English upper secondary school systems. The research tools included questionnaires for students, teachers and principals, and interviews with principals. The full copies of the pilot tools are available in Appendix 4, p. 276. Although the researcher both distributed and collected the questionnaires during the school breaks, she was not present when they were completed. The researcher herself conducted the interviews.

Thirty questionnaires were distributed among students in The Sixth Form College Farnborough. As a result, 28 questionnaires were returned, with the response rate of 93.33%. Likewise, thirty questionnaires were distributed among the British teachers, and twenty five were returned, with the response rate of 83.33%. One questionnaire was given to the Principal of The Sixth Form College, and it was returned. Similarly, thirty questionnaires were handed out among Polish students, and the response rate was a hundred percent. Then, thirty questionnaires were distributed among Polish teachers, and twenty six were returned, with the response rate of 86.66%. One questionnaire was given to and then returned by the Principal of The General Upper Secondary School in Sulechów. Finally, an interview with the British principal was conducted, which was followed by an interview with the Polish principal. As a result, the data pool included 58 questionnaires for students, 51 questionnaires for teachers, and 2 questionnaires for principals ; the 2 interviews with principals were audio recorded. The data, collected in these ways, were coded and analysed with the help of descriptive statistics; qualitative analysis was also employed.

The findings of the pilot study revealed that Polish and British students and teachers would prefer to have the final examinations spread out over the whole school year. Furthermore, both Polish and British students and teachers expressed the opinion that upper secondary school students should choose their subjects voluntarily and be assigned to inter-form course groups. Both Polish and British principals that participated in the pilot study appeared to be satisfied with the existing law regulations and they claimed the current legal regulations provided them with sufficient autonomy. However, the Polish principal did not see any point in changing the requirements concerning a job description and the British principal thought otherwise. Interestingly, both Polish and British teachers were of the opinion that students should be assessed for solving complex problems, such as conducting research or writing an essay. A difference was revealed regarding the teachers' and students' opinions concerning learner autonomy, namely, the British teachers and students were much more positive about this. They also highlighted the importance of students' being able to make independent decisions concerning their learning, being involved in school life, and bearing consequences for their actions. As far as the teachers' autonomy is concerned, both Polish and British participants emphasised that all teachers should be provided with some individual space in order to prepare for work efficiently and reflect on the efficiency of their

teaching. As for the knowledge about the contrasting school systems, Polish teachers, principals and students did not have sufficient information in this respect.

The pilot study provided a basis for determining new areas for comparison, made the researcher modify the choice of subjects and increase the range of research tools. Although it did not provide compelling evidence for the main research, the pilot research supplied the researcher with background knowledge about the structure and management of the Polish and English upper secondary school systems and thus provided an important context in which to draw conclusions in the main part of the study in consequence. The questions for the main study were changed into:

- (1) What are the similarities and differences in the organisation and performance of foreign language teacher teams in Polish and English upper secondary schools?
- (2) What are the similarities and differences in the ethos of the principal as a leader of upper secondary schools in Poland and England
- (3) What are the similarities and differences in planning foreign language lessons in Polish and English upper secondary schools?
- (4) What are the similarities and differences in the way in which teaching techniques and lesson aids are chosen in Polish and English upper secondary schools?
- (5) What are the similarities and differences in the way in which foreign language coursebooks are chosen in Polish and English upper secondary schools?
- (6) What are the similarities and differences in the way of assessing students during foreign language lessons in Polish and English upper secondary schools?
- (7) What are the similarities and differences in classroom interactions during foreign language lessons in Polish and English upper secondary schools?
- (8) What are the similarities and differences when it comes to helping foreign language students to become autonomous in Polish and English upper secondary schools?
- (9) What are the similarities and differences in foreign language program evaluation in Polish and English upper secondary schools?

In order to ensure the most effective comparisons of the selected elements of foreign language teaching in both contexts, methodological triangulation was employed in the main study by combining such methods of data collection as *self-completion questionnaires* (Cohen and Manion 1994: 92), *direct observation* (Łobodzki 2004: 234).

semi-structured interview (Bryman 2004: 321) and *ethnography observation* (Wragg 2012: 9-10), where the researcher was a participant (Bryman 2004: 302). Once the data had been collected, it was subjected to both *qualitative* and *quantitative* analysis, which enabled the researcher to “map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour” (Cohen and Manion 1994: 233). The participants constituted a sample of convenience which is a form of *non-probability sample* (Mackey and Gass 2008: 122). In order to enhance clarity, the reasons for choosing such a form of sampling will be explained in detail in the subsequent section. This section will also offer some comments on the participants, instruments, methodology of data collection and data analysis.

4.2. Subjects

The subjects were foreign language teachers from Polish general upper secondary schools in The Lubuskie voivodship in Poland and from English sixth form colleges in Hampshire and Surrey counties in England. Because foreign languages are offered in all upper secondary schools both in Poland and in England, the only factor that was decisive was the willingness of the principals and foreign language teachers to participate in the research. Several factors influenced the number of schools that took part in the research, the number of teachers and the location of the schools. In the first place, the present author sent many emails to the principals of both Polish and English upper secondary schools requesting them to participate in the project. Surprisingly, only four Polish and four English principals responded positively. It can perhaps be assumed that the fact that the researcher did not represent any formal academic institution at the time of conducting the research could be one possible explanation for the low response rate, although other reasons cannot be excluded. Next, while some actual research procedures were being implemented, some teachers refused to participate in the interview and some did not return the questionnaires. Equally importantly, the researcher relied only on her own financial resources, which limited the territorial scope of the research procedures as well as the number of copies of research instruments available. Finally, since the researcher is a foreign language teacher in one of the upper secondary schools, she could not devote a huge amount of time to travelling to remote locations because of her own

heavy teaching schedule. As a result, all the schools chosen were situated in the same regions, both in Poland and in England, which may be considered as an important limitation on the generalizability of the findings generated by the present study and the conclusions drawn on their basis. However, the two groups could be considered as representative at least in their regions. Now that an explanation of the factors affecting the research procedures has been provided, it is time to take a closer look at the subjects who supplied the data.

4.2.1. British foreign language teacher participants

Thirty³⁰ British foreign language teachers from: *Barton Peveril College*³¹, *The Sixth Form College Farnborough*³², *Strode's College*³³ and *Peter Symonds College*³⁴ participated in the study with most of them being female (92%). The teacher participants taught the following range of foreign languages: French, Spanish, German, Italian, Japanese and Chinese. 8% of the British subjects were aged between 20-30, 24% were between 31-40, 40% were between 41-50, 24% were more than 51; 4% of the subjects did not reveal their age.

Moving on to the amount of experience in teaching it was revealed that the average for the British subjects was 16.6 years of teaching foreign languages. With respect to the place of residence, 28% of the British subjects lived in a city³⁵, 56% lived in a town³⁶, 12% lived in a village and 4% of the participants did not reveal this information. In terms of qualifications for teaching foreign languages, the British teachers had full teaching qualifications and 8% of the subjects had a Bachelor's degree³⁷, 88% had a

³⁰ A smaller number of the British foreign language teachers participated in the study than in Poland. Due to the fact that foreign languages are not a compulsory subject in English upper secondary schools, comparatively fewer foreign language teachers are employed there and available for any kinds of research.

³¹ The address and the location is: Barton Peveril, Chestnut Avenue, Eastleigh, Southampton, SO50 5ZA, Hampshire.

³² The address and the location is: The Sixth Form College Farnborough, Prospect Avenue, Farnborough, Hampshire, GU148JX.

³³ The address and the location is: Strode's College, High Street, Egham, Surrey TW20 9DR.

³⁴ The address and the location is: Peter Symonds College, Owens Road, Winchester, Hampshire, SO22 6RX.

³⁵ *City* is defined by the researcher as a place with over 100.000 inhabitants.

³⁶ *Town* is defined by the researcher as a place with below 100.000 inhabitants.

³⁷ Three Bachelor's degrees were included: Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science and Bachelor in Education.

Master's degree³⁸ or higher³⁹, and 4% did not include this information. The majority of the foreign language teachers, who had agreed to participate in the study were very co-operative and provided the researcher with all the necessary and useful information, documents and additional materials. To sum up, the group of the British teacher participants can be described as representative at least in their area.

4.2.2. Polish foreign language teacher participants

The second group of participants involved in the study was forty Polish foreign language teachers from: *Liceum Ogólnokształcące w Sulechowie*⁴⁰, *V Liceum Ogólnokształcące im. K. Kieślowskiego*⁴¹, *Liceum Ogólnokształcące nr III im. Prof. T. Kotarbińskiego*⁴² and *I Liceum Ogólnokształcące im. Bolesława Prusa w Żarach*⁴³. By way of explanation, liceum ogólnokształcące stands for general upper secondary school⁴⁴. All the teachers were fully qualified and, with some differences within schools, they taught English, German, French, Spanish, Italian and Latin. As was the case with the British participants, most of the subjects were women (78.8%); 21.2% were between 20-30 years old, 51.5% between 31-40, 27.3% between 41-50, and there were no teachers more than 51 years old. It is worth pointing out that the population of the Polish teacher participants proved to be significantly younger than the population of the British teacher participants, which was confirmed by Chi-square results ($X^2=13.38$, $df=3$, $p=0.003$). With respect to the average length of teaching experience, it amounted to 11.7 years. 48.5% of the Polish foreign language teachers lived in a city, 42.4% in a town and 9.1% in a village. As far as their education is concerned, 6% re-

³⁸ Four Master's degrees were included: Master of Arts, Master In Science, Master of Education and Postgraduate Certificate in Education that includes master's credit.

³⁹ PhD: Doctor of Philosophy.

⁴⁰ The address and location is: Liceum Ogólnokształcące w Sulechowie, ul. Licealna 10, 66-100 Sulechów.

⁴¹ The address and location is: V Liceum Ogólnokształcące im. K. Kieślowskiego, ul. Świętej Kingi 1, 65-215 Zielona Góra.

⁴² The address and location is: Liceum Ogólnokształcące nr III im. Prof. T. Kotarbińskiego, ul. Strzelecka 9, 65-452 Zielona Góra.

⁴³ The address and location is: I Liceum Ogólnokształcące im. Bolesława Prusa w Żarach, ul. Podwale 16, 68-200 Żary.

⁴⁴ All the translations in the dissertation are the present author's.

ported having a Bachelor's degree⁴⁵ and 94% a Master's degree⁴⁶. There seemed to be more similarities than differences between the two groups with only the significant difference related to the age factor. In addition to this, there was also no major difference between the Polish and English school participants in terms of the size of the cities' populations where the above schools were located⁴⁷. This may confirm what was said above that the group could be considered as representative at least in their region.

4.2.3. Students participating in the study

No attempt was made to gather detailed information about the students from the English sixth form colleges but the principals advised that any young person can apply from anywhere since there is no *catchment area*. Most of them came from neighbouring counties and all who study in the sixth form colleges are aged 16-19. As for the application process, students apply, and if there is a suitable course for which they are qualified, they are interviewed and can be offered a place to study.⁴⁸ Similarly, in Poland the students in the general upper secondary schools are aged 16-19, and any person is free to apply for admission to a general upper secondary school irrespective of their *catchment area*.⁴⁹

4.3. Instruments and methodology of data collection

As has been mentioned above, three different instruments of data collection were employed with a view to obtaining multiple perspectives on the phenomena to be compared. They comprised questionnaires distributed among the teachers, direct observation of the foreign language lessons conducted in both settings and interviews with the

⁴⁵ Wykształcenie wyższe zawodowe (studia licencjackie).

⁴⁶ Wykształcenie wyższe (studia magisterskie)

⁴⁷ The population for Winchester, Eastleigh, Egham and Farnborough was taken from www.geonames.org. The population for Sulechów was taken from www.bip.sulechow.pl, for Zielona Góra from www.zielonagora.pl and for Żary from www.zary.pl.

⁴⁸ This information was obtained from MSc Simon Jarvis, the present Principal of the Sixth Form College Farnborough.

⁴⁹ This information was obtained from MA Beata Leśniak, the present Deputy of the General Upper Secondary School in Sulechów.

teachers. The choice of the instruments and the applied procedures were intended to minimize the disruption in the classroom proceedings, and consequently gain insights into the processes which occurred naturally in the lesson. It should be explained that it was lesson observations that served as the main tool of gathering data and further analysis, while questionnaires and interviews provided more insight into the phenomena.

In Polish general upper secondary schools data collection took place between May 12, 2011 and June 3, 2011 and the procedures went very smoothly, in a very friendly and supportive atmosphere. Both the principals of the schools and the foreign language teachers who had agreed to participate in the study were very cooperative, helpful and willing. In each Polish participant school, the principals, students and the teachers gave their clear consent to take part in the project and the research did not interfere with the day-to-day functioning of the school. As a result, 33 questionnaires were collected, 29 lessons were observed and 10 interviews were conducted. The data from the English sixth form colleges were gathered between June 27, 2011 and July 8, 2011, with no difficulties being encountered. In all the sixth form colleges, the consent from the principals, students and teachers was obtained and the researcher's actions did not disrupt the usual school activities in any way. As a result, 25 questionnaires were collected, 20 lessons were observed and 10 interviews were conducted. In the following subsections, all the instruments are discussed in detail.

4.3.1. Lesson observations

A total of 49 lessons were observed with the researcher present during all of them. The observations were conducted with the help of an *observation sheet* that had been designed by Hopkins (2009: 101), which can be found in Appendix 5, p. 303. The lesson observation sheet was composed of 25 questions grouped into seven categories:

- (1) Foreign languages team/teams performance⁵⁰.
- (2) The applied model of the foreign language lesson.
- (3) The use of foreign language teaching techniques and lesson aids.
- (4) The use of foreign language coursebook.

⁵⁰ The present author included this point in the lesson observation sheet, however, with the intention to conduct this type of observation during the teacher teams' meetings.

- (5) Assessing students in the foreign language lesson.
- (6) Classroom interaction.
- (7) Development of learner autonomy.

To identify each observation session, the heading of each observation sheet contained: *the name of the observer, the date, the name of school, identification of the class/group, the lesson timing, the consecutive number of each observation and the subject of the lesson*. Crucially, the structure of the lesson observation sheet was designed around the main goals of the study in order to obtain the most valid data. The first category comprised three questions regarding:

- the kinds of topics covered during foreign languages teams meetings;
- the atmosphere during the meetings including interpersonal relationships;
- the influence of the principal on the performance of teacher teams.

The second category consisted of four questions describing the predominant model of the lesson and its structure, investigating the students' engagement in each stage of the lesson, and finally determining examples of good practice. The third category in the lesson observation sheet comprised five questions

- information about the teaching techniques that were applied in each lesson;
- the students' reactions to these techniques;
- the types of teaching aids that were applied during the lesson;
- the students' reactions to the applied teaching aids;
- identification of innovative teaching techniques or/and teaching aids unknown to the observer.

The fourth category in the lesson observations sheet included four questions focused on exploring the frequency of using a foreign language coursebook during each lesson, determining in which stages of the lesson the teacher used the textbook, the students' responses to being exposed to the use of it, and finally revealing whether the teachers used additional materials such as an activity book or a script. The fifth category consisted of three questions aimed at gaining information about how the students were assessed, how often this assessment took place and how they responded to being assessed. The sixth category included five questions. The first one was intended to assess precisely whether the students knew about the goal of the lesson. The second one examined who was in control of the classroom interaction and in which situations. The next point related to the use of body language by the teacher: gestures, facial expressions and oth-

ers. The observer also intended to find out in which situations reliance on additional linguistic features played an important role and how students responded to it. The final category dealt with only one question, namely, whether the students were allowed to make any decisions in the course of a particular class.

The aim of the observation was explained to the students at the beginning of each lesson and they were reassured that no data would be disclosed to their teachers or educational authorities. The students were also requested to act in as natural a manner as possible. Nevertheless, the researcher was aware of the fact that it was impossible to eliminate the so-called *reactive effect* (Bryman 2004: 175) and *observer's paradox* (Mackey and Gass 2008: 176), and there was a danger that the students could behave differently in the presence of strangers in the classroom. On each occasion, the researcher was seated in such a position so as to be able to observe both the students and the teacher. No forms of audio or video recording were employed due to considerable difficulty involved, namely, the necessity to change the settings for every lesson and the fact that the research was conducted abroad. Instead, the teacher followed the lesson observation sheet during each lesson and either put a tick or short description in the spaces for comments every time a particular phenomenon occurred. This form of recording the processes that transpired in the classroom was based on the conviction that the researcher could gather some factual rather than judgemental records (Hopkins 2009: 89). Additionally, on some occasions, the researcher recorded additional information that was not included in the lesson observation sheet but seemed to be relevant. Interestingly, both in Poland and in England the students seemed to ignore the presence of the stranger shortly after the lesson had begun.

4.3.2. Questionnaires

The primary goal of creating, administering and processing the questionnaires for Polish and British foreign language teachers was to collect data that would enable the researcher to address the research questions formulated above. Furthermore, it enabled her to compliment and compare and the data gathered by means of direct observation with the teachers' opinions included in the questionnaires with regard to their everyday classroom practices. The next significant aim of employing this data collection process was

to obtain a comprehensive, in-depth and up-to-date picture of teachers' beliefs and preferences regarding various aspects of foreign language teaching. It is conceivable that some of the teachers may have included replies to some questions that made them look favourable and highly professional; despite this risk, however, the data constituted a unique source of information concerning the processes that occur in Polish and English foreign language lesson settings. The full copies of the Polish and English questionnaires for teachers can be found in Appendix 6, p. 311.

The complete tool consisted of eighteen questions grouped into ten categories, which were as follows:

- (1) The structure and performance of the foreign languages teacher teams.
- (2) Ethos of a principal as a leader in education.
- (3) The model of a foreign language lesson.
- (4) Foreign language teaching methods and teaching aids.
- (5) The use of a foreign language coursebook.
- (6) Forms of students' assessment.
- (7) Making students autonomous.
- (8) Discourse and interactions in the foreign language classroom.
- (9) Evaluation of the foreign language program.
- (10) Demographic information.

On the front part a cover letter was included, in which the teachers were informed about the researcher's background, and the overall aim of the research in order to familiarize themselves with instructions. The following page included general pieces of information about the structure of the two types of schools under investigation, namely the sixth form college and general upper secondary school. This was done with a view to making the participants better understand the contrasting school system.

Different types of questions were used in the questionnaire, depending on the phenomenon that was investigated. Most of the items included in the questionnaire were *semi-opened questions* (Łobodzki 2006: 255), thanks to which the teachers had a chance to choose either one or in some occasions more suggested options, or include their own ideas. An example of such a question was the very first one, which dealt with determining the goals of the foreign language teaching followed in the participants' schools. In this case, the teachers were provided with four closed options and an open-ended one where they could include other goals. The researcher also used the scaling technique

called the *Likert scale* with the agree-disagree approach to measure the foreign language teachers' attitudes and values (Dörnyei 2008: 36-39). To be more precise, a five-point scale was employed with the possible response ranging from *Yes, I strongly/definitely agree, Yes, I partly agree, No, I partly disagree, No, I strongly/definitely disagree, to I don't have an opinion*. These were immediately followed by *filter questions* (Bryman 2004: 120) which shed some light on the teachers' general tendencies in order to explain the phenomenon. For instance, question number four investigated the degree to which the participants agreed with the statement that having a principal who is a strong and efficient leader in education is beneficial for the school's performance. If the participants replied in the affirmative, they were requested to explain how the principal as a leader in education can influence the efficiency of the foreign language teacher teams. On a few occasions, *open-ended* questions (Mackey and Gass 2008: 92) were asked when the researcher decided that she needed a detailed and comprehensive description of a particular issue. For example, in question five, the participants were asked to describe the scheme of planning foreign language lessons according to an official syllabus. Additionally, one *disjunctive-semi-opened* question (Łobodzki 2006: 254-256) was used to focus upon controlling the language interaction in the foreign language classroom. For instance, in question fifteen the participants could choose options ranging from full teacher's control to full students' control as well as the *I don't have an opinion* possibility. Finally, *factual questions* (Cohen and Manion 1994: 278), concerning gender, age group, teaching experience, place of residence and qualifications, enabled the researcher to obtain the necessary information about the respondents. The questionnaires for the British teachers were in English and the questionnaires for the Polish teachers were worded in Polish because the foreign language teachers taught different foreign languages.

62 questionnaires were administered to the Polish and British foreign language teachers. Because of time and financial limitations, the researcher handed out the questionnaires to the school principals with a request to distribute them among teachers. She did that during the meeting preceding the actual research at a particular school and collected the questionnaires later while conducting interviews and lesson observations. Thus, the teachers could spend as much time as they needed to complete the questionnaires and, they did so without the presence of the researcher. This caused some problems with collecting the questionnaires as some teachers were absent from school at the

time of the actual research, and on some other occasions a few teachers did not return the questionnaires without any explanation. Moreover, some items in the questionnaire were misunderstood or the teachers did not pay sufficient attention to the rubric so their replies were not valid. Such items were not taken into account in the analysis. In total, 58 questionnaires were completed which put the return rate at 93.5% with a slight difference between Polish (91.6%) and British (96%) foreign language subjects. In spite of the difficulties mentioned above, sufficient data were collected to undertake an analysis in order to address the research questions formulated for the study.

4.3.3. Interview

Another data collection tool was the *semi-structured interview* (Bryman 2004: 113) with ten Polish and ten British foreign language teachers. The main aim of this data collection procedure was to gain further insight into the phenomena that occurred in the Polish and English upper secondary schools during the foreign language lessons and also to give both the participants and the researcher a chance to discuss and clarify some of the issues face-to-face. The school principals in Poland and the heads of the Modern Languages Departments in England decided how many teachers and exactly who would be interviewed. 20 questions were asked which were grouped into 9 categories:

- (1) The performance of the foreign language teacher teams.
- (2) The ethos of the principal as a leader in education.
- (3) The model of the foreign language lesson.
- (4) The use of the foreign language coursebook.
- (5) The forms of student assessment.
- (6) The development of learner autonomy.
- (7) The second language classroom discourse.
- (8) The program and course evaluation.
- (9) The questions concerning demographics.

Subsequently, an *interview guide* (King and Horrocks 2010: 38-39) was created and used, which can be found in Appendix 7, p. 331. Although the researcher followed a list of questions in some cases additional questions were asked (Bryman 2004: 113). A variety of types of questions were employed depending on the phenomenon under investi-

gation. More specifically, *open-ended*, *filter*, *opinion* (Hague 2002: 158-159), *feeling* (King and Horrocks 2010: 37), *knowledge* (King and Horrocks 2012: 37) and *personal factual* questions were included. For example, question one was an *open-ended question*, in which the participants were asked if the teacher teams performed any joint projects. A *filter question* was then asked when requesting the participants to provide some examples of joint projects or explain why no joint projects were performed. Question two was a *feeling* one and the participants were asked to express their sentiments as to whether they have the principal's support in their work. As far as an example of a *knowledge question* is concerned, it was related to the model of the foreign language lesson since the participants were requested to list the stages that they followed in a lesson. Factual questions focused on gender, age group, years of teaching, the location of their permanent address and background education.

Prior to each interview, the researcher asked the interviewee to give his or her consent to make an audio recording of the conversation. In order to secure the data and not to miss some vital information, the researcher used both audio recording and note-taking notes during each interview. Each interview was conducted by the researcher and took on average 20 minutes. Every interview in England was conducted in a separate room designated by the school principals and English was the language used for this procedure. Similarly, all the interviews conducted in Poland were held in separate rooms designated either by a principal or by the teachers themselves and the language used was Polish. In order to obtain a detailed picture of the issues in question and the most accurate information, additional questions were sometimes introduced. These were *elaborating* questions, *deepening* questions, *expanding* questions and *interpreting* questions (Kvale 2010: 112-113). Occasionally *silence* was employed to provoke the teachers to add more information and explain things in a more detailed way (Chaudron 1990: 17-19). It should be noted that, all interviews proceeded in a friendly and inspiring atmosphere.

4.4. Data analysis

The data collected by means of lesson observations, questionnaires and interviews constituted the basis for subsequent analysis. In the case of the interviews, the researcher's

notes of the responses on the interview schedule was the main source of data while the audio recordings, which were transcribed using the conventions presented in the Appendix 8, p. 337, were used to verify the correctness of the gathered information.

Before conducting the analysis, three separate codebooks were created for the questionnaires, the interview guide and the lesson observation sheet, which provided points of reference from both quantitative and qualitative analysis. All the questionnaire items were appointed codes, for instance *a, b, c* for each possibility, which were then used to calculate the total number and frequency of the responses. In the same vein, all the replies provided in the interviews were grouped and assigned codes. For example *1* for the *yes* response and *2* for the *no* response, which again enabled the researcher to calculate the total number of responses as well as the frequency of all the replies. Then, each observed phenomenon from the lesson observation sheet was also given a code, for instance *1* for *yes* and *2* for *no* observed phenomenon, which enabled the researcher to do the necessary calculations and calculate the frequency of particular phenomena.

In order to verify the independence of the variables, on the basis of the collected data, contingency tables were created (Butler 1985: 118). The majority of statistical procedures relied on *descriptive statistics*, in particular *frequency analysis* (Ferguson and Takane 2003: 28). To be more specific, the contingency tables enabled the researcher to read the values (Woods et al. 1986: 140) and the bar charts were helpful when looking for regularities and/or differences (Woods et al. 1986: 11). Then, Pearson's Chi Square test was employed to check for statistical significance of the differences observed (Boslaugh and Watters 2008: 191-195). Descriptive statistics were used for interviews and observations while Chi Square analysis was used in the questionnaire responses. Detailed information about the analysis of the data related to the research questions addressed in the present study is provided below:

- *Performance of teacher teams* was examined both quantitatively and qualitatively. Contingency tables were employed to provide details of the structure and performance of the foreign languages teams as well as to analyse the forms of cooperation in the team/teams and the teachers' opinions about the strongest and weakest aspects of performance of these teams. All the questionnaire responses regarding the structure and the meeting schedules of the foreign languages team/teams were calculated and the significance of the observed differences was determined by means of Pearson's

Chi Square test. Qualitative analysis consisted of describing unique forms of foreign languages team/teams structure and performance.

- *Principal as a leader in education* was investigated both quantitatively and qualitatively. The total number of responses to the particular questions was calculated. Contingency tables were employed to illustrate the replies regarding the principal's direct influence on the foreign languages team/teams efficiency and measures were also used to present the teachers' opinions concerning their perception of the principal's support in their actions and how this support affected their performance. Pearson's Chi Square test was used to analyse differences in the teachers' opinions on the ethos of a principal as a leader in education. Qualitative analysis was employed to analyse distinctive examples of the principals' influence and performance that influenced the functioning of teacher teams either in a positive or negative ways.
- *Model of the foreign language lesson* in Poland and England was investigated mainly quantitatively but some forms of qualitative analysis were also incorporated. The total number of responses was calculated as well as the number of the coded phenomena from lesson observations. Contingency tables were used to analyse the data regarding the types of the teaching goals, the ways in which foreign language lessons were planned, and the content of the average lesson plan. Contingency tables and bar charts were also used to tabulate examples of the foreign language teaching goals followed by the teachers and to compare the replies regarding what is taken into consideration while planning a lesson, the stages it includes, the students' involvement and examples of innovative practice. Pearson's Chi Square test was used to compare the goals the teachers attempt to achieve during their lessons and whether they plan their lessons according to the leading schedule. Qualitative analysis was employed in the case of any additional information as well as examples of innovative practice.
- The use of *techniques and teaching aids* was examined mostly qualitatively but some quantitative analysis was also undertaken. The total number of responses was calculated and the total number of the phenomena which occurred was counted. Contingency tables were used in the analysis of the teaching techniques and aids, students' reactions to instructional procedures and innovative techniques. Pearson's Chi Square test was employed to determine statistical differences between the responses of both groups of teachers. Qualitative procedures were employed to ana-

lyse the teachers' information concerning factors taken into account when choosing teaching techniques/aids, examples of additional techniques/teaching aids not included in the questionnaire or lesson observation sheet, as well as instances of innovative teaching techniques and lesson aids.

- The use of *a coursebook* was investigated both quantitatively and qualitatively. The total number of teachers' responses to each question was calculated and data were arranged in a form of contingency tables in order to analyse the frequency of changing a coursebook, the reasons for changing a coursebook, frequency of using a coursebook during foreign language lessons, and finally the use of additional teaching materials during the foreign language lessons. The statistic calculations, namely Pearson's Chi Square test, were undertaken to investigate differences for the way of choosing a coursebook, assessing its usefulness and data regarding creating own teaching materials. The examples of complementary materials used in the foreign language lessons and the distinctive ways and criteria of choosing the coursebook were analysed qualitatively.
- *Forms of student assessment* were investigated mainly quantitatively with some elements of qualitative analysis. All the responses to the questions and the frequency of the observed phenomena were calculated. The contingency tables were arranged to investigate the forms of students assessment employed, the frequency of student assessment during a foreign language lesson, students' reactions to being assessed and whether the existing forms of assessment were regarded as sufficient or not by foreign language teachers. The forms of student assessment declared in the questionnaires were compared with the use of the Pearson's Chi Square test. The qualitative approach was used to provide the examples of the distinctive forms of assessment.
- *Classroom interaction* was subjected to both quantitative and qualitative analysis. All the replies to the questions as well as the observed phenomena were calculated and investigated with the use of Pearson's Chi Square test. Contingency tables were used to present and analyse whether Polish and British teachers used speech modification and/or body language as teaching aids, to analyse the range of situations when speech modification and/or body language was used, students' reactions to the use of speech modification and/or body language by foreign language teachers, types of interactions during elicitation, the ways errors/mistakes were corrected and

finally who made the final correction. Pearson's Chi Square test was used to assess the proportions of controlling the language interactions during the foreign language lessons and descriptive statistics was used to illustrate the details. Qualitative analysis was used to explore the contradictions in results of the questionnaires and interviews regarding the range of situations when teachers used speech modification and/or body language, compare the types of non-verbal communication used by the Polish and English foreign language teachers.

- *Learner autonomy* was analyzed quantitatively by counting the total number of teachers' responses regarding their opinions whether their students were able to control the process of learning a foreign language and what could improve the unsatisfactory situation and the contingency tables were arranged. Contingency tables were also used when providing further details related to the above points and listing the number of examples of situations which could stimulate learner autonomy. Pearson's Chi Square test was used to find relationship between the degree of the teacher's language interaction control and learner autonomy, the use of additional teaching materials and learner autonomy and ways of planning a foreign language lesson and learner autonomy. Qualitative analysis focused on the distinctive opinions regarding what could be done to improve learner autonomy and to discuss the results of comparisons.
- *Program evaluation* was the subject of quantitative analysis in terms of calculating and statistically processing the model of the program evaluation in Polish and English upper secondary schools. To be more specific, contingency tables and a bar chart were used to analyse the ways of performing program evaluation in Polish and English upper secondary schools. Moreover, contingency tables were used to present the data related to the types of the applied procedures of program evaluation and assessing the level of efficiency of program evaluation in Polish and English upper secondary schools. Subsequently, Pearson's Chi Square test was employed to examine the ways of performing program evaluation and the types of the applied procedures of program evaluation. The qualitative approach was used to describe the unique models of program evaluation which had been pointed by the teachers.

Conclusion

The main aim of the present chapter has been to present and discuss the methodology, procedures and findings of the pilot study as well as the methodology of the main research project. This was necessary in order to help the readers better understand the findings presented and discussed in the final chapter of this dissertation. More precisely, the chapter focused on such details as defining the type of the main research and providing the details of the pilot study. The subjects who were involved in the main project were characterized, with a division being made between the Polish and British participants. Subsequently a description of the data collection tools used in the study was offered and the ways in which the collected data were analysed were discussed. To provide an exhaustive overview of the collected data, the way in which the interviews were transcribed, the coding procedures and the ways in which data analysis were made, were presented in detail. The chapter closed with an overview of how the data pertaining to the issues investigated in the study were analysed.

Chapter 5: Research findings

Introduction

The main objective of the present study was to examine nine aspects of foreign language teaching in Polish and English upper secondary schools in order to identify differences that could be applicable to the contrasting systems, thus enhancing the quality of foreign language education in either one or both of the countries. A plausible justification for such a focus seems to be the fact that the findings and conclusions of this research may be a stimulus for practitioners to improve the quality of foreign language teaching in both of the examined countries. It is hoped that highlighting the differences in foreign language teaching and showing some examples of good practices may inspire teachers to adopt some new and fresh ideas in their educational activities. Since Poland and England belong to the European Union, they follow similar policies with respect to foreign language education. Therefore, exchanging ideas and experiences is likely to foster reform and trigger changes in prevalent beliefs and attitudes. At the same time, of course, the specificity of each country must be taken into account since not all solutions are equally applicable to all contexts.

Nine research questions constituted the core basis for the research study. One of the main objectives was to compare and contrast the performance and structure of foreign language teacher teams in the Polish and the English upper secondary schools. The term *teacher team's structure* was used to refer to the way in which the teacher team is organised. For instance, in one school it may be one group of all foreign language teachers with one team leader, while in another there may be more foreign language teacher groups. It is the belief of the present author that how the teachers cooperate with

each other may affect the nature and effectiveness of the foreign language teaching in the two educational systems. That is why, while discussing further elements of foreign language teaching, the issue of the performance and structure of the foreign language teacher teams will always be taken into account. The study also focused on the role of the *principal as a leader in education*. In particular, the question of teachers' opinions concerning the positive or negative influence of the principal on foreign language teaching in Polish and English upper secondary schools was the main concern. The study also compared the ways in which *language lessons* were structured in both countries and an attempt was made to explore similarities and differences in the ways in which *foreign language teaching techniques and aids* are applied. This goal was of considerable importance to the present author since she is a practitioner herself and she was interested in finding instances of innovative and perhaps more effective foreign language teaching techniques and aids. Yet another goal of the study was to examine the differences between the Polish and English upper secondary schools with respect to the *use of a coursebook* during foreign language lesson, in particular with reference to the frequency and nature of use. The study also focused on the question of similarities and differences in the forms of *student assessment* that are used in the Polish and English upper secondary schools and how the choice of methods of *evaluation* affects the students' behaviour. Another aim was to enquire into the issue of *classroom interactions*, including the proportions of controlling classroom interactions, non-verbal communication, correcting errors and the occurrence of interactions during elicitation and a further objective was to explore the similarities and differences in actions taken by the Polish and English upper secondary schools with a view to developing *learner autonomy*. The differences identified were evaluated in order to make pedagogical recommendations. Finally, the ways of conducting program evaluation in both types of schools were explored and discussed.

5.1. Findings of the research project

The detailed outcomes of the present research are presented in the following section in relation to the issues under investigation, irrespective of whether they were derived from quantitative or qualitative analysis.

5.1.1. Structure and performance of the foreign language teacher teams

The aim of this part of the investigation was to investigate the structure, working schedule and scope of activities in the teacher teams in the Polish and the English upper secondary schools. Even a cursory look at Table 3 demonstrates that there existed a major difference between the structure of the foreign language teacher teams in Polish and English upper secondary schools, which was also confirmed by the results of the Pearson's Chi Square test result (see Table 4). In England, it was common for teachers of all the foreign languages in a school to be organised in a single team (80% of the total responses), but such an organisation in Polish upper secondary schools was less common (ca. 28.5% lower) (see Table 3). In the light of such findings, it may be stated that such a structure of the foreign language teacher teams, namely one foreign language teacher team for all foreign languages, was a norm in England, but not in Poland. Some internal consistency in this result is shown by the response that more Polish teachers than their English counterparts declared that their structure comprised separate teams for each language (42.4% vs. 16%), but the difference did not turn out to be statistically significant (see Table 4). Interestingly, in those cases where all the foreign language teachers operated within one teacher team, some discrepancies were found regarding the existence of discrete teams for separate languages within the main structure: 85% in English upper secondary schools compared with 37.5% in Polish schools (also see Table 3). The strongest similarities between the two groups can be found in terms of the fact that there was one manager, both in Poland and England, who headed a particular group (see Table Table 3).

In order to clarify some issues, a few English teachers included additional comments on the margins of the questionnaires regarding the structure of the foreign languages department and the managers' job descriptions in their schools. For example, one British teacher highlighted that English was included as a foreign language in their college. She explained that Modern Foreign Languages were one department whereas English for speakers of other languages was "a different department which falls under study support (ESOL)"⁵¹. Another British teacher extended the terminology used for senior managers in their school and distinguished between *senior* and *curriculum man-*

⁵¹ The direct quotation from the questionnaire.

agers. It was explained that “every main language is a different Curriculum Area, guided by a Curriculum Manager who schedules regular meetings to discuss the syllabus, teaching methods/materials ...”⁵². Although each curriculum manager had some independence for the particular language, one foreign language teacher (the senior curriculum manager) had overall responsibility and oversight of all foreign language instruction in the school and made decisions regarding teaching strategies.

In another English upper-secondary school, the teacher emphasised that there was a Head of Faculty who oversaw foreign language instruction, as well as other subjects. A British teacher from a different upper secondary school indicated that they had a Head of Faculty, who dealt with “English + Film + Media + Communications, as well as languages”⁵³. Such responses demonstrate that the manager for a foreign languages team in English upper secondary school can either supervise one team that covers one foreign language, one team which covers different foreign languages or one department which covers different teams of different curriculum subjects. The possibility of describing a unique structure of a foreign language teacher team was included in the questionnaire as the *other* option. One British teacher commented that the foreign language team was a separate group in the whole school led by one senior manager⁵⁴.

These different approaches to teaching teams indicate a managerial approach in England which encourages collaboration and discussion. All the teachers felt that they belonged to a team and were not teaching in isolation; in that sense, foreign language teachers in England are autonomous pedagogues; they work within structures which encourage sharing and the development of good practice.

Two Polish participants claimed that the teachers met only when it was necessary but no formal team had been created for this purpose. On the whole, the participants’ responses to the questions as well as their additional comments indicate that the types and divisions into particular teams usually were closely related to the school’s specific needs or curriculum issues (Fischer and Taylor 2012: 236). In accordance with what can be found in the professional literature (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 58), the foreign language teacher team leader, in most cases, was the most active member of the team.

⁵² The direct quotation from the questionnaire.

⁵³ The direct quotation from the questionnaire.

⁵⁴ The teacher explained in the questionnaire that this structure was for teaching English as a Foreign Language Department which is separate from the Modern Foreign Languages Department in the school.

Table 3. The structure of foreign language teacher teams described in the questionnaires.

	Polish schools		English schools	
	N ⁵⁵	%	N	%
One group for all languages	17	51.5	20	80
<i>One manager for this structure</i>	15	88.2	18	94.7
<i>Discreet teams within this structure</i>	6	37.5	17	85.0
Separate groups for each language	14	42.4	4	16
<i>One manager for this structure</i>	13	86.7	3	73.0
Other	2	6.1	1	4
total	33	100	25	100

Table 4. The structure of foreign language teacher teams declared in the questionnaires- Chi-square test results.

Foreign language teacher teams	X-squared	df	p. value
One group for all languages	6.095	1	0.013
<i>One manager for this structure</i>	0.010	1	0.919
<i>Discreet teams within this structure</i>	6.756	1	0.009
Separate groups for each language	0.006	1	0.936
<i>One manager for this structure</i>	0.000	1	1.000

The inevitable corollary of the differences in the structure of foreign language teacher teams was a significant difference in the working schedule of the Polish and English foreign language teacher teams. Consequently, as much as 84% of the English foreign language teacher teams reported having regularly scheduled meetings while 93.9% of the Polish foreign language teacher teams reported holding meetings as required by a specific situation (see Table 5). Additionally, British teams (20%) reported, under the *other* option in the questionnaire, having other forms of working meeting schedules, such as regular email contacts, meeting only for training purposes and consultations involving only subject leaders (see Table 5). The above findings were confirmed by the results of Pearson's Chi-square test ($X\text{-squared} = 15.241$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.000$) since there were statistically significant differences between the two groups. Clearly, the framework for specific meetings was different within Polish and English teacher teams but the English foreign language teacher teams seemed to follow the more stable, regular and efficient pattern recommended in the literature (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 57-58). Although it can be regarded as a speculation, it might also be assumed that because of the differences both in the structure and working schedules, the

⁵⁵ The number of replies.

opportunities for professional development and collaborative work are not equal in the two countries.

Table 5. The working schedule of the foreign language teacher teams declared in the questionnaires (teachers could choose more than one option).

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Regularly scheduled meetings	16	48.5	21	84.0
Situation required meetings	31	93.9	10	40.0
Other	0	0.0	5	20.0

The analysis of the activities undertaken by the foreign language teacher teams in Poland and England revealed some differences between the two groups in terms of performing joint projects. All the Polish teachers reported organising a variety of language projects and 70% of the British foreign language teachers said so. A more marked discrepancy was observed when it comes to the examples of the projects that were performed by the Polish and English foreign language teacher teams. The data presented in Table 6 clearly suggest that there was a major difference between the Polish and English groups in types of projects performed as a team. Polish foreign language teachers obviously preferred organising contests together as well as joint cultural events (70% and 80%), while the British teachers focused on creating shared materials (40%) and organising trips (30%). A possible explanation for this difference might be cultural or a consequence of the differences in structure and working schedules between the two groups, affecting the choice and frequency of joint projects. This can also be related to the differences in the ways in which Polish and British foreign language teacher teams agreed on the rules of cooperation (Fischer and Taylor 2012: 236).

Table 6. Examples of the foreign language teacher teams' joint projects - provided by the Polish and British teachers during the interviews (each teacher could provide any number of examples).

Named projects	Polish foreign languages teams		English foreign languages teams	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Contests	7	70	1	10
Lessons observations	1	10	1	10
Joint cultural events	8	80	0	0
Joint efforts in various activities	3	30	2	20
Creating shared materials	1	10	4	40
Trips	0	0	3	30
Professional development activities	1	10	1	10

In spite of the differences in the structure and activity of the foreign language teacher teams in Poland and England, there were similarities in teachers' perceptions of strengths. In the first place, both Polish and English teachers listed similar examples of the strongest points of their teams, the possibility of sharing teaching aids/materials, the existence of clear rules in the team, the high creativity of team members, supporting/positive atmosphere, dedication and involvement as well as professional development initiatives. However, many more Polish (ca. 60%) than English teachers included efficiency in cooperation, also more British (50%) than Polish teachers (20%) pointed to dedication and involvement. Finally, British teachers more frequently considered the presence of native speaker teachers to be an asset (see Table 7). The results thus seem to provide support for the assumption that no matter what kind of structure exists in an upper secondary school, some aspects of teachers' cooperation are held in similar high regard both for Polish participants and their British counterparts.

Table 7. The strongest points of foreign language teacher teams' performance declared in the interviews (each teacher could provide any number of points).

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
None	0	0.0	1	10.0
Sharing teaching materials	1	10.0	2	20.0
Efficiency in cooperation	7	70.0	1	10.0
Clear rules	1	10.0	0	0.0
Team's creativity	1	10.0	0	0.0
Positive atmosphere	4	40.0	5	50.0
Dedication in cooperation	2	20.0	5	50.0
Having native teachers	0	0.0	3	30.0
Supporting professional development	1	10.0	0	0.0

Similarly, both Polish and British teachers identified weaknesses in the functioning of their foreign language teacher teams. As can be seen from Table 8, more Polish teachers complained about the passive attitude of some teachers (ca. 20%), too rare possibilities of conducting joint projects (ca. 20%) as well as insufficient opportunities for sharing experience (ca. 10%). By contrast, more British teachers were dissatisfied with the quality of the teacher teams' efficiency (ca. 30%), they pointed out to problems with organising meetings (ca. 20%), and on the whole, they expected general better cooperation (ca. 10%). As can be seen from the data both Polish and British teachers provided fewer examples of negative than positive aspects related to internal foreign language

teacher teams' cooperation, which may indicate that the two groups were satisfied with respect to this issue.

Table 8. The weakest points of the foreign languages teams' performance declared in the interviews (each teacher could provide any number of points).

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
None	1	10.0	1	10.0
I don't know	3	30.0	1	10.0
Passive attitude of some teachers	2	20.0	0	0.0
Too little sharing experience	1	10.0	0	0.0
Too few joint projects	2	20.0	0	0.0
Better cooperation needed	2	20.0	3	30.0
Too low efficiency	0	0.0	3	30.0
Problems with organising meetings	0	0.0	2	20.0
Some inconsistency	0	0.0	1	10.0

As can be seen from the foregoing discussion, there is some evidence of significant differences in terms of the rules of cooperation, types of teacher teams and the goals they pursued (Fischer and Taylor 2012: 236). More specifically, the greatest differences could be observed regarding the structure of the foreign language teacher teams as well as the working schedule. Some discrepancies were also detected with respect to examples of the joint projects and the discussion of the selected strongest points of the teams. No qualitative analysis investigating such differences was possible at this point, since there were no direct observations of foreign language teacher teams' meetings. The potential impact of these findings on the foreign language teaching in Poland and England will be discussed in the subsequent chapter.

5.1.2. Principal as a leader in education

The goal of this part of the research project was to compare the leadership provided by the Polish and British principals of the upper secondary schools and the influence the principals had on the performance of foreign language teacher teams. One of the main differences between the Polish and British upper secondary teachers was that the latter were much more confident that the principal as a strong and efficient leader in education influenced the school's performance. As can be seen from Table 9, 92.0% of the British teachers replied in the affirmative in comparison with 54.5% of the Polish teach-

ers. Such a state of affairs may be related to the different structure of upper secondary schools in Poland and England as well as the difference in leadership models applied in each system. In the first place, the sixth form colleges in England function similarly to a business corporation with a board of governors and the principal who is expected to act in the capacity of manager rather than administrator. This may indicate that *creative leadership* is the dominant style in the English upper secondary schools (Jameson 2006: 179), which may have far-reaching implications for the teachers' expectations and opinions about the role of a principal. By contrast, in Poland a principal is responsible both for administrative and managerial issues and, therefore, he or she is most likely to be perceived as an administrator. Consequently, *systemic leadership* appears to be the predominant type in the Polish upper secondary schools (Jameson 2006: 127). The fact that the British upper secondary school teachers considered their principal as a strong and efficient leader in education was confirmed by the results of the Pearson's Chi-square test ($X^2 = 9.690$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.007$). In addition, both the Polish and British teachers agreed that the principal had a positive impact on their overall performance.

Table 9. The level of agreement of the teachers with the statement that having a principal who is a strong and efficient leader in education is beneficial for the school's performance (the results of the questionnaire).

	Polish upper secondary teachers		British upper secondary teachers	
	N	%	N	%
Yes, I strongly agree	18	54.5	23	92.0
Yes, I partly agree	14	42.4	2	8.0
No, I partly disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0
No, I strongly disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0
I don't have an opinion	1	3.0	0	0.0
Total	33	100	25	100

Interestingly, little variation was found between the two groups in terms of providing examples of the principal's actions aimed at increasing the efficiency of foreign language teacher teams. As shown in Table 10, similar percentages of Polish and British participants stated that the more efficient the leader, the better foreign language facilities. This is because, in their view, an efficient leader motivates practitioners to introduce pedagogical innovations, influences the interpersonal relationships in the foreign languages team in a positive way and motivates the team to perform program evaluation in order to increase efficiency. However, only the British teachers brought up issues other than those suggested by the researcher and claimed that the principal could pro-

mote foreign language learning with good marketing and should praise foreign language teachers for their hard work. Another commonly agreed example of the principal's influence was his or her role in employing foreign language teachers since a good choice of teaching staff influenced students' success at the final exams. This similarity of the Polish and British participants' opinions may stem from the fact that both groups recognise the strategically important aspects of the school's performance and the principal's influence on them. The above similarities were confirmed by the results of Pearson's Chi-square test ($X\text{-squared} = 2.565$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.6329$).

Table 10. Examples of principal's direct positive influence on the foreign languages teams' performance declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one option).

	Polish upper secondary school teachers		British upper secondary school teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
The more efficient leader, the better foreign language facilities	19	57.5	15	60.0
Motivates to introduce pedagogical innovations	20	60.6	18	72.0
Positively influences the interpersonal relationships in the foreign languages team	11	33.3	11	44.0
Motivates the team to perform program evaluation in order to increase efficiency	25	75.7	20	80.0
other	0	0.0	2	8.0

Although there were no major differences when it comes to examples of direct influence which the principal could exert on foreign language teacher teams in the answers provided by the Polish and English groups in the interviews, some interesting outcomes should be highlighted. Firstly, the Polish teachers expected a little more varied actions, while the British teachers included only those which they most probably considered to be most important (see Table 11). To be more specific, more Polish than British teachers (70% vs. 50%) appreciated the principal's organisational support and being provided with a lot of autonomy with respect to their overall actions (20% vs. 0%). On the other hand, the British teachers were more satisfied with the fact the their principal manifested understanding of how difficult teaching foreign languages was (20% vs. 0%) and placed emphasis on students' achievements (20% vs. 0%). These findings suggest that the Polish teachers consider a principal mainly as an administrator. Only the Polish teachers mentioned the principal's additional support and ideas (10%), his or her approachable attitude (10%), and motivating teachers while only the British

teachers included the fact that their principal was open to new ideas (10%). These findings suggest that such issues are, generally, of little importance to teachers.

Table 11. Examples of principal's direct support for foreign language teacher teams provided by the Polish and British teachers during the interviews (each teacher could provide any number of examples).

	Polish foreign language teachers		British foreign language teachers	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Organisational support	7	70	5	50
Additional support and ideas	1	10	0	0
Approachable attitude	1	10	0	0
Understands how difficult teaching foreign languages is	0	0	2	20
Gives teachers a lot of autonomy	2	20	0	0
Motivates teachers	1	10	0	0
Open for new ideas	0	0	1	10
Puts emphasis on students' achievements	0	0	2	20

Somewhat unexpectedly, the interview outcomes revealed that only two Polish and two British teachers reported lack of direct principal's support for the functioning of the foreign language teacher teams. When asked how this fact affected performance, one Polish teacher did not see any negative effects and another mentioned no need for any kind of support. By contrast, one British teacher felt that such a situation demotivated the team and the second pointed out that it may cause distress among teachers. In a sense, such a low number of the teachers' negative opinions with respect to this may indicate that both Polish and British teachers are quite positive about the principal's influence on the activities of foreign language teacher teams'. At the same time, however, it should be noted that the two groups differ in understanding the role of the principal in the school.

The findings reported in this section seem to confirm the fact that the British teachers considered the principal to be a manager of the school and they did not expect him/her to get involved directly in their actions to a great extent. Motivation and emotional support seemed to be of the greatest importance for them. It can therefore be assumed that *service orientation* and *empowerment* are the most expected values by the British teachers who would like their principal to devote his/her efforts to executing the needs of the local community and afford them a considerable degree of autonomy (Brundrett et al. 2003: 16-17). In addition, *creative leadership* seems to be predominant in the English sixth form colleges, where the principal acts as a kind of business person (Jameson 2006: 179). By contrast, the Polish teachers view the principal as an adminis-

trator, thus focusing on *learning-centred* and *service orientation* values (Brundrett et al. 2003: 16-17). Moreover, the leadership model adopted in the Polish upper secondary schools seems to be *systemic*, where the principal concentrates his/her efforts on keeping a balance between the external and internal issues that affect the school's performance (Jameson 2006: 127). The extent to which these similarities and differences could provide a point of departure for improving the quality of the foreign language teaching will be considered in the concluding part of this dissertation.

5.1.3. Model of the foreign language lesson

The aims of this part of the research project included comparing the syllabus/curriculum goals of the foreign language lessons in the Polish and the English upper secondary schools; comparing the ways, in which foreign language lessons are planned in the Polish and the English upper secondary schools; comparing the stages of the foreign language lessons, and finally, investigating the students' involvement in different stages of the foreign language lessons. As far as the model of the foreign language lesson is concerned, the most important goal for the Polish foreign language teachers seemed to be developing communicative skills (97%), followed by the second most important popularly chosen goals, which were encouraging students to engage in self-instruction and expanding the cultural component (both 84.8%). For the 81.8% of the Polish teachers an important goal was to integrate knowledge from different fields of life. Whereas the British foreign language teachers' responses were all between 96-100%. Quantitative analysis revealed that both Polish and British teachers followed similar language teaching goals in their lessons ($X^2 = 0.179$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.996$), namely developing communicative skills, encouraging students to engage in self-instruction, integrating knowledge from different fields of life, or expanding the cultural component (see Table 12). Such findings confirm that both the Polish and the British foreign language teachers on the whole follow the recommendations included in the methodology literature (Rifkin 2003: 177; Woodin 2001: 61).

Table 12. Examples of foreign language teaching goals followed in the foreign language lessons declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one option).

	Polish upper secondary school teachers		British upper secondary school teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Developing communicative and practical skills (a)	32	97%	25	100.0
Encouraging students to self-education (b)	28	84.8	24	96.0
Integrating knowledge from different fields of life (c)	27	81.8	24	96.0
Expanding the cultural component (d)	28	84.8	24	96.0
Other (e)	4	12.1	4	16.0

At the same time, the analysis revealed some interesting variation. As can be seen in Table 13 and Fig. 1, almost all the British teachers pointed to all the goals of the foreign language lesson suggested by the researcher and a few added their own ideas; Polish teachers were less consistent. As far as the Polish teachers' own ideas about the teaching goals they pursue are concerned, three of them pointed to exam preparations, one mentioned making students aware of the varieties of English dialects and showing students' differences between formal and informal language, and one stressed the importance of familiarizing students with a variety of sources of knowledge. Two British sixth form college teachers provided their own ideas, pointing to participation in various activities, the exam preparation factor, culture integration and encouraging students to do independent work.

Table 13. Crosstabulation for the examples of the foreign teaching goals followed in the foreign language lessons and declared in the questionnaires.

	a,b		a,b,c		a,b,c,d		a,b,c,d,e		a,b,d		a,b,d,e		a,c		a,c,d		a,c,d,e		a,d		e		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
EN	0	0	1	4	19	76	4	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0
PL	1	3	2	6.1	20	60.6	1	3	3	9.1	1	3	1	3	2	6.1	1	3	0	0	1	3	

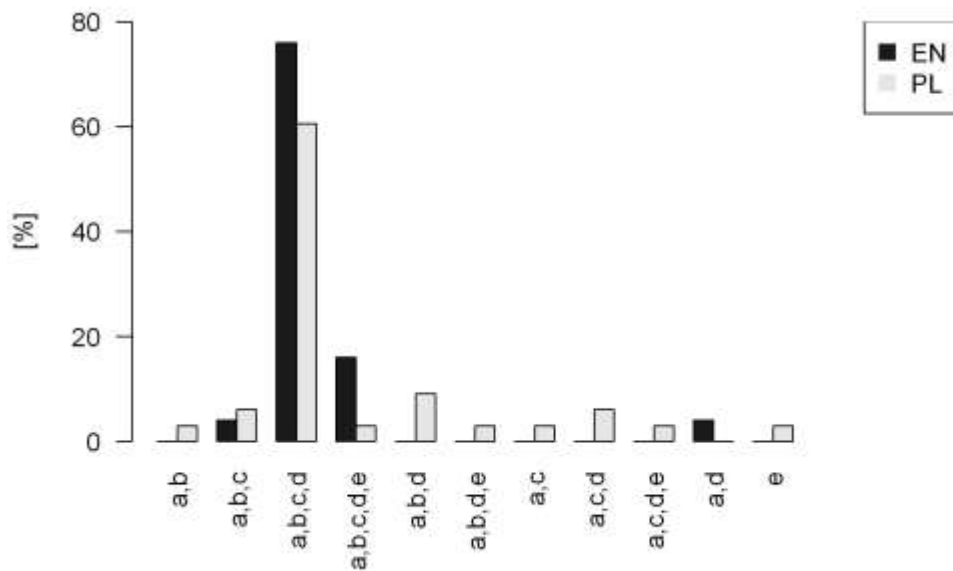


Fig. 1. The crosstabulation for the examples of the foreign teaching goals followed in the foreign language lessons and declared in the questionnaires.

It turned out that the majority of the British participants (92%) reported following one model while planning a lesson in comparison with 21.3% of the Polish teachers, who apparently were given more freedom in this respect (see Table 14). A statistically significant difference was revealed between the two groups when it comes to planning a foreign language lesson by the foreign languages team/teams ($X\text{-squared} = 33.217$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.000$). It can be assumed that the more centralized structure and the working schedule of the English foreign languages teams might be the main cause of such disparity. It would thus seem that the British teachers cooperated with each other more closely and they met more frequently, thereby having more opportunities to work out similar courses of action. By contrast, the Polish participants seemed to adopt a more individual approach to work.

Table 14. Planning lessons according to an official model declared in the questionnaires.

	Polish upper secondary teachers		British upper secondary teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N	(max. 25) %
Yes, definitely	2	6.1	18	72.0
Yes, partly	5	15.2	5	20.0
No, partly	16	48.5	2	8.0
No, definitely	8	24.2	0	0.0
I don't have an opinion	2	6.1	0	0.0

When we focus on the teachers' descriptions of the official models of a lesson plan that are followed, some more variations can be observed (see Table 15). In the first place, the teachers followed the official syllabus when they planned a foreign language lesson, but they also added their own ideas (26% British teachers, 14.2% Polish teachers); they also followed examination requirements and official mark schemes while planning their lessons (39.1% British teachers, 14.2% Polish teachers). It turned out that only Polish teachers used the official syllabus as the main source for lesson planning (28.5%) while 14.2% of the Polish teachers used the official syllabus together with the coursebook.

Table 15. The teachers' descriptions of planning lessons according to an official model (results of the questionnaires, when the teachers chose the *yes* option).

	Polish upper secondary school teachers		British upper secondary school teachers	
	N (max. 7)	%	N (max. 23)	%
Official syllabus plus own ideas	1	14.2	6	26.0
Exam requirements plus official mark schemes	1	14.2	9	39.1
Official syllabus plus a coursebook	2	28.5	0	0.0

Surprisingly, as far as issues taken into consideration when planning a foreign language lesson according to different models are concerned, the British foreign language teachers unanimously pointed to knowledge from college/university, experience gained while working in the foreign languages teacher teams, readymade set of ideas from teacher's books as well as their own ideas. By contrast, the Polish foreign language teachers were again more selective, which is clearly illustrated by the results presented in Fig. 2. For example, 95.8% of the Polish foreign language teachers pointed to using their own ideas when planning lessons, and 75% reported using readymade selection of ideas from teacher's manuals and knowledge gained at methodology courses provided at the university (see Table 16). Interestingly, only 45.8% of the Polish foreign language teachers based planning on experience gained while cooperating in the foreign language teacher team. No statistically significant differences were found between the two groups when it comes to the specific models of lesson planning ($X^2 = 0.512$; $df = 3$; $p = 0.916$) (also see Table 16).

Table 16. Elements taken into consideration when planning lessons according to different models – declared in the questionnaires, when the teachers chose the *no* option.

	Polish upper secondary teachers		British upper secondary teachers	
	N (max. 24)	%	N (max. 2)	%
Your knowledge from college/university (a)	18	75.0	2	100.0
Experience gained while working in the foreign languages team (b)	11	45.8	2	100.0
Readymade set of ideas from teacher's books (c)	18	75.0	2	100.0
Your own ideas (d)	23	95.8	2	100.0

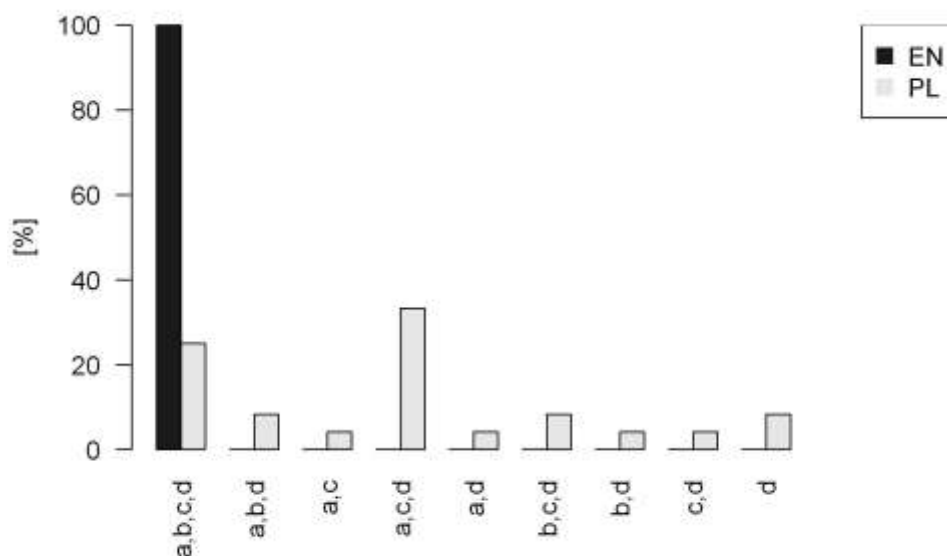


Fig. 2. The crosstabulation of the results regarding the elements taken into consideration when planning lessons according to different models – declared in the questionnaires.

Some British foreign language teachers elaborated on this point. One of them, for example, explained that the members of the foreign languages team followed the same year program, they applied the same schemes of work and they used the same booklets compiled within a teacher team but they also had the freedom to make their own decisions about the content of the foreign language lesson. Another British teacher included a comment that the members of the foreign languages team used the set coursebooks, but they also created some original additional materials for writing, listening and speaking activities.

The greatest similarity between the two groups could be found as far as the most typically applied elements of the foreign language lesson model are concerned. As was revealed in the questionnaire responses, the majority of the Polish (78.7%) and British

(56%) teachers pointed to a model of a lesson based on the presentation⁵⁶, practice⁵⁷ and production⁵⁸ sequence. This was confirmed by the results of the interviews with the teachers as well as the outcomes of lesson observations (see Table 17 and Table 18). For example, the lesson observations revealed that the introductory part was present in 86.2% of the all the observed lessons in Poland and 65% of all observed lessons in England. In comparison, 40% of the Polish and 30% of the British teachers mentioned the introductory part in their interviews. Secondly, checking homework was the next observed element during the foreign language lessons (in 27.6% of the lessons taught by the Polish teachers and 25% of the lessons taught by British teachers). The revision phase of the foreign language lesson was observed during 48.3% of the lessons in Poland and 65% of the lessons in England while the same number of the foreign language teachers (40%) in Poland and England mentioned this during their interview. Next, students' (6.0% in Poland vs. 10% in England) and/or teachers' presentations (62.1% in Poland vs. 60% in England) were observed during foreign language lessons and respectively 100% of the Polish teachers and 50% of the British teachers mentioned this element in their interview. Moreover, the practice phase was observed during 58.6% of the lessons in the Polish upper secondary schools and 75% of the lessons in the English sixth form colleges whereas 100% of Polish teachers and 70% of British teachers included this in their interview. Furthermore, the production phase was incorporated in 69% of the lessons in Poland and 45% of the lessons in England and 80% of both Polish and British teachers mentioned this stage in their interviews. Interestingly, 10% of the British teachers included evaluation of the lesson in their interviews, but no such procedures were identified during the observation. A preliminary conclusion can be drawn on the basis of these findings: irrespective of the foreign language teacher team's structure and performance, the applied elements of the model of the foreign language lesson seem to be similar in both countries. More specifically, both in the Polish and English upper secondary schools, the teachers followed the four basic phases of a foreign language lesson that is *the overview phase, the presentation phase and the check phase* (Rifkin

⁵⁶ By the presentation phase, the present author understands the initial stage of a lesson where some new aspects of the language are introduced.

⁵⁷ By the practice phase of a lesson, the present author understands the stage when students are given activities in order to practice the new aspects with the help of the teacher.

⁵⁸ By the production stage of a lesson, the present author understands the stage when students are given the chance to use the new language aspects in meaningful contexts with no or minimal teacher's assistance.

2003: 173-176). The *follow-up phase* was known to the teachers but, actually, not observed.

Table 17. Elements of the foreign language lesson declared in the interviews (each teacher could provide any number of the elements of the foreign language lesson).

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Homework	3	30.0	2	20.0
Organisational part/informing about the goals	4	40.0	3	30.0
Practice	10	100.0	7	70.0
Presentation	10	100.0	5	50.0
Revision	4	40.0	4	40.0
Depends on lesson goals	1	10.0	1	10.0
Production	8	80.0	8	80.0
Warm-up activities	0	0.0	4	40.0
Usually a set of activities	0	0.0	1	10.0
Evaluation of the lesson	0	0.0	1	10.0

Table 18. The observed elements of the foreign language lesson.

	English sixth form colleges		Polish general upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 20)	%	N (max. 29)	%
Organisational part	13	65.0	25	86.2
Students' presentation	2	10.0	2	6.9
Practice	15	75.0	17	58.6
Revision	13	65.0	14	48.3
Teacher's presentation	12	60.0	18	62.1
Giving homework	10	50.0	16	55.2
Entertainment/games	7	35.0	1	3.4
A test/quiz	3	15.0	1	3.4
Production	9	45.0	20	69.0
Checking homework	5	25.0	8	27.6

A clear difference was observed when it comes to learner involvement in each stage of the lesson in Polish and British secondary schools. The outcomes of the lesson observations revealed that 60% of the British students enjoyed⁵⁹ the lessons and only 3.4% of Polish students showed some signs of such enjoyment during the lesson. As can be seen from Table 19 other manifestations of involvement were similar in both countries. One possible explanation for this outcome could be that the more frequent application of modern technology devices and tasks related to entertainment/games during the foreign language lessons which was observed in England could have made the British

⁵⁹ The students looked relaxed.

students enjoy their lessons more. Although, on the whole, the Polish and the British students showed similar kinds of involvement at different stages of the lessons, the British students seemed to be more relaxed (60% seemed to be enjoying themselves).

Table 19. Students' involvement observed in the foreign language lessons.

	Polish students		English students	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Students enjoy this part	1	3.4	12	60.0
Focused and involved ⁶⁰	27	93.1	20	100
Active and cooperative ⁶¹	22	75.9	12	60.0
Students ask questions ⁶²	0	0.0	2	10.0
Proud of their achievements ⁶³	1	3.4	2	10.0
Reserved/confused ⁶⁴	2	6.9	0	0.0

There were some differences as well concerning the number of examples of innovative elements⁶⁵ in the lessons conducted by the Polish and English teachers. During as many as 55% of the lessons carried out by the British teachers and 24.1% of the lessons conducted by the Polish teachers the researcher observed some innovative elements. In the case of the Polish participants they included such activities as students appointing other students in order to discuss the issues related to the text which was analysed during the lesson. Moreover, during one lesson in Poland a game called *snake* was applied which relied on providing examples of topical words that could be created with the use of letters included in a traditional proverb. Some more examples of innovative elements found by the researcher included the use of special cards to practice speaking skills, comparing and contrasting the target language rules with the those in the mother tongue, saying a prayer in the foreign language and getting students to present foreign language grammar rules. Furthermore, the researcher noted an instance of a lexical guessing game where the students were trying to guess the proverb out of the given letters and then discuss the meaning of the saying and, finally, the researcher noted that a whole lesson was devoted to developing speaking skills on a weekly basis.

⁶⁰ The students willingly followed the teacher's instructions.

⁶¹ The students volunteered and cooperated with each other over the tasks.

⁶² The students asked questions for clarification or wanted to learn more about the issue.

⁶³ The students' facial expressions and gestures showed that they were delighted they performed well.

⁶⁴ The students did not volunteer and they used gestures like shrugging shoulders.

⁶⁵ The researcher acknowledged the element of the foreign language lesson, technique and/or teaching aid as innovative when she did not come across during her education in college/university and/or teaching practices.

Many more examples of innovative elements of foreign language teaching were observed by the researcher during the lessons conducted in the English secondary schools. In the first place, the use of a specially created booklet was observed which contained some grammar and vocabulary activities, texts with additional tasks and audio-visual activities. Those booklets were designed either by the foreign language team and/or by a particular teacher. Another interesting example of an innovative activity was a wordsearch game during which the students were asked to find cards with words hidden outside the classroom and, when successful, were rewarded with sweets. Other examples included breathing activities, reading a text aloud and paying special attention to intonation and pronunciation, poll voting and discussing the results of a poll, playing lexical games such as *Bingo* and *Who wants to be a Millionaire*, discussing the recognised items of art in relation to the cultural and historical issues, drawing and discussing the pictures on a specific topic, teachers' *Power Point* presentations on grammar rules and students' various *Power Point* presentations. Yet other examples of such innovative actions in English upper secondary schools involved preparing a set of topical lessons related to the history and culture of the target country. For instance, the students learnt about the genesis, course and results of the domestic war in Spain and the terrorism in modern Germany during another course. The researcher was especially astounded by the frequent use of Moodle and/or Intranet both during the lessons and while doing additional projects. The ramifications of the differences related to the foreign language lesson model will be discussed in the conclusion to this dissertation.

5.1.4. Foreign language teaching techniques and aids

Another focus of the research project was on teaching techniques and the use of teaching aids, including students' reactions to them. Somewhat surprisingly, as can be seen in Table 20, the outcomes of the questionnaires revealed that in selecting particular teaching techniques, the British teachers frequently relied on the experience gained while working in the foreign language team (92%) and the Polish teachers pointed to more *learner-centred* methods, such as the assessment of the needs of a particular language group (93.9%) and final examination requirements (93.9%). In addition, more Polish teachers relied on knowledge gained from self-education (ca. 46.8%) and knowledge

from college and/or university (ca. 21.7%). By contrast, more British teachers based their choice of teaching techniques on knowledge gained while taking part in courses and training sessions (ca. 23.4%). Interestingly, there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups with regard to what the foreign language teachers took into consideration while choosing the instructional techniques ($X^2 = 20.470$; $df = 6$; $p = 0.002$). It can be assumed on the basis of the findings discussed above, in particular the differences in the organisation and structure of the foreign language teams between the two groups that such issues exerted an influence on choosing teaching techniques. When the teachers cooperated closely in their teams, they used this experience when preparing for a lesson. On the other hand, when they worked more individually they tended to consider final exam requirements, assessment of students' needs and knowledge gained from self-education. Furthermore, six British teachers included their own ideas concerning choosing teaching techniques, emphasising in particular *experience gained during the years, feedback from students, peer observation, developing all skills so as to make gradual and steady progress and individual student's needs*.

Table 20. Factors taken into consideration while choosing teaching techniques (replies from the questionnaires- each teacher could choose more than one option).

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Your knowledge from college/university	23	69.7	12	48.0
Experienced gained while working in the foreign language team	15	45.5	23	92.0
Knowledge gained while taking part in courses and trainings	20	60.6	21	84.0
Knowledge gained from self-education	26	78.8	8	32.0
Assessment of needs of a particular language group	31	93.9	22	88.0
Final exams requirements	31	93.9	20	80.0
Other	0	0.0	6	24.0

The analysis of the data from the questionnaires revealed that ca. 22.8 % more of the British teachers appreciated *interpretational techniques*, such as creating mental maps in order to facilitate vocabulary learning and ca. 20.4% more of the Polish teachers preferred using *project work* (see Table 21). The analysis of the data from lesson observations partly confirmed this finding. In the first place, a technique which relied on creating mental maps was identified during 15% of all the lessons observed in England but no such techniques were detected in Poland (see Table 22). As for other interesting differences concerning the actual use of teaching techniques found in the question-

naires, slightly more British teachers reported applying brainstorm activities (72%) in comparison with the Polish teachers (66.70%). The situation looked different during lesson observations, where in 72.4% of the foreign language lessons in Polish upper secondary schools this technique was used in contrast with 55% during the classes taught in England. One reason for this discrepancy could be that the researcher observed only a limited number of lessons, so the findings cannot be generalized and the results might not have been indicative of the true state of affairs. Another interesting difference concerned the use of pair work, where again more British teachers (ca. 9.1%) (see Table 21) declared applying it but more Polish teachers (ca. 13.6%) (see Table 22) were actually observed to use it in their classrooms. In contrast to what was declared by teachers in the questionnaires, more Polish teachers applied the *interactive approach*, for example in the form of pair work (27.6%) than the British teachers (20%). The analysis revealed some statistically significant differences concerning the types of teaching techniques which the Polish and the British teachers reported using in the questionnaires ($X^2 = 14.397$; $df = 7$; $p = 0.04$), which was partly confirmed by the results of lesson observation.

Table 21. Teaching techniques declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one method).

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Brainstorm activities	22	66.70	18	72.00
Creating mental maps	7	21.20	11	44.00
Pair work	30	90.90	25	100.00
Group work	25	75.80	24	96.00
Project method	12	36.40	4	16.00
Panel discussions	9	27.30	6	24.00
Stage productions	4	12.10	1	4.00
Other	0	0.00	7	28.00

Among other techniques observed during the lessons, those most popular in England included *simulation techniques*, such as discussions (80%), the teacher's lecture, for instance on the particular culture issue (50%), using software and/or multimedia such as smart boards or a multimedia projector (20%), watching and working on a film, for example a documentary about Guernica (30%), games and humour, for example students looking for cards with words which were hidden around school, and using a dictionary (35%) (see Table 22). On the other hand, more popular teaching techniques in Poland seemed to be based on *learning-centred methods*, like skills developing tasks

such as listening and reading comprehension (65.5%), translations of sentences (37.9%) and using schemes/maps/boards/tables (55.2%). On the whole, the findings reveal that both Polish and British foreign language teachers employ a variety of teaching techniques with some significant variations within the two groups.

Table 22. Teaching techniques observed during the foreign language lessons.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Brainstorm activities	21	72.4	11	55.0
Pair work	17	58.6	9	45.0
Group work	8	27.6	4	20.0
Mental maps	0	0.0	3	15.0
Debates	0	0.0	0	0.0
Panel discussions/discussions	20	69.0	16	80.0
Sketches	0	0.0	0	0.0
Students' presentation of the material	3	10.3	3	15.0
Skills developing tasks	19	65.5	8	40.0
The teacher's lecture	5	17.2	10	50.0
Students' individual work	1	3.4	1	5.0
Using software/multimedia	0	0.0	4	20.0
Translations	11	37.9	5	25.0
Watching and working on a film	1	3.4	6	30.0
Using maps/schemes/tables/ blackboard / white-board	16	55.2	5	25.0
Practising pronunciation	3	10.3	2	10.0
Using images/illustrations	1	3.4	1	5.0
Games and/or humour	3	10.3	7	35.0
Doing internet research for a project	0	0.0	2	10.0
Using a dictionary	4	13.8	7	35.0

The responses in the *other* category options from the questionnaire shed more light on the similarities and differences in teaching techniques in the Polish and the English upper secondary schools. Seven British teachers included *creative works, interactive activities, translations, writing activities, grammar activities, students' presentations, competitions and games* and *independent learning including peer mentoring* (see Table 21). In order to gain a deeper understanding of these additional techniques, the researcher asked the teachers for a detailed explanation in the course of the interviews. It turned out that in some English upper secondary schools the independent learning program was compulsory and students got a list of additional tasks they were to complete on their own and report the results to the teacher. The detailed schedule and rules were published on the intranet and students got credits which were later taken into account when arriving at the final grade. Another form of independent learning in the British upper secondary schools relied on publishing updated resources including home-

work on the Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) in order to enable all learners to re-view, catch up and/or consolidate their knowledge, especially when they were absent from school. This was also an example of employing Information and Communication resources as a teaching aid, which is believed to facilitate teacher-student communication (Madej 2011: 32-34). Finally, the British teachers described two forms of peer mentoring; in one case, students who did not perform well were placed next to strong foreign language students so that they could learn from their peers and secondly, more advanced students were mentors for students who struggled with foreign language learning.

The data from lesson observations revealed some interesting differences in the students' reactions to the teaching techniques. As Table 23 shows, the British students were much more interested in (60% of all the observed lessons) and amused by (30% of all the observed lessons) the instructional procedures. However, more Polish students (86.2% of all the observed lessons) were active and cooperative, as evident in the fact that they volunteered more often and they interacted with their partners. Both the British and Polish students seemed to be almost equally focused and involved during foreign language lessons (95% vs. 89.7%). Such findings might indicate that the choice of techniques can influence students' reactions and determine certain forms of behaviour and they shed some light on the previous conclusion that the British students find their foreign language lessons more enjoyable while their Polish peers seemed to concentrate more on the educational aspects of the lesson.

Table 23. Students' reactions to the applied teaching techniques observed during the foreign language lessons.

	Polish students		British students	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Interested	6	20.7	12	60.0
Focused and involved	26	89.7	19	95.0
Active and cooperative	25	86.2	14	70.0
Understood the task ⁶⁶	0	0.0	2	10.0
Amused ⁶⁷	0	0.0	6	30.0

The finding reported above is supported by a significant difference between the Polish and British foreign language teachers with respect to the use of teaching aids and

⁶⁶ The students do not ask questions for clarification and they promptly get down to work.

⁶⁷ The students smile or laugh at the situation.

their type, which was revealed by the outcomes of the questionnaires. One example of such a disparity is the use of multimedia devices, which was reported to be used by 92% of the British teachers and only 18.2% of the Polish teachers (see Table 25). The results of the Pearson's Chi-square test confirmed the statistical significance of such discrepancies ($X^2 = 37.784$; $df = 9$; $p = 0.000$). This is also supported by the results of the lesson observations in England where during 85% of all the lessons a multimedia projector was used, during 20% of all the lessons a smartboard was employed and during 55% of all lessons some kind of software was used (see Table 24).

Table 24. The use of teaching aids observed during the foreign language lessons

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Multimedia projector	0	0.0	17	85.0
Interactive board	1	3.4	4	20.0
Whiteboard/blackboard	23	79.3	15	75.0
Dictionary	4	13.8	7	35.0
Internet resources	0	0.0	4	20.0
Computer and software	0	0.0	11	55.0
Visual and/or audio recording	8	27.6	3	15.0
Coursebook and/or activity book	18	62.1	2	10.0
Maps/schemes	6	20.7	6	30.0
Resource booklets/photocopied materials	7	24.1	4	20.0

By contrast, more Polish teachers reported using audio recordings (ca. 12%), a coursebooks (ca. 24%), activity books (ca. 62.9%), exemplary final exam sheets (ca. 41%) and dictionaries (ca. 41.9%). These findings were partly supported by the outcomes of lesson observations, where more Polish teachers fell back on a coursebook (62.1% of all the observed lessons) but it appeared that more British teachers encouraged their students to use a dictionary in order to look up the meanings of unknown words (35% of all the observed lessons).

On the whole, it may be concluded that the British teachers from the four sixth form colleges tended to use more diverse teaching aids which were likely to appeal to more senses. This is in accordance with the suggestion of Walters (2011: 312) that teaching materials ought to be *audience-based* and reach the learners through different channels of perception. It should also be noted that both Polish and British teachers declared using other teaching aids in addition to those suggested by the researcher. These included a blackboard/whiteboard as a teaching aid, Internet resources, using the intra-

net/Moodle, additional written resources and independently created materials. Some Polish teachers also specified what they meant by their own teaching materials. One of them reported using originally created lists of expressions as well as translating fairy-tales, songs or parts of English TV programs. Another Polish teacher mentioned creating grammar slides, collages with illustrations and press cuts. Moreover, one teacher reported using pictures from magazines as visual prompts.

It would seem on the basis of these findings that the differences can be related to the availability of funding in the English upper secondary schools. The availability of electronic teaching aids and VLEs in the English schools may well encourage teacher team interactions as teachers discover not only how to use the equipment but also how to derive the best effect in the teaching process. Sharing and learning new techniques together promotes collegiality and collaboration, and helps to overcome resistance to change, often caused by anxiety. By contrast, the Polish teachers relied mainly on the coursebook since they did not meet so regularly and they depended on their individual choices more. Finally, another possible explanation why the Polish teachers tended to be more dependent on textbooks might be that they did not have trust in their colleagues as foreign language teaching experts and would rather follow the recommendations of the textbook authors.

Table 25. The use of teaching aids declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one example of teaching aids).

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Multimedia devices e.g. an interactive board	6	18.2	23	92.0
Authentic materials	22	66.7	18	72.0
Audio recordings	33	100.0	22	88.0
DVD data	15	45.5	12	48.0
A coursebook	33	100.0	19	76.0
Activity book	30	90.9	7	28.0
Demonstrative boards	12	36.4	9	36.0
Exemplary final exam sheets	32	97.0	14	56.0
Dictionary	31	93.9	13	52.0
Other	10	30.0	5	20.0

As can be seen from Table 26, one of the major differences between the two groups were the observed students' reactions to the employed teaching aids. The Polish students seemed to be more active and cooperative, which was visible in the fact that they volunteered quite frequently (58.6% of the all observed lessons) while more of the British students seemed to recognise the aids as useful and they openly commented on

the usefulness of the materials (75% of all the observed lessons). A similar number of the Polish and British students seemed to be interested (20.7% vs. 25%) and focused/involved (75.9% vs. 65%) in the lesson when the teaching aids were used.

Table 26. Students' reactions to the applied teaching aids observed during the foreign language lessons.

	Polish students		British students	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Interested	6	20.7	5	25.0
Focused and involved	22	75.9	13	65.0
Active and cooperative	17	58.6	4	20.0
Found the teaching aids helpful/support understanding ⁶⁸	1	3.4	15	75.0
Amused	9	31.0	1	5.0

Unsurprisingly, given the availability of modern technology, more innovative teaching techniques and aids⁶⁹ were observed in English schools. As can be seen from Table 27, the British teachers applied a greater number of innovative techniques unknown to the researcher (ca. 35.9%). Although training courses for teachers in England and Poland both focus on choosing teaching materials which follow advances in technology (Waters 2011: 311-312; Komorowska 2002: 38), there may be a need for an even greater focus on the use of technology in Polish training courses to encourage teachers to innovate and to demand better educational resources.

Table 27. The observed innovative teaching techniques/aids applied in the foreign language lessons.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Yes	7	24.1	12	60.0
No	22	75.9	8	40.0

Generally speaking, the research provided evidence for a number of differences between the Polish and British teachers' choice of foreign language teaching techniques and aids and students' reactions to them. The impact on how the choice of certain techniques and aids can influence the overall quality of foreign language teaching can only be fully assessed through a careful examination of the contexts in which they are applied. Such an evaluation will be attempted in the following chapter.

⁶⁸ The students commented on the usefulness of the aids.

⁶⁹ The researcher acknowledged a teaching technique and/or a teaching aid as innovative when she did not come across them during her college/university course and teaching practice.

5.1.5. Use of a coursebook

One of the major differences between the Polish and British upper secondary foreign language teachers concerned the way in which the coursebook was chosen. Somewhat surprisingly, the Polish teachers declared that it was the foreign languages team that made decisions about the new coursebook (63.3%); even though the Polish teachers claimed the foreign languages teams did not meet regularly, choosing a coursebook as a team seemed to be of great importance for them. By contrast, only 36.4% of the Polish teachers chose a foreign language textbook individually. In England, the way of choosing a coursebook relied on the decision of the foreign language teacher team (44%), individual choice of a foreign language teacher (36%) and other ways (20%) as shown in Table 28. Interestingly, some British teachers stated they either did not use a textbook at all or they compiled their own materials from a variety of resources. The results of the Pearson's Chi-square test revealed ($X^2 = 7.594$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.022$) that there was a statistically significant difference in the way of choosing a foreign language textbook.

Table 28. The way of choosing a coursebook declared in the questionnaires.

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Individual choice of a teacher	12	36.4	9	36.0
Foreign languages team's choice	21	63.6	11	44.0
Other	0	0.0	5	20.0

Little variation was found in the frequency of changing a textbook. On the one hand, the Polish teachers declared that they just changed a coursebook every 1/2/3/4 years (50%) (see Table 29), but, on the other, when asked about the reasons for the change, they frequently pointed to the modification of the structure of final exams specification (40%) (see Table 30). The British teachers, generally, also considered the change in final exams requirements as very important (40%), and they confirmed this in the interviews (90%). The same number of the Polish and British foreign language teachers (10%) reported changing a foreign language textbook every 5/6/7 years. As far as the replies in the *other* category in the questionnaire are concerned (see Table 28), the British teachers either said they did not use a coursebook or they created their own

materials, and the Polish teachers claimed they just used the textbook recommended by their senior colleagues.

Table 29. The frequency of changing a coursebook declared in the interviews.

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Every 1/2/3/4 years	5	50.0	2	20.0
Every 5/6/7 years	1	10.0	1	10.0
Every after more than seven years	0	0.0	1	10.0
When the examination requirements are changed	2	20.0	4	40.0
Other	2	20.0	2	20.0

One slight difference in this respect may be found in the scope of reasons for changing a textbook provided by the teachers in the interviews. The Polish teachers provided a whole range of reasons for changing a coursebook, whereas the British teachers focused mainly on two of them, as Table 30 reveals. To be more specific, as many as 50% of Polish teachers reported that they changed the foreign language textbook since a better one was needed and 40% opted for such a decision because the final examination specification/requirements changed. In comparison, the majority of the British foreign language teachers reported changing the textbook when the specification of the examination board is the prompt for a change in the coursebook (90%). A conclusion could thus be drawn that Polish teachers are more likely to take more general factors into account whereas the British teachers seem to concentrate mainly on the final examinations. A possible explanation could be that the Polish teachers, consequently, may concentrate on more general aspects of foreign language teaching and British teachers may be more final examinations oriented. However, hardly any teachers pointed to the reasons for changing a foreign language textbook that are often mentioned by specialists, such as that a new coursebook would facilitate learning all the basic language skills and abilities better (Komorowska 2002: 40). Also, the teachers did not mention changing the foreign language textbook because of new academic and research trends (Waters 2011: 311). Only 10% of both Polish and British teachers seemed to practise *audience-based* perspective (Waters 2011: 311) when providing criteria of choosing a textbook.

Table 30. The reasons for changing a coursebook declared in the interviews (each teacher could provide more than one reason).

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Out of date content	3	30.0	4	40.0
The final exam specification/requirements changed	4	40.0	9	90.0
Boring for students/teachers	2	20.0	0	0.0
Generally a better one was needed	5	50.0	0	0.0
Not suitable level for students	1	10.0	1	10.0

The Polish and the British upper secondary school teachers did not greatly vary in the criteria they applied when assessing the usefulness of a coursebook, which was revealed after the analysis of the interview data (see Table 31) and the outcomes of the questionnaires (see Table 32). However, more differences could be found in the interview data, which can be explained by the fact that when talking spontaneously the teachers could express their ideas more freely (see Table 31). For both groups the need to comply with legal regulations were almost equally important (50% of the Polish foreign language teachers at the end 40% of the British foreign language teachers). However, more Polish teachers highlighted the fact that the textbook had to follow the national curriculum (ca. 30%) and it should comply with final exams requirements (ca. 10%), which is also recommended by some scholars (Hedge 2008: 358; Komorowska 2002: 42). In the same vein, it was of greater importance for the Polish teachers (40%) that the coursebook was accompanied by additional materials and had a clear layout (30%). By contrast, the British teachers emphasised the need to adjust the level of a textbook (60% vs. 20%), which is in line with the recommendations of specialists (Cunningsworth 1984: 5; Harmer 2002: 301; Hedge 2008: 358; Komorowska 2002: 38) as well the need for the coursebook to be interesting for students (ca. 10%).

Table 31. The criteria of assessing the usefulness of a coursebook declared in the interviews (each teacher could provide more than one criterion).

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
In accordance with final exams requirements	5	50.0	4	40.0
Follows the national curriculum	4	40.0	1	10.0
Provides additional materials	4	40.0	0	0.0
Clear layout	3	30.0	1	10.0
Accessible level for students	2	20.0	6	60.0
Facilitates better exam results	1	10.0	2	20.0
Interesting for students/teachers	0	0.0	1	10.0
Consulting a specialist e.g. during conferences	1	10.0	0	0.0

As regards the criteria of assessing the usefulness of a foreign language coursebook, almost no differences were found in the results of the questionnaires. The data presented in Table 32 reveal that slightly more British teachers (ca. 12.4%) reported making sure that the textbook is suitable for students with different learning strategies, a procedure which is emphasised by Komorowska (2002: 42) and Ur (2002: 186). In the same vein, ca. 13.7% more Polish teachers took steps to ascertain that the coursebook followed some theoretical recommendations (Harmer 2002: 301; Komorowska 2002: 42; Ur 2002: 186) and includes supplementary teaching materials for students/teachers. Moreover, slightly more Polish teachers (ca. 10.8%) reported following the guidelines (Harmer 2002: 301; Komorowska 2002: 42; Tomlinson 1998: 299; Ur 2002: 186) of assessing a foreign language textbook with regard to an attractive layout and design. Some British teachers added that a varied and authentic range of vocabulary and legal regulations were taken into account when deciding which new coursebook to choose. No statistically significant difference between the Polish and British foreign language teachers in this respect was confirmed in the analysis, as seen from the results of the Pearson's Chi-square test ($X^2 = 3.647$; $df = 5$; $p = 0.601$).

Table 32. The criteria of assessing the usefulness of a coursebook declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one reply).

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Clear layout	26	78.8	17	68.0
Supplement teaching materials e.g. interactive CD	23	69.7	14	56.0
Supplement materials for teachers e.g. teacher's book	23	69.7	16	64.0
Facilitates better exam results	31	93.9	22	88.0
Suitable for students with different learning strategies	21	63.6	19	76.0
Other	0	0.0	2	8.0

The Polish and British teachers differed greatly in the frequency of their use of a textbook during their lessons, which was confirmed by the outcomes of lesson observations. As shown in Table 33, the Polish teachers used a coursebook more frequently than the British teachers, who actually almost never (85%) used it during the observed classes. This should not come as a surprise since during the interviews the British teachers often commented on not using a textbook at all or using it together with some supplementary materials, also complaining about the overall bad quality of the coursebooks which were available for them. In the interviews, the British teachers also reported that they preferred to create their own materials or to glean resources from several different

textbooks. A possible explanation is that since Polish foreign language teachers rely on the textbook to a great extent the bigger number of copies is sold in Poland. As a consequence, the competition on the publishing market may be very high, which forces the publishers to provide the best overall quality. This in turn, again, encourages Polish foreign language teachers to rely on the coursebook. By contrast, in England, the choice of coursebooks is limited to a few titles approved by the examination boards, which makes them appropriate but not very encouraging for the teachers. For example, when the researcher compared the content of the foreign language coursebook from Polish and English secondary school, even after a very brief and superficial examination, she was able to recognise the textbook used in Poland because it was more elaborate and sophisticated. Another possible explanation may be that the Polish teachers appreciated more the fact that foreign language coursebooks are prepared by specialists, their usefulness is verified in pilot studies and their contents are closely reflective of the national curriculum and exam requirements (Cunningsworth 1984: 1; Harmer 2002: 304; Ur 2002: 184). On the other hand, the British teachers may pay more attention to the consequences of excessive reliance on a coursebook, such as limiting teacher's creativity (Cunningsworth 1984: 1; Harmer 2002: 304; Tomlinson 1998: 298; Ur 2002: 185) and the danger of not addressing the specific needs, interests, abilities and learning strategies of a wide range of students (Fenner 200: 78; Ur 2002: 185).

Table 33. The frequency of the use of a coursebook observed during a lesson.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Very often (more than 6 times during one lesson)	0	0.0	0	0.0
Often (5-6 times)	18	62.1	1	5.0
Rarely (3-4 times)	2	6.9	2	10.0
Very rarely (1-2 times)	2	6.9	0	0.0
Never	7	24.1	17	85.0

Considering the fact that during 85% of the observed foreign language lessons in the English upper secondary schools the textbook was never used, it should not come as a surprise that there were further differences related to the stages of the lessons when a coursebook was used, which was discovered during the lesson observations. The quantitative analysis presented in Table 34 shows clearly that not only was a coursebook used more frequently during foreign language lessons in the Polish upper secondary schools

but also that it was used during stages of the lesson. For example, the foreign language coursebook was used when doing grammar and/or lexical activities (34.4% of all the observed lessons); it was also used during the revision stage of the lesson and/or homework (27.5%), during the presentation stage of the lesson (20.7%), for performing reading tasks (24.1%), listening tasks (17.2%), speaking activities (17.2%), and finally writing tasks (10.3%). On the other hand, in the few cases when it was used in English upper secondary schools, the coursebook, was mainly used for listening tasks (10% of all the observed lessons), grammar and/or vocabulary exercises (5% of all the observed lessons) and speaking activities (5% of all the observed lessons).

Table 34 The stages of the lessons to which a coursebook was used – the results of the lesson observations.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Listening tasks	5	17.2	2	10.0
Grammar and/or lexical exercises	10	34.4	1	5.0
Speaking activities	5	17.2	1	5.0
Reading tasks	7	24.1	0	0.0
Revision and/or homework	8	27.5	0	0.0
Presentation	6	20.7	0	0.0
Writing tasks	3	10.3	0	0.0

In the light of what was said above, it should not be surprising that the students' reactions to the use of a coursebook were more varied in Polish upper secondary schools than in England (see Table 35). More specifically, in the observed lessons, the textbook was used so infrequently that it is difficult to draw conclusions about students' reactions to it, which might confirm that the British teachers' complaints, made during the interviews with the researcher, about insufficient quality of the foreign language coursebooks, were justified. On the other hand, Polish students seemed to be focused and involved while working with a coursebook (69%), they were also active and cooperative while discussing the issues it covered (20.7%), and they were also interested and followed the teacher's instructions (10.3%).

Table 35. Students' reactions to the use of a coursebook observed during the foreign language lessons.

	Polish students		English students	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Interested	3	10.3	0	0.0
Focused and involved	20	69.0	3	15.0
Active and cooperative	6	20.7	0	0.0

Another area of difference related to the use of a foreign language textbook was that the British teachers declared in the questionnaires that they created their own teaching materials/aids (100%) (see Table 36). This finding may be attributed to the fact that the British teachers constitute more centralized foreign languages teams, where teachers cooperate regularly and closely with each other. However, the economic factor cannot be excluded since English upper secondary schools seem to have more funds which can be allotted to create a number of quite expensive booklets. As for the Polish teachers, only some of them (37.5%) reported creating their own materials as a foreign languages team, however, the majority of them (53.1%) did not create their own teaching materials at all or they did it only occasionally. The existence of statistically significant differences in this respect was confirmed by the results of the Pearson's Chi-square test ($X^2 = 33.670$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.000$).

Table 36. The teachers' declarations from the questionnaires about creating their own teaching materials.

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Yes, definitely	1	3.1	17	68.0
Yes, partly	12	37.5	8	32.0
No, partly	13	40.6	0	0.0
No, definitely	4	12.5	0	0.0
I don't have an opinion	2	6.2	0	0.0

The above finding was confirmed by the results of lesson observations and some quantitative analysis of the data. During the majority of the foreign language lessons in the English upper secondary schools the teachers employed their own originally created materials, such as booklets made by a teacher or the members of the foreign language teacher team (40% of all the observed lessons) or photocopied materials, such as those used for reading comprehension tasks (40% of all the observed lessons). As can be seen from Table 37, the Polish teachers relied mainly on activity books which were an addition to the regular textbook (20.7% of all the observed lessons) as well as photocopied materials, such as additional lexical or grammar tasks (10.3% of the all observed lessons) as a source of additional instructional activities.

Table 37. The use of additional teaching materials during the foreign language lessons.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
A booklet made by a teacher/foreign languages team	0	0.0	8	40.0
Photocopied materials	3	10.3	8	40.0
Activity book	6	20.7	0	0.0
Additional materials e.g. authentic materials	1	3.4	0	0.0

Although some differences between the Polish and British teachers were found regarding the use of a coursebook, there is no direct evidence that high or low reliance on the textbook has a positive or negative effect on the effectiveness of instruction. An attempt to gauge the potential impact of the use of a textbook on the quality of foreign language teaching will be discussed in the subsequent chapter.

5.1.6. Forms of student assessment

Forms of classroom assessment were investigated by means of questionnaires, interviews with foreign language teachers and lesson observations. To be more specific, the research focused on comparing what examples of *formal* versus *informal*, *formative* versus *summative* assessment were used in the Polish and English upper secondary schools. Moreover, the research project investigated what other forms of assessment described in the literature were employed by the Polish and British foreign language teachers.

The analysis of the questionnaire responses revealed some differences with regard to forms of students' assessment. To start with, between 97% and 100% of the Polish teachers claimed they used mainly three forms of students' assessment, namely grades given for the mastery of material covered from 1-3 lessons, test grades, and term grades. As illustrated in Table 38 students' assessment in the English upper secondary schools appeared to be more varied and included grading following tests (84%) most frequently and the least frequently grades based on evaluation of projects (4%). On the other hand, other forms of assessment in the English upper secondary schools were evenly distributed. For instance, 52% of the British teachers reported the use of student's self-assessment, 48% pointed to descriptive assessment of students' particular

skills, and 36% indicated term grades. By contrast, the Polish teacher participants reported the use of grades in evaluating projects (21.2%), student's self-assessment (9.1%), and descriptive assessment of specific learner skills (6.1%). Statistical analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the two groups in forms of students' assessment the teachers declared in the questionnaires ($X^2 = 60.852$; $df = 6$; $p = 0.000$). On the whole, it can be concluded that the British teachers used more varied forms of assessment while the Polish counterparts adhered to the three main types.

As far as other forms of assessment are concerned, the Polish teachers mentioned students' *active participation* during the lesson and *marks for essays*, knowledge of *vocabulary*, giving *speeches* on particular topics, and grammar or culture topic *presentations* whereas the British teachers included *college review data* that was given to parents, *grades for past papers* and *mock exams*, *diagnostic tests*, *descriptions of students' strong and weak points including targets for improvement* and also *marks for particular skills*. As far as the official terminology is concerned, the most popular forms of assessment in Poland reported by the teachers in the questionnaires were examples of *formal assessment*, such as term grades, grades given for the mastery of material covered from 1-3 lessons, and also grades in tests. Moreover, the Polish teachers used some forms of *formative assessment*, for example, grades in the foreign language course covering material from 1-3 lessons and grades in tests as well as some forms of *summative assessment*, for instance, term grades. In addition, *self-assessment* and *alternative assessment* was declared. By contrast, in the English upper secondary schools *formal*, *formative* and *summative* forms of assessment seemed to be less frequently used. On the other hand, in the English upper secondary schools foreign language teachers reported frequent use of *achievement assessment*, for example, descriptive assessment of students' particular skills and *self assessment*.

Table 38. Forms of students' assessment declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one form).

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Grades in the foreign language course covering material from 1-3 lessons	32	97.0	5	20.0
Term grades	33	100.0	9	36.0
Grades in tests	32	97.0	21	84.0
Descriptive assessment of students' particular skills	2	6.1	12	48.0
Grades in projects	7	21.2	1	4.0
Self-assessment	3	9.1	13	52.0
Other	2	6.1	12	48.0

Further light was shed on assessment when teachers were asked in the interview about the forms of students' assessment: they most frequently drew upon different examples from those included in questionnaires. Both the British and the Polish teachers confirmed they used different forms of marks/grades and/or points, for example, test grades/points, partial grades for checking the ongoing progress, this confirmed what had been said in the questionnaires. However, many more Polish teachers claimed that they used comments and/or descriptive forms of assessment, which constituted ca. 53.9% in comparison with the replies in the questionnaires. The participants explained that comments and descriptive assessment consisted in informing students about their strong and weak points and offering guidelines for directions for improvement. One possible explanation for the disparity concerning the outcomes of the questionnaires and interviews could be that only during the face-to-face interview did the participants realize that the descriptive forms of assessment were not limited to the written accounts. In addition, as many as 70% of the Polish teachers mentioned praising their students, which they did not include in the questionnaire responses (see Table 39), as well as a contract with students (10%). Other forms of assessment the teachers reported were diplomas in Poland and students' self-assessment and external assessment in England. An equal number of Polish and British foreign language teachers declared the use of formal means of assessment, such as marks/grades/points. Interestingly, in contrast with the outcomes of the questionnaires, more Polish teachers declared the use of informal means of assessment such as comments and/or praises. By contrast, in England, self-assessment was mentioned more often than in Poland. At this point, the importance of self-assessment must be highlighted since it fosters taking responsibility for students' own learning, which is the notion of becoming independent learners.

Table 39 Forms of students' assessment declared in the interview.

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Mark/grade/points	10	100.0	10	100.0
Comment/description	6	60.0	4	40.0
Praise	7	70.0	2	20.0
Contract with students	1	10.0	0	0.0
Other	1	10.0	5	50.0

Much more variation with respect to the forms of students' assessment was revealed during the lesson observations. As can be seen from Table 40, the students were assessed in different ways during foreign language lessons. A somewhat surprising finding was that more Polish teachers assessed students non-verbally (72.4% of all the observed lessons) and they were also more likely to give marks (24.1% of all the observed lessons). On the other hand, it was the British teachers who used informal ways of students' assessment, such as thanking students for their contributions (5% of all the observed lessons), and they also commented on students' performance more often than the Polish teachers (ca. 14.8%). On the whole, the lesson observations revealed that Polish teachers did not confine themselves to the three main forms of assessment they had declared in the questionnaires but actually used a wide range of ways of assessing their students while the British teachers again proved to use a varied range of forms of students' assessment. This discrepancy can probably be explained by the fact that Polish teachers officially confine assessment to very formal situations where students' knowledge is checked in a systematic and planned way (Brown 2004: 6), but in practice they also assess students' in an unplanned and informal way (Brown 2004: 5). By contrast, the British teachers were more relaxed about assessing students and they were more aware that learners could be assessed in many different situations, not necessarily formal ones (Brown 2004: 5).

Table 40. The forms of students' assessment observed in the foreign language lessons.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Comments	16	55.2	14	70.0
Non-verbally	21	72.4	6	30.0
Individual talk with a student	1	3.4	3	15.0
Short comments	9	31.0	9	45.0
Praises	16	55.2	9	45.0
Thanking students for good performance	0	0.0	1	5.0
Giving marks	7	24.1	0	0.0
Not observed	0	0.0	1	5.0

There was some individual variation between the two groups with regard to the frequency of students' assessment during foreign language lessons, but the differences in this respect failed to reach statistical significance. As illustrated in Table 41, generally, both Polish and British teachers assessed their students frequently. The highest frequency for the Polish group was *often* (75.9% of all the observed lessons), whereas the frequency within the English group was evenly distributed between very often (40% of all the observed lessons), often (30% of all the observed lessons) and quite often (25% of all the observed lessons). During 5% of the all observed lessons in English upper secondary schools no form of assessment was observed. On the whole, the frequency of assessment was similar and the individual variation did not influence the overall frequency. Both the Polish and British teachers seemed to follow pedagogical recommendations regarding the regularity of assessment, which increases the effectiveness of assessment (Hunt 2001: 153).

Table 41. The frequency of students' assessment observed in the foreign language lessons.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Very often (more than 8 times during one lesson)	4	13.8	8	40.0
Often (7-8 times)	22	75.9	6	30.0
Quite often (5-6 times)	3	10.3	5	25.0
Rarely (3-4 times)	0	0.0	0	0.0
Occasionally (1-2 times)	0	0.0	0	0.0
Never	0	0.0	1	5.0

No difference was found in the students' reactions to being assessed either in Poland or in England (see Table 42). In both cases, they seemed to be almost equally positive about being assessed (89.7% in the Polish upper secondary schools vs. 85% in the

English upper secondary schools), while more Polish students appeared to be more motivated and encouraged (ca. 27.4% in all the observed lessons, see Table 42). This indicates that evaluation evoked similar learners' reactions in Polish and English upper secondary schools. It can be concluded that the forms of student assessment applied during the observed foreign language lessons gave both the Polish and British students some positive feedback, for example praising them, which is important in increasing students' motivation (Chater 1984: 6-7; Hunt 2001: 153; Kunnan and Jang 2011: 615).

Table 42. The observed students' reactions to being assessed.

	Polish students		British students	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Positively ⁷⁰	26	89.7	17	85.0
Motivated and encouraged ⁷¹	21	72.4	9	45.0
Not observed	0	0.0	1	5.0

Finally, 90% of both Polish and British teachers considered the range of forms of students' assessment to be sufficient. As shown in Table 43, both Polish (60%) and British (50%) teachers justified the need for assessment by students' understanding of their strong and weak points. Finally 10% of both Polish and British teachers declared that the existing forms of students' assessment were not sufficient and they justified this opinion by saying that students did not understand their strong and weak points regarding foreign language knowledge sufficiently and more diverse forms of assessment ought to be developed in the future (10% of the Polish teachers and 30% of the British teachers).

Table 43. The teachers' explanations given in the interviews why they thought the existing forms of assessment were sufficient.

	Polish teachers		British teachers	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Students understand and know their strong and weak points	6	60.0	5	50.0
Students do not complain	1	10.0	0	0.0
Systematic assessment motivates students	1	10.0	1	10.0
Some more ways of assessment should be developed	1	10.0	3	30.0

The quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data revealed few differences between the two groups of participants in terms of forms of students' assessment. This

⁷⁰ Students smiled, raised hands like winners, contented facial expressions.

⁷¹ Students volunteered frequently during the lesson.

means that the forms of assessment seemed to be the least controversial and most similar in comparison with the other eight aspects of foreign language teaching that were investigated in the course of the present research.

5.1.7. Classroom interaction

The aspects of classroom interaction that were investigated in the present study were *control of interaction*, *teacher talk/speech modification*, *elicitation* and *repair* (Walsh 2011: 4). Some significant differences between the Polish and the British teachers were revealed in terms of proportions of controlling⁷² interaction during the foreign language lessons. Interestingly, none of the British teachers reported complete teacher's control of the interaction in the foreign language classroom and no Polish teachers declared that the control was evenly divided between students and teachers. As many as 54.5% of the Polish teachers stated that a teacher mostly controlled the interactions while 44% of the British teachers declared that it was half-and-half students' and teacher's control (see Table 44). The Pearson's Chi-square test revealed some significant differences between the perceptions of Polish and British teachers in the proportions of controlling the interaction during lessons ($X^2 = 15.665$; $df = 5$; $p = 0.007$). One plausible explanation for this discrepancy could be that the Polish and British teachers seemed to use different teaching techniques and teaching aids, as was revealed in the previous section, which might have resulted in differences in the proportions of controlling interaction. However, the impact of cultural differences between the two groups might have been responsible for the more formal behaviour on the part of the Polish teachers. As the researcher observed, there were some native speaker teachers from the Mediterranean area (Spain, Italy, Greece) in the British sixth form colleges who seemed to be very open, relaxed and spontaneous with respect to classroom interaction. The results regarding the Polish teachers are in accordance with what Walsh (2011: 4) has found with respect to the proportions of controlling classroom interaction, namely that it is the teacher who mainly manages teacher and learner control over classroom interaction and aspects of

⁷² The researcher understands the term *controlling language interactions* accordingly to Walsh's definition (2011: 4), as defining who manages particular stages of the foreign language lesson and who gives instructions about how to manage particular tasks.

the foreign language lesson. Observations in England, however, showed that foreign language classrooms in the English upper secondary schools seemed to be more decentralised with a greater frequency of students' leading and controlling interaction.

Table 44. The proportions of controlling the interaction during the foreign language lesson declared in the questionnaires.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Full teacher's control	8	24.2	0	0.0
Mostly teacher's control	18	54.5	9	36.0
Half-and-half students' and teacher's control	6	18.2	11	44.0
Mostly students' control	0	0.0	3	12.0
Full students' control	0	0.0	1	4.0
No opinion	1	3.0	1	4.0

The findings described above were partly supported by the results of the lessons observations. For example, it was confirmed that more Polish teachers fully or mostly controlled the interaction⁷³ during the lesson under investigation (ca. 23.6%), but on the other hand, no cases of entire learner control could be observed (see Table 45). On the whole, during the foreign language lessons in the English upper secondary schools sometimes teachers and sometimes students controlled the interaction (65%) and in Poland it was teachers who mainly controlled the interaction (58.6%). Interestingly, although only 18.2% of the Polish teachers (see Table 44) reported in the questionnaire half-and-half students' and teacher's control of the interaction, in practice it was observed during as many as 41.4% of all the observed lessons. One possible explanation for this discrepancy could be that the Polish teachers might associate the students' control of the interaction with disciplinary problems and, hence, their responses suggested greater formal teacher control than was observed.

⁷³ The researcher understands the term *controlling language interactions* accordingly to Walsh's definition (2011: 4), as defining who manages particular stages of the foreign language lesson and who gives instructions about how to manage particular tasks.

Table 45. The proportions of controlling the interaction observed during the foreign language lessons.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Teacher's control ⁷⁴	17	58.6	7	35.0
Students' control ⁷⁵	0	0.0	0	0.0
Half-and-half students' and teacher's control	12	41.4	13	65.0

Both Polish and British teachers declared in the interview that they used teacher talk/speech modification and some forms of body language as a teaching aid, which was confirmed by the results of the lesson observations. More specifically, there were similar frequencies of tone of voice (34.4% of the Polish teachers and 35% of the British teachers), gestures (37.9% of the Polish teachers and 40% of the British teachers), facial expressions (20.6% of the Polish teachers and 25% of the British teachers) and other forms of body language as a teaching aid during the observed lessons (see Table 46). This might indicate that both the Polish and the British teachers consider the importance of using the teacher talk/speech modification and body language as a teaching aid as very important in the classroom discourse. In accordance with Walsh's views (2011: 6), they seem to understand that these elements of classroom discourse facilitate learners' understanding of input during the foreign language lesson and make students feel secure and more active during the successive lesson stages.

Table 46. The types of speech modification and body language of the foreign language teachers observed during the lessons.

	Polish upper secondary teachers		British upper secondary teachers	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Tone of voice	10	34.4	7	35.0
Gestures	11	37.9	8	40.0
Facial expressions	6	20.6	5	25.0
Other	2	6.8	1	5.0

The analysis, however, revealed a few interesting differences related to the range of the observed situations when the teachers used teacher talk/speech modification and/or body language as a teaching aid (see Table 47). The most frequent situation when teacher talk/speech modification and/or body language was used, was to manifest emphasis on important elements of the lesson in Poland, for instance by raising the

⁷⁴ More than 50% of all language situations during the lesson.

⁷⁵ More than 50% of all language situations during the lesson.

voice tone (75%) and to show approval in England, for example by nodding the teacher's head (70%). More Polish teachers used such actions to indicate an error, for instance by specific facial expression (ca. 20.7% of all the observed lessons) and to praise students, for example by clapping hands (ca. 14.1% of all the observed lessons). On the other hand, during ca. 18.6% more lessons in England, the teachers used voice modification or body language to illustrate the meaning of the word or situation by making imitating gestures. During ca. 14.7% more lessons in England teachers attracted students' attention by changing the voice pitch and during ca. 16.6% more lessons in England teachers used it to show support or interest in students' activities by looking inventively into students' eyes and nodding their heads. Furthermore, a greater number of British teachers (ca. 16.7% of all the observed lessons) used gestures to encourage students, for example, to continue making contributions during speaking activities. In the same vein, more British teachers (ca. 4.7% of all the observed lessons) employed, for instance, a special tone of voice to create an inspirational atmosphere during the lesson, and more of them (ca. 6.6% of all the observed lessons) raised their voice in order to discipline students. On the whole, although the Polish and British teachers used teacher talk/speech modification and/or body language as a teaching aid with similar frequencies, the purpose for which this was done was different. Generally, however, the behaviour of teachers in this respect reflected findings reported in the literature, where the teacher talk/speech modification and body language is shown to be used in order to help students understand the message, follow smoothly the particular stages of the lesson, make students feel secure and encourage them to join the classroom discourse (Walsh 2011: 6).

Table 47. The observed situations when the speech modification and/or body language was used.

	Polish upper secondary teachers		British upper secondary teachers	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
To illustrate the meaning	12	41.4	12	60.0
To show approval	19	65.5	14	70.0
To encourage	14	48.3	13	65.0
To put emphasis	22	75.9	13	65.0
To catch students' attention	3	10.3	5	25.0
To show support /interest	1	3.4	4	20.0
To praise students	7	24.1	2	10.0
To create a special atmosphere	3	10.3	3	15.0
To discipline students	1	3.4	2	10.0
To indicate errors/mistakes	6	20.7	0	0.0

The analysis of the interview data concerning the range of situations when the teacher talk/speech modification and/or body language was used as a teaching aid casts further light on the results described above. The teachers listed some more examples of the situations than those observed and there were no important differences between the two groups in nominal values (see Table 48). For example, 10% of the Polish participants reported employing speech modification and/or body language to make the content of the lesson more varied. The teachers explained that by raising their tone, changing voice pitch or using gestures they added some additional elements that enriched the content of the lesson. The same number of the Polish and the British teachers (10%) spoke more loudly in order to be more audible. 30% of the British participants reported that they consciously used gestures, facial expressions and/or speech modification so as to create the desired emotions. Such a discrepancy between the outcomes of the lesson observations and the responses in the interviews can be an illustration of the complexity of communication and, in some cases, the use of a particular gesture has a variety of results. Moreover, in live teaching situations, reactions are often spontaneous and not pre-mediated.

Table 48. The range of situations when teachers used speech modification and/or body language declared during the interview.

	Polish upper secondary teachers		British upper secondary teachers	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Changing intonation to catch students' attention	6	60.0	5	50.0
To make the lesson varied	1	10.0	0	0.0
To praise a student	2	20.0	3	30.0
To point out an error/mistake	2	20.0	1	10.0
To be more audible	1	10.0	1	10.0
To discipline students	1	10.0	0	0.0
To show certain emotions	0	0.0	3	30.0

There was little difference between the Polish and English upper secondary schools with regard to the students' reactions to the use of teacher talk/speech modification and/or body language as a teaching aid. As Table 49 indicates, more Polish students seemed to be focused when exposed to such teaching aids (ca. 14.1% of all the observed lessons) and they also seemed to react generally in a more positive way (ca. 11.4% of all the observed lessons). By contrast, more British students seemed to understand the teacher's intentions (ca. 18.6%). Slightly more Polish students seemed to be interested

and sustained eye contact or listened to the teacher attentively (ca. 3.4%) and focused on him/her (10.3% vs. 10%). On the other hand, a somewhat greater number of the British students expressed that they were happy to be called upon by the teacher (ca. 5%) and they seemed more entertained (ca. 6.6%). Such findings seem to confirm the list of advantages of using teacher talk/speech modification and/or body language which was presented by Walsh (2011: 6).

Table 49. Students' reactions to being exposed to speech modification and/or body language observed during the foreign language lessons.

	Polish students		British students	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Interested ⁷⁶	1	3.4	0	0.0
Focused and involved ⁷⁷	7	24.1	2	10.0
Understand the teacher's intentions ⁷⁸	12	41.4	12	60.0
Positively motivated ⁷⁹	12	41.4	6	30.0
Entertained ⁸⁰	1	3.4	2	10.0
Happy to be noticed ⁸¹	0	0.0	1	5.0
Focused on the teacher ⁸²	3	10.3	2	10.0

As can be seen from Table 50, one of the major differences between the types of interactions observed during oral elicitation in the Polish and English upper secondary schools was the distribution of general positive interactions (see Footnote 83). To be more specific, the incidence of such phenomena during questioning exchanges was ca. 41.2% higher for the British upper secondary schools, standing at 55.0%. Another difference between the two groups could be found in the distribution of interactions that generated an inspirational atmosphere (see Footnote 86), with this being the cause of 55.2% during the total number of foreign language lessons in Poland and 40.0% during the total number of lessons conducted in England. Other types of interactions during elicitation were similar in both groups. More precisely, 10% of the British and 6.9% of the Polish students asked questions in order to clarify the instruction or learn more about the issue, 5% of the British students seemed to be nervous (see Footnote 84) during oral elicitation, and 41.4% of the Polish and 35% of the British students felt secure

⁷⁶ Students sustain eye contact and listen attentively.

⁷⁷ Students not only concentrate on the teacher but also ask additional questions, discuss the issues or make comments.

⁷⁸ Students understand the teacher's intentions and react accordingly.

⁷⁹ Students volunteer more often.

⁸⁰ Students are amused.

⁸¹ Students' facial expressions show that they are happy they were picked by the teacher.

⁸² Students maintain eye contact with the teacher.

(see Footnote 85) when the teacher nominated them during the lesson. It would thus appear that both the Polish and the British foreign language teachers use appropriate elicitation techniques in order to make learners respond in a positive way (Walsh 2011: 11-12).

Table 50. Types of interactions during elicitation observed during foreign language lessons.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Positive ⁸³	4	13.8	11	55.0
Students ask questions or ask for clarification	2	6.9	2	10.0
Students are nervous ⁸⁴	0	0.0	1	5.0
Students feel secure ⁸⁵	12	41.4	7	35.0
Inspirational atmosphere ⁸⁶	16	55.2	8	40.0

The analysis of the ways in which errors/mistakes were corrected also revealed some differences between the Polish and English upper secondary schools. As shown in Table 51, although the ways of correcting students' errors were distributed quite evenly among the English upper secondary schools, more British teachers gave hints and waited for the student's self-correction (65.0% of the total number of lessons in England), more of them evoked the rules and let the student provide the correct utterance (40% of the total number of foreign language lessons observed in England), more decided to terminate a student's performance because it was very poor (15.0% of the total number of lessons in England). On the other hand, the Polish teachers displayed a tendency to provide the correct answer (65.0% of all the lessons observed in Poland), they also frequently gave hints and waited for the student's self-correction (44.8% of all the lessons observed in the Polish upper secondary schools) and they waited for student's self-correction without giving him or her any hints (31.0% of all the observed lessons in Poland). Interestingly, during a similar percentage of lessons both in Poland and England students were encouraged to correct their peers (25% of all the observed lessons in Poland and 24.1% of all the observed lessons in England). Similarly, during 15% of all the observed lessons in England and 13.8% of all the observed lessons in Poland, teachers and students were observed to negotiate the correctness of the utterance. One possi-

⁸³ Both a student and a teacher do not show any tension.

⁸⁴ Students are shy and withdrawn.

⁸⁵ Students look relaxed and they positively react when the teacher turns to them.

⁸⁶ Students look stimulated by the teacher's performance and actively participate in the lesson.

ble explanation why the British teachers were more willing to encourage students to engage in self-correction might be the fact that foreign language lessons were longer than lessons in Poland. As a consequence, the Polish teachers were under more pressure to achieve all lesson goals and they could not afford to spend too much time waiting for the students to provide the correct answer. On the whole, both the Polish and British teachers were found to apply the corrective options recommended by researchers such as Harmer (2002: 106), Komorowska (2002: 178) and Ur (2002: 249). It also seems to be important to conclude that the response of English teachers is emphasising the need for students to take responsibility for their learning by self-critical and self-correcting whereas the Polish teachers seemed more ready to provide the correct answer.

Table 51. The ways of correcting students' errors/mistake observed during the foreign language lessons.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Teacher gives hints and waits for the student's own correction	13	44.8	13	65.0
Teacher makes notes and discusses the student's performance afterwards	1	3.4	3	15.0
Teacher stops the student's production	0	0.0	3	15.0
Teacher reminds the rules and the student produces the correct utterance	4	13.8	8	40.0
Teacher provides the correct answer	18	62.1	11	55.0
Students correct other students	7	24.1	5	25.0
Teacher-student discussion	4	13.8	3	15.0
Student's self-correction	9	31.0	4	20.0
No corrections during the lesson	1	3.4	2	10.0

Somewhat surprisingly, no major differences were found when analysing who finally made the correction. In the vast majority of cases, it was the foreign language teacher who made corrections most frequently (96.6% of all the observed lessons in Poland, and 90% of all the observed lessons in England) (see Table 52). One plausible explanation of that fact may be that the teachers wanted the correction to be immediate, unambiguously interpreted by the rest of the group and economical as far as the timing is concerned (Komorowska 2002: 177). Slightly more Polish foreign language students (ca. 9.5%) were likely to attempt self-correction while a similar number of the Polish and the British students corrected each other (24.1% of all the observed lessons in Poland and 25% of all the observed lessons in England).

Table 52. Who made the corrections during foreign language lessons.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Student-student	7	24.1	5	25.0
Teacher-student	28	96.6	18	90.0
Student's self-correction	10	34.5	5	25.0

In general, the quantitative differences discussed above seem to indicate that the Polish teachers were more likely to control interaction during foreign language lessons. Whilst Polish and the British teachers had similar ideas of the range of situations in which they used teacher talk/speech modification, and/or body language, in practice they differed in observations. Both groups also differed in the distribution of the types of interactions during elicitation and the ways in which errors were corrected. As for similarities, both groups declared unanimously that they used speech modification such as changing and/or raising the voice tone and/or body language as a teaching aid and in both the Polish and English upper secondary schools students reacted in a similar way to being exposed to the teacher's speech modification and/or body language. Finally, the participants in the two groups did not differ in the distribution of who made the final correction. The potential impact of these variations for improving the quality of foreign language teaching will be considered in the conclusion of this dissertation.

5.1.8. Learner autonomy

The aim of this part of the research was to investigate the extent to which attempts are made to foster learner autonomy in the Polish and the British upper secondary schools and to compare the examples of *procedural principles* related to learner autonomy for-foreign language teachers applied in their classrooms. As the analysis of the data showed, the Polish and English upper secondary schools differed greatly as regards taking steps aimed at enhancing learner autonomy. As shows Table 53 considerably more British teachers (88%) were convinced that promoting autonomy was necessary in comparison with 66.6% of the Polish foreign language teachers ($X^2 = 9.856$; $df = 3$; $p = 0.019$).

Table 53. The teachers' declarations regarding whether their students are able to control their own learning process (replies from the questionnaires).

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Yes, definitely	1	3.0	7	28.0
Yes, rather	21	63.6	15	60.0
No, rather	8	24.2	3	12.0
No, definitely	3	9.1	0	0.0
I don't have an opinion	0	0.0	0	0.0

This finding was confirmed by the outcomes of lesson observations where in 80% of the classes students were allowed to make any decisions related to their foreign language learning, which can be contrasted with the fact that such opportunities were observed in 27.5% of the lessons taught by the Polish teachers. However, during face-to-face interviews a very similar number of the Polish (90%) and the British (100%) foreign language teachers were confident that their students knew how to control their foreign language learning process. Such a discrepancy could be explained by the fact that teachers just wanted to present themselves in a favourable way: ie in theory they knew they should encourage learner autonomy but in practice they did not enable it.

The Polish and English participants largely agreed with respect to the steps that could be taken to foster autonomy. Both the Polish (40%) and the British (33.3%) foreign language teachers were of the opinion that they should inform students about any external sources of information such as useful Internet websites (see Table 54); 20% more British teachers thought it important to explain to students how meaningful their own involvement was. A major difference occurred in relation to the encouragement of students to use modern technology devices. The fact that 80% of the Polish teachers and none of the British teachers opted for encouraging students to use modern technology tools can be explained by the fact that since the majority of English classrooms in sixth form colleges are equipped with computers, multimedia projectors, smartboards and other modern technology devices, it is clear that British students use them quite frequently; no further encouragement is needed. Due to insufficient funding, the situation in Polish educational institutions is different. This similarity was confirmed by the Pearson's Chi-square test results ($X^2 = 2.530$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.282$).

Table 54. The teachers' opinions about how to improve learner autonomy (replies from the questionnaires).

	Polish upper secondary teachers		British upper secondary teachers	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Informing students about where to find sources of information	4	40.0	1	33.3
Explaining how important their own involvement is	8	80.0	3	100.0
Encouraging students to use modern technology tools	8	80.0	0	0.0

The major differences between the two groups with respect to examples of stimulating autonomous learner behaviour should not come as a surprise in view of the above findings. Relevant literature provides examples of the ways in which autonomy can be fostered (Benson 2001). For example, this can happen through learners' independent use of learning resources, independent use of learning technologies, development of autonomous learning skills, control over classroom decisions, control over curriculum decisions, and focus on teacher roles and teacher education (Benson 2001: 112). The outcomes of the lesson observations revealed that the teachers did not promote autonomy through giving learners control over curriculum decisions and development of autonomous skills. In what can be regarded as a significant difference, more British students (20% of the lessons) turned out to be responsible for preparing and giving presentations to other foreign language students, a good example being a Power Point presentation on space exploration (see Table 55). Such actions are in accordance with Harmer's (2002: 338) suggestion that providing learners with suitable homework, such that matches their interests and needs may facilitate learner autonomy. Even more British students (55% of the lessons) were informed about additional resources available on the Moodle/Intranet/Internet, an example of the application of *Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)*, which is believed to promote self-directed learning in an authentic context for language learning (Godwin-Jones 2011: 7). It should also be noted that only the British students (15% of the lessons) negotiated some elements of learning processes, such as what was important follow-up to the regular lesson as homework, an example of *procedural* principle, in which learners express their point of view about language learning (Kumaravadi velu 2003: 138). On the other hand, only Polish teachers (3.4% of the lessons) explained the importance of independent learning, which provided students with another *procedural principle*, namely giving

advice and guidance regarding the importance of autonomous language learning (Kumaravadivelu 2003: 138).

Table 55. Examples of situations stimulating students' autonomous behaviour from the foreign language lessons.

	Lessons observed in Polish general upper secondary school		Lessons observed in English sixth forms colleges	
	N (max. 29)	%	N (max. 20)	%
Students are responsible for preparing and giving presentations	1	3.4	4	20
Students are informed about resources on the Moodle/Intranet/Internet	5	17.2	11	55
Teacher negotiates with the students	0	0	3	15
Teacher explains the importance of independent learning	1	3.4	0	0

The existence of major differences in the examples stimulating students' autonomous behaviour was confirmed by the results of the interviews with the foreign language teachers in both groups. As displayed in Table 56, 4 Polish teachers and none of the British teachers thought that their students can make independent decisions about their own learning, which seems to be a surprising result in view of the tendency for the British teachers to encourage more independence. This might relate to differences in interpretation of the question being asked. 7 Polish and 4 British teachers provided *procedural* information about additional resources which could be used independently. For instance, a British teacher mentioned directing students to historic websites such as www.historiasiglo20.org, and another British teacher reported that "When the students first arrive we always take them through the resource centre and show them where everything is"⁸⁷. 5 British and 1 Polish foreign language teachers made a reference to shared materials on Moodle/VLE⁸⁸/Intranet or sent them via email, 5 British but no Polish teachers involved their students in independent learning program. For example, one British teacher explained "...and what we want them to do is to record what they do. So when they apply to university, we can say that they are working independently, which is something which is prized by universities". Additionally, 3 British teachers commented that students are either independent learners or not and one Polish teacher claimed that his/her students did not have any knowledge about how to manifest their independence.

⁸⁷ A direct citation from the interview.

⁸⁸ Virtual Learning Environment

Only one British teacher mentioned the fact that students had access to *self-access facilities* in the school resource centre, where they could find some external support when looking for information (Harmer 2002: 340; Hedge 2008: 96; Illés 2012: 507; Sheerin 1997: 54-55).

Table 56. The examples of learner's autonomy declared by the teachers in the interviews.

	Polish upper secondary school teachers		British upper secondary school teachers	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Exchanges and live contact facilitate autonomy	1	10.0	0	0.0
Independent learning program led by the school	0	0.0	5	50.0
Shared materials on Moodle/VLE/Intranet/email contact	1	10.0	5	50.0
Some students are and some aren't autonomous learners	0	0.0	3	30.0
Students' independent decisions	4	40.0	0	0.0
Teacher provides information as to external sources of information	7	70.0	4	40.0
Students can use school resource centre	0	0.0	1	10.0

5.1.9. Program evaluation

Three aspects of foreign language program evaluation were investigated in this research, namely the parties responsible for program evaluation in the Polish and English upper secondary schools; the procedures it relied on and how the Polish and the British foreign language teachers assessed the usefulness of the existing program evaluation schemes. One area of difference between the Polish and English upper secondary schools was the way in which program evaluation was undertaken, with the details of these differences being presented in Table 57. In the Polish upper secondary schools program evaluation typically took place by teacher's individual actions (62.5%) and a joint work of the whole foreign languages teams (50%) whereas in England 24% of respondents provided other ways of performing program evaluation such as taking part in course forums⁸⁹, head of department/subject responsibility, one teacher responsible for the whole course evaluation plus teachers' self evaluations. Employing course forums

⁸⁹ At course forum British students formally comment upon the teaching they have experienced in order to give as unbiased a view as possible.

as a form of evaluation may constitute another example of students' involvement in the teaching process in England. It relates to learner autonomy, that is giving the students a voice. The differences in this respect were statistically significant, as shown in the Pearson's Chi-square test results ($X^2 = 6.973$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.030$) Such variances can be also noted from Fig. 3 which also confirms the above finding.

Table 57. The ways of performing program evaluation declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one way).

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Each foreign teacher individually	20	62.5	15	60.0
Joint work of the whole foreign languages team	16	50.0	13	52.0
other	0	0.0	6	24.0

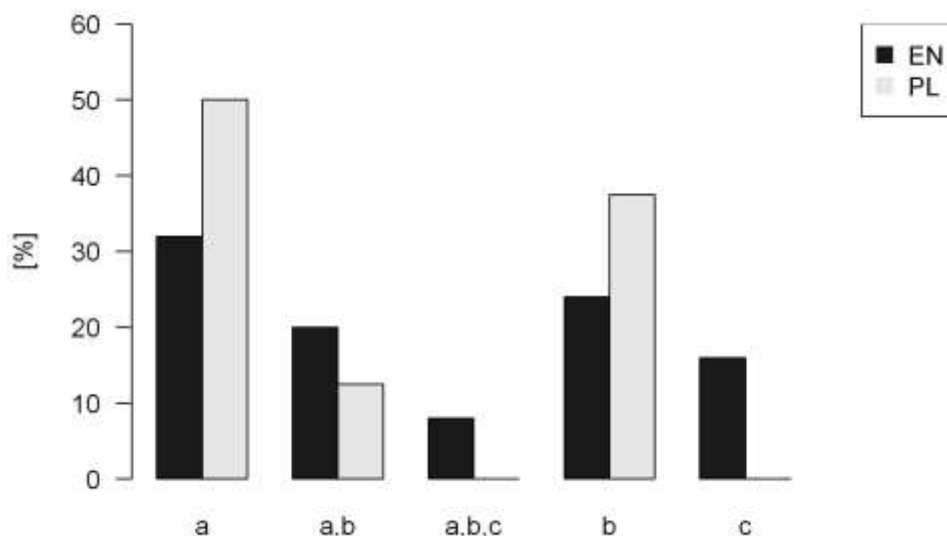


Fig. 3. Crosstabulation for the ways of performing program evaluation declared in the questionnaires.

The above finding was also corroborated by the results of the interviews with teachers. More British teachers indicated performing evaluation within foreign languages teacher teams (ca. 30%), and more of them mentioned the possibility of relying on learner's evaluation of the foreign language course (ca. 50%). Furthermore, more British teachers reported that program evaluation was conducted by a person or people at school selected by the principal (ca. 20%) (see Table 58). On very few occasions was

it the principalship⁹⁰ who were responsible for performing program evaluation at school (see Table 58). It turned out that learners were not taken into consideration when listing the ways of performing of program evaluation in Polish schools, and such an evaluation was never carried out by a single person. On the whole, in both the Polish and the English upper secondary schools *self-evaluation* was the predominant type of program evaluation, which indicates that it was undertaken by the internal bodies of the schools (Olejniczak 2008: 29; Rodrigues-Campos and Rincones-Gomes 2013: 29; Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 23).

Table 58. The ways of performing program evaluation declared in the interviews.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Teachers	8	80.0	7	70.0
Foreign languages teams	3	30.0	6	60.0
Principalship	1	10.0	1	10.0
Learners	0	0.0	5	50.0
Assigned person/people at school	0	0.0	2	20.0

Although the results of the questionnaires did not reveal any statistically significant differences between the Polish and English upper secondary schools in terms of the applied procedures of program evaluation, the outcomes of the interviews offer insights into some interesting disparities. In the first place, a similar number of the Polish and the British foreign language teachers described the procedures of program evaluation as relying on reviewing teaching results and then preparing a development plan for the next year (78.1% in the Polish schools and 80% in the English schools) and/or reviewing the final exams results and only then preparing the development plan for the next year (87.5% in the Polish schools and 88% in the English schools) (see Table 59). Four British teachers provided additional information regarding the procedures of program evaluation, which included an annual evaluation questionnaire for students, up-to-date evaluation and a review with the management team. The statistical analysis did not reveal any significant differences between the Polish and English upper secondary schools in terms of applied procedures of program evaluation declared in the questionnaires ($X^2 = 4.804$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.090$).

⁹⁰ The *Principalship* is the term used in British upper secondary schools which includes the Principal and his or her Deputies.

Different types of program evaluation are subsumed in the above procedures: *process* evaluation (Tołwińska-Królikowska 2010: 24) which concentrates on the ongoing analysis of teaching results; *formative* evaluation (Brzezińska 2000: 38; Gârboan 2009: 56; Green and South 2006: 15) which is performed while the program is still in the use; and *summative* evaluation (Brzezińska 2000: 38; Ciężka 2005: 6); Gârboan 2009: 56) where final exam results are reviewed, a development plan for the next year is prepared.

Table 59. The procedures of performing program evaluation declared in the questionnaires (each teacher could choose more than one procedure).

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 33)	%	N (max. 25)	%
Teaching results are reviewed, and the development plan for the next year is prepared	25	78.1	20	80.0
Final exams results are reviewed, and the development plan for the next year is prepared	28	87.5	22	88.0
Other	0	0.0	4	16.0

Although the questionnaire included an option allowing teachers to provide additional answers, the participants provided only a few additional pieces of information about how programs were evaluated in their schools. In the interviews, however, both the Polish and the British teachers described additional schemes which provided some interesting differences. The data presented in Table 60 reveal that in the Polish schools diagnostic tests were sometimes administered, the results of which were analysed and served as a basis for conclusions (30%). The teachers explained that the first year students were given language tests and after the analyses of their results an appropriate coursebook was chosen and the syllabus was adjusted to the needs of a particular group. The teachers also reported performing subject program evaluation which took place at the end of the school year and consisted of assessing what had and had not been achieved during the course (ca. 30% more in the Polish upper secondary schools). 10% of the Polish teachers declared taking the results of mock exams into consideration while performing program evaluation and also 10% of them reported that such evaluation was imposed externally by educational authorities. However, no Polish teachers included students in the procedures of program evaluation in schools. On the other hand, more British teachers (ca. 30%) stated that they engaged in ongoing evaluation and once they identified problems they immediately implement changes in their syllabi.

Table 60. The procedures of performing program evaluation declared in the interviews.

	Polish upper secondary schools		English upper secondary schools	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Diagnostic tests-analysis and conclusions	3	30.0	0	0.0
Ongoing evaluation	2	20.0	5	50.0
Subject program evaluation	5	50.0	2	20.0
Final exams results	2	20.0	3	30.0
Imposed externally	1	10.0	0	0.0
No opinion	1	10.0	1	10.0
Students fill questionnaires	0	0.0	5	50.0
Teachers write a yearly action plan	0	0.0	2	20.0
Mock exams	1	10.0	0	0.0

The majority of the British (90%) and the Polish (80%) teachers had positive attitudes towards the effectiveness of evaluation and only one Polish teacher was not satisfied with the evaluation results and another Polish teacher was not sure whether it had any positive effect or not. However, there were some differences concerning the justification of positive opinions related to the efficiency of program evaluation. As illustrated in Table 61, more Polish teachers (ca. 20%) placed emphasis on higher exam pass rate and overall results (ca. 10%) while more British teachers considered as highly important the possibility of changing their action plan as a consequence (ca. 50%). Also more British teachers appreciated the possibility of discussing issues with students (ca. 20%) thanks to program evaluation. They also cherished more the possibility of exchanging opinions among the teachers while performing program evaluation. On the other hand, just one Polish and one British teacher justified their negative opinions about the efficiency of program evaluation in terms of consonance with students' and teachers' needs. Judging from such findings, it appears that both the Polish and the British foreign language teachers apply the *decision making* model of program evaluation in order to achieve the best teaching results (Green and South 2006: 14; House 1997a: 102) and the *professional review*, which aims at assessing the validity of varied aspects of the language program (House 1997a: 110-111).

Table 61. The teachers' justifications of positive opinions concerning program evaluation in their schools (included in the interviews).

	Polish upper secondary teachers		British upper secondary teachers	
	N (max. 10)	%	N (max. 10)	%
Better exam pass rate	2	20.0	0	0.0
Better teaching results	2	20.0	1	10.0
Better exam results	1	10.0	0	0.0
Possibility of exchange opinions	1	10.0	2	20.0
Possibility to change action plan	3	30.0	8	80.0
Possibility to discuss issues with students	0	0.0	2	20.0

On the whole, the discussion in this section might indicate that there are some differences in the ways and procedures of performing program evaluation. However, the positive and relatively few negative perceptions of program evaluation both in the Polish and English upper secondary schools may constitute the similarity between the two groups. In such circumstances, the extent to which the revealed differences might contribute to a better quality of foreign language teaching will be discussed in the next chapter.

5.2. Discussion

The analysis presented above focused on highlighting similarities and differences related to nine aspects of foreign language teaching between Polish and English upper secondary schools. In this section, it is the intention of the author to consider possibilities for improving the overall quality of foreign language teaching, irrespective of organisational, structural and cultural differences between the two types of schools. The subsequent evaluation of their effectiveness will be based on the theoretical background and research outcomes discussed in *Chapter One, Two, Three* and the above sections of *Chapter Five*. For the sake of clarity, the relevant aspects of foreign language teaching will be discussed in the same order as in the former sections of the present chapter.

5.2.1. Teachers' teamwork and cooperation

Regardless of whether the foreign language teams were Polish or English, they all had a manager who led the team, which is very important when dealing with formal proceedings (Shappuis and Stiggins 2009: 58). In most cases, the teachers were very positive about the cooperation within a group. Nonetheless, Polish and British teacher teams were structured and functioned differently, with the British teams working mostly as one structure for all languages with individual teams for separate languages, and meeting regularly to discuss current issues. On the other hand, Polish teachers, on the whole, worked individually, only having meetings as required by a specific situation. This difference raises the question at the very heart of pedagogy – is the teacher an autonomous pedagogue working individually with his or her students, or is the teacher a member of a team with a collegial approach to seek overall collaborative improvement?

When teachers meet regularly as a team of members of different languages, the opportunities for regular exchange of ideas and consequently improving professional skills regularly are significantly greater. This is because teachers can discuss, among other things, issues such as learner autonomy, the choice of a coursebook, the selection of the most effective teaching techniques and aids as well as forms of student assessment. It also gives the opportunity to discuss current problems as well as monitor and improve their action plans. There is also a greater chance of discussing the issues of national educational language policy; however, it may change, and can be more synchronised with practical activities of the school when the teams work under more formal circumstances. Although the research did not specifically examine it, the question of mutual trust among teachers as colleagues is probably enhanced by regular team meetings.

In general, both the Polish and British teachers reported performing joint projects within their teams, but the Polish teachers focused more on involving language students directly in a variety of contests and cultural events while the British teachers concentrated on creating shared materials. Both attitudes and practices seem to be in accordance with theoretical recommendations regarding facilitating lasting positive changes in the classroom (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 57) and regular development of professional knowledge and skills (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 57). As can be seen from the foregoing discussion, the assumption that there may be some good practices in

four Polish and four English upper secondary schools that may be worth implementing, might hold true. In other words, it is not enough to have occasional language teacher team collaboration, because such collaboration must rely on more formal organisation and regular meetings.

5.2.2. Principal as a leader in education

As shown in *Chapter Three*, there are slightly different expectations concerning the upper secondary school principal in the contexts under investigation. In Polish schools, more emphasis is placed on the administrative aspect of managing the institution while in English sixth form colleges leadership is the key quality. A statistically significant difference was found in teachers' opinions about the degree to which the school principal as a leader in education influences the everyday functioning of a school. British teachers were more positive in their opinions. Obviously, without in-depth research how being an efficient leader in education affects the quality of foreign language teaching, no definite conclusions can be drawn but it is interesting to note that leadership in the British education system is seen as a key quality for aspiring headteachers. As long as 1997, Tony Blair, the British Prime Minister, took a lead in promoting strong leadership among headteachers, reported in the national press:

Tony Blair insisted that if school standards were to rise, the place to start work was at the top. "A Government that is serious about raising standards must look first at those who lead our schools – the head teachers," he said during a tour of Sudbourne Primary School, Brixton, south London. "I have never found a good school with a bad head teacher," he added. "There are too many schools without the strong leadership they need. That is why today we take the important step of introducing mandatory qualifications for all new head teachers. In the future, no-one will be appointed as a head teacher until they demonstrated they have the qualities to lead and motivate staff and pupils so that our children get the education they deserve." ("Blair goes to war on bad head teachers" 1997: 1)

In line with their government's guidelines, British teachers expected their principal to motivate them and support them, while Polish teachers expected his/her organisational support.

What the above observations suggest is that Polish and British upper secondary school principals work according to the national regulations and rules adjusted to the

specific type of schools and requirements. However, the British experience indicates that cultural changes in a school can be enabled by leadership from government with clear expectations on the headteacher which in turn will impact upon all aspects of curricular delivery, including the overall quality of foreign language teaching and the teaching team's performance.

5.2.3. The model of the foreign language lesson

Despite slight differences between the Polish and British teachers, they mostly envisioned a similar pattern of a foreign language lesson model. Both groups claimed that they follow similar teaching goals when planning a foreign language lesson. However, the Polish teachers were a little more selective and pointed to communicative goals most often, while the British teachers attached equal importance to a variety of lesson goals. It appears that both the Polish and British teachers are well acquainted with theoretical principles of a good language lesson.

However, the Polish and British teachers differ in terms of the actual planning with respect to how they appreciated actual planning schemes. To be more specific, as the quantitative analysis revealed, the British teachers mostly follow one model of planning a foreign language lesson, while the Polish teachers took different lesson models into consideration. The majority of the British and some Polish teachers combined official recommendations and their own ideas when choosing the lesson model. When teachers declared following different lesson models while planning a foreign language lesson, both the Polish and British professionals used similar ideas. All in all, it is difficult to state which option is better for the overall improvement of foreign language teaching, whether it is more beneficial to rely on one model or be more selective and flexible while exploring different possibilities. On the one hand, following one model of planning a foreign lesson in one school may provide learners with equal opportunities no matter which teacher conducts a lesson, but, on the other, when taking individual needs and differences between the groups into consideration, the teachers' individual choices may appear to be a better option.

In terms of the actual model of a foreign language lesson which was applied in Polish and English upper secondary schools, the two groups did not differ substantially

in this respect. Both the Polish and British teachers used a balanced model of the foreign language lesson with *presentation, practice, production* and *follow-up phase* with slight individual variation. This seems to be in accordance with the majority of theoretical underpinnings concerning this issue (Rifkin 2003: 173-176) and it may indicate that in both countries foreign language teachers consider such a balanced model as the most optimal and efficient way of reaching students and develop their language knowledge.

On the whole, the findings appear to suggest that even when following general methodological frameworks of some aspects of the foreign language lesson model, some original ideas should be introduced in order to improve the general quality of foreign language teaching. Furthermore, some examples of good practice that are worth implementing in the different education systems are visible after even a brief investigation. However, in some cases, it is almost impossible to make judgements about the value of differences between the two countries without further empirical investigation.

5.2.4. Teaching techniques and teaching aids

As noted in *Chapter Three*, the careful consideration, selection and, finally, application of adequate foreign language teaching techniques and teaching aids may enhance the quality of foreign language instruction. In the first place, the Polish and British teachers appeared to have different ideas when considering foreign language teaching techniques. British teachers relied on their experience and ideas as well as experiences of colleagues from collaboration within foreign language teams, while Polish teachers attached most importance regarding the needs of a particular language group and final exams requirements. However, a possibility cannot be excluded that taking students' needs and final exam requirements was not the focus of attention of the British teachers when working within the teacher teams. Such a difference may indicate that the British teachers select teaching techniques in a team and the Polish teachers do it rather individually. Beyond doubt, however, working in a team seems to facilitate the choice of more efficient teaching methods since teachers can share their experiences, ideas and avoid making mistakes, whilst still taking the needs of individual students into account.

Similar observations were made when investigating the types of techniques applied in the course of foreign language lessons that were observed for the purpose of the

study. The Polish and British teachers differed in types of techniques applied in foreign language lessons. In particular, more British teachers employed creating mental maps as a form of vocabulary improvement and more Polish teachers tended to use project work as a form activating students. Although some more differences were identified as related to other types of the applied teaching techniques, the differences cannot be considered statistically significant. All in all, despite the differences, both the Polish and British teachers reported using teaching techniques recommended by researchers which are adequate to lesson goals, appeal to students and respond to learners' needs (Haynes 2010: 84; Komorowska 2002: 46; Ur 2002: 189, Wright and White 2001: 97). There was somewhat unique use of certain methods in English sixth form colleges which were not found in Polish general upper secondary schools and which may constitute some examples of good practice because they emphasise the role of the student as an independent learner. Two particular techniques were *peer mentoring*, which was observed in the lessons taught in England and explained in detail by the British teachers, and the advanced forms of *independent learning programs*, which were an official part of language instruction in most sixth form colleges in England, seemed to be potentially facilitative of foreign language learning. Furthermore, these two special teaching techniques appear to be in accordance with some specialists' recommendations regarding the use of *activating teaching methods* (Harajová 2009: 4) and *computer-assisted language learning* (Benson 2001: 138; Brett and González-Lloret 2011: 351).

It is also noteworthy that interesting differences between the Polish and British teachers were detected concerning the use of teaching aids. Specifically, more British teachers proved to employ more up-to-date aids such as multimedia devices whereas Polish teachers were found to rely on audio-recordings, a coursebook, an activity book, final examinations sheets and dictionaries. All types of teaching aids applied by the Polish and British foreign language teachers are accepted by scholars and described in literature (Komorowska 2002: 44; Madej 2011: 31, 34; Szerszeń 2011: 28; Ur 2002: 190-191; Wright and White 2001: 98).

As the discussion presented above demonstrates, some examples of differences between the Polish and English upper secondary schools may constitute instances of good practice worth implementation in the opposite systems, especially regarding the use of information and computer technology. It must be highlighted here that the use of ICT opens up new prospects for language teaching in Poland and it would be highly

recommended to include using ICT as a teaching aid as a key feature of initial teacher training and continuing professional development in Poland to create expectation and expertise. It is also advisable to create a demand for obtaining resources which may be available from the European funding to allow Poland to catch up with developments elsewhere in Europe.

5.2.5. The use of a coursebook

Although the Polish and majority of the British teachers reported using a coursebook during classes, there were major differences with respect to who was responsible for its choice. The British teachers provided a variety of reasons and even declared that some of them did not use a textbook at all. In contrast, a majority of the Polish teachers claimed that the teacher team members made decisions concerning about which textbook should be chosen. The way in which the Polish teachers choose a textbook seems to be more efficient, since discussing the usefulness of a potential textbook in a group of experienced practitioners may guarantee success more than the individual choice of a foreign language teacher. At the same time, both the Polish and British teachers reported changing the coursebook most often in response to changes in the final exams specification. The frequency with which such changes happened seems to give foreign language teachers enough time to evaluate the textbook and decide whether its use should be ceased or continued.

Despite the fact that professional literature highlights numerous factors that should be taken into account when choosing a coursebook, the Polish and British teachers provided quite limited reasons for choosing or changing a textbook and the criteria they typically applied when assessing the usefulness of a textbook. The most important criterion for the British teachers was that the coursebook should adhere to the specification of final exams and represent an accessible level for students, while the Polish teachers took a much greater range of factors into consideration. However, the conclusion may be drawn that both the Polish and British teachers did not mention the basic aim of a good textbook, namely, the development of four basic language skills, such as listening, reading, speaking and writing. They also seemed to attach little importance to whether the coursebook was suitable for learners with mixed-abilities. Somewhat sur-

prisingly, neither in the Polish general upper secondary schools nor the English sixth form colleges did foreign language teachers recognise the need to determine whether the textbook contributed to, among many issues, fostering intercultural competence and learner autonomy or whether it contained authentic materials. All of this indicates that coursebook evaluation may be too superficial in both types of schools.

Predictably, the Polish and British teachers differed in the frequency of using a textbook during a foreign language lesson and the types of lesson stages they tended to fall back upon it. The Polish teachers used the coursebook much more often and at different stages of the foreign language lesson. Researchers warn against excessive reliance on a textbook, which brings with it the threat of overreliance (Cunningsworth 1984: 1; Harmer 2002: 304; Tomlinson 1998: 298; Ur 2002: 185). However, the observed reactions of Polish upper secondary students to the use of a textbook were always positive. Another difference was revealed in relation to creating and using additional supplementary materials. As the analysis showed, the majority of the British teachers created their own additional materials and they used them frequently during the foreign language lessons instead of a coursebook. It appears that the British teachers did not think that English foreign language textbooks were adequate while the Polish teachers seemed to be satisfied with the quality and adequacy of the available foreign language coursebook.

The discussion of the research findings appears to indicate that Polish and British upper secondary foreign language teachers have different expectations concerning the use of a textbook. The selection of a particular book does not necessarily follow the typical criteria mentioned by specialists, but those criteria were set before the advent of new technologies and resources which contribute to effective teaching.

5.2.6. Forms of student assessment

As pointed out in *Chapter Three*, learner assessment is of vital importance since among other things teachers can check whether their students are making progress. Moreover, it may provide information to others interested in students' language performance, for instance, parents, junior teachers, exam boards, researchers, members of educational institutions and also students themselves (Haynes 2010: 149; McNamara 2009: 610). As

can be seen from the findings of the present research, the Polish and British upper secondary foreign language teachers differed in the forms of learner assessment they typically employed. The Polish teachers mainly concentrated on as many as three main forms of formal learner assessment connected with giving grades and marks while the British teachers employed a much more varied array of forms including self-assessment, descriptions of students' strong and weak points, providing targets for improvement, college review data or diagnostic tests. Such forms of assessment were not mentioned by the Polish teachers. The wide range of assessment techniques that was provided by the British teachers seems to be an example of good practice that is worth following since it appears to provide more in-depth and multifaceted feedback and is in accordance with methodological recommendations (Chater 184: 6-7; Hunt 2001: 153; Kunan and Jang 2011: 615). The Polish foreign language teachers appeared to assess learners slightly more frequently in the course of their classes. However, the difference was small and did not indicate an example of good practice. No meaningful difference was found in learners' reactions to being assessed or the teachers' opinions about the sufficiency of the existing assessment system. All of this indicates that there exist few differences between the assessment procedures of teachers in Polish and English upper secondary schools.

5.2.7. Classroom interaction

As shown in *Chapter Three*, the quantity and quality of classroom interaction may influence the overall quality of foreign language teaching. The research findings revealed the extent to which Polish and English teachers were in control of interaction. The British teachers gave their students more opportunities to control interaction during the foreign language lessons while the Polish teachers were generally more in control as far as the lesson procedures are concerned. In view of Pawlak's (2009: 316-326) suggestions, students should be encouraged to develop their communication skills in typical classroom interaction, and the English model, giving students more opportunities to control classroom discourse, facilitates this approach.

Although the Polish and British teachers frequently used speech modification and body language, they differed in the range of situations in which they applied them.

The Polish teachers mainly resorted to such options in order to signal emphasis, indicate an error/mistake and praise students while British teachers used this to indicate approval, to illustrate the meaning of the word and just to attract students' attention. As was mentioned in *Chapter Four*, such tendencies could be explained by cultural differences between the Polish and British teachers.

Quite predictably, although some discrepancies regarding types of interactions during elicitation were observed, they were not statistically significant therefore this aspect of classroom interaction did not seem to differentiate between the Polish and British teachers. Nevertheless, both in Polish and English upper secondary schools it was possible to identify examples of good practice concerning types of interaction during elicitation which provided an inspirational and secure atmosphere in the language classroom as well as students' positive reactions.

More British teachers gave hints and waited for students' self-correction or reminded students of the rules while more Polish teachers just provided the correct answer. Encouraging learners to attempt self-correction appears an option that is favoured by scholars; however, teacher correction can be more economical with respect to time, and it is provided by an expert (Komorowska 2002: 177-178). As regards the source of correction, there were no obvious differences between the two groups and for this reason examples of good practice could not be identified.

What the above observations suggest is that the examples of good practice regarding classroom interaction may be found in English sixth form colleges and they concern the proportions of controlling classroom interactions while in other aspects the two types of schools did not differ greatly. What is more, questioning techniques should allow to encourage students to think and work out correct responses. If students know that the teacher will tell them the right answer, it may be more efficient but it is unlikely to develop students' capacity to become independent learners and to think for themselves.

5.2.8. Development of learner autonomy

The opportunity to observe classroom practices regarding the development of learner autonomy in two different educational systems resulted in the identification of examples

of good practice. In the first place, a clear difference could be detected between Polish and English upper secondary schools concerning the teachers' opinions whether students knew how to take responsibility for their foreign language learning. In particular, more British teachers were sure about it in comparison with Polish teachers and this state of affairs was confirmed by the results of lesson observations where during 80% of the foreign language lessons the British students were allowed to make decisions related to learning, for example to the content of homework. This may indicate that, in general, in the English sixth form colleges more examples of good practice related to making learners autonomous can be found. However, further research is needed to verify this assumption.

Surprisingly, both the British and Polish teachers were aware to a similar degree what would make their students more autonomous. However, the answers both the Polish and British teachers provided were rather limited, which may be surprising in view of the fact that a wide range of suggestions as to how autonomy can be promoted can easily be found in the professional literature of which British and Polish teachers should be aware; this problem could be addressed by encouraging teachers to engage in professional development. As for the specific actions undertaken by the teachers whose lessons were observed, more British teachers allowed their students to prepare and give presentations for the whole class, informed their students about additional resources on the Moodle/Intranet/Internet/VLE and negotiated with learners some elements of foreign language teaching. These actions may constitute examples of good practice related to promoting the use of information and computer technology since Godwin-Jones (2011: 7) stressed that computer-based applications make foreign language learning self-directed and they provide authentic contexts for such learning.

Some interesting statistically significant differences that were discovered may confirm that more examples of good practice concerning the development of learner autonomy can be found in English sixth form colleges. The findings indicate that more British teachers believe that if there is less teacher control of the language interactions during the foreign language lessons, learner autonomy increases. However, the way foreign language lessons were planned in Polish and English upper secondary schools did not seem to affect learner autonomy.

As the above discussion demonstrates, fostering learner autonomy is a very complex process that requires a number of steps to be taken if it is to be fostered effec-

tively. Also, there seem to be slightly more examples of good practice in the English sixth form colleges regarding making learners autonomous and an attempt could be made to incorporate them into the Polish educational system.

5.2.9. Program evaluation

As shown in *Chapter Two*, the overall efficiency in language program evaluation may contribute to enhancing the quality of foreign language instruction, taking into account the benefits to a variety of stakeholders. The comparison of the way in which language programs are evaluated in Polish and English upper secondary schools produced examples of good practice. It appears that in English sixth form colleges language program evaluation is performed in more varied ways which include course forums, self-evaluation and head of department/subject actions, as well as learners' evaluation. In Poland, by contrast, it turned out to be limited to the actions of individual teachers or joint work of the whole teacher team. Thus, the distinct examples of evaluation procedures provided by the British teachers could be taken into consideration in Polish general upper secondary schools.

The findings concerning the specific actions and procedures that are taken in order to conduct language program evaluation showed that there were some differences between Polish and English upper secondary schools. However, very little variation was found regarding the teachers' opinions on the effectiveness of language program evaluation, with both the Polish and British teachers considering it to be generally positive. Although both groups of teachers were satisfied with the effectiveness of the current way of language program evaluation, they provided slightly different examples. More specifically, more Polish teachers thought that program evaluation facilitates achieving better exam pass rates while the British teachers appreciated the fact that thanks to it they could change their action plans.

A question that should be posed at this point is whether evaluation is valid without the engagement of the students, which seemed to be the case in the Polish schools. Furthermore, program evaluation is only effective if it causes teachers to reflect upon what they are doing, and how they do it, as well as how they expect students to behave

and study. Hence, the teachers' complacency about the effectiveness of program evaluation should not be limited to ensuring the achievement of better exam passing rate.

5.3. Weaknesses of the research project

There were several issues that might have influenced negatively the validity and reliability of the results obtained in the course of this research project. In the first place, the present author managed to gain access only to four Polish and four English upper secondary schools and thus obtained a limited amount of data. Such a situation limits considerably the possibility of generalising the outcomes to all upper secondary schools in the countries under investigation. The reason for this was that although the present author contacted a number of upper secondary schools in Poland and England, the majority of the school representatives refused to participate in the project. In some cases the principals used their busy schedules as an excuse while others did not even bother to provide a response. Another weakness is related to the fact that the schools from which the participant teachers were drawn were located in a limited area. More precisely, both in Poland and in England the schools were located in the same county or voivodship. This resulted from the fact that the present author did not have sufficient funding to travel around both countries. She used her private financial resources to cover all the costs and expenses and these resources were insufficient to broaden the scope of the investigation. Yet another factor that could have negatively influenced the results of the study, was time pressure. To be more specific, the researcher was a teacher and was obliged to follow her school schedule and duties, which limited the time available to conduct the research. For obvious reasons, when more time was available during school vacations, the schools that could be included were closed or no teachers were available.

As far as the construction of the questionnaires is concerned, some points may not have been totally clear for the teacher participants since some of their answers digressed slightly from the main subject. However, in every case such replies were not taken into account. A further weakness was that the observed lessons were not recorded and thus some of the more subtle examples of classroom interactions may have been missed. Nevertheless, the researcher was always seated in a discreet position to be able to observe both the teacher and the students. The observations involved visiting differ-

ent schools, four of which were abroad, and even while spending time in one school the author often had to relocate to different classrooms in a short period of time. For obvious reasons, setting the recording equipment in the most convenient place in the classroom would have required additional time and, for video-recording, the presence of a camera may have caused some distraction. Taking this into consideration, the researcher took the pragmatic decision to conduct lesson observations without recording procedures. However, all the interviews with the teacher participants were audio-recorded and the author took notes at the same time. Thanks to this, the researcher could ask additional questions aimed at verifying what she had observed questions regarding also lesson observations.

Finally, some differences in the functioning and structure of foreign language teaching between Polish and English upper secondary schools might have influenced the outcomes of the research. The most important of those was the fact that in England learning foreign languages was not obligatory, and thus fewer groups could be observed. Moreover, it was also possible that the British students' attitudes towards language learning could have been more positive since they had chosen this subject of their own accord and it was not imposed on them. On the other hand, foreign language learning was obligatory in Poland and students participated in lessons no matter whether they liked language or not or not. Other differences that could have impacted the results regarded the difference in the length of the lessons, the number of teaching hours per week and the size of the groups.

Conclusion

The main goal of the present chapter was to present and discuss the findings of the study undertaken by the author. This was done with respect to the nine aspects selected for inspection with the aim of identifying the differences between the Polish and English upper secondary schools and evaluating the situation in both types of school. With this in mind, the differences and similarities concerning the structure and performance of the foreign language teacher teams between selected Polish and English upper secondary schools were evaluated. Subsequently, the focus of attention was shifted to the differences between the Polish and English upper secondary schools regarding the role

of a principal as a leader in education. The author also focused on identifying innovative practices in the teaching of foreign languages of both groups of teachers. The differences between the Polish and English upper secondary schools relating to the use of a textbook, the forms of student assessment, different aspects of classroom interactions and the steps taken to foster learner autonomy were also explored. Finally, the ways in which program evaluation is conducted in both contexts were investigated.

Conclusion

This dissertation attempted to initiate a discussion concerning the most effective practices in foreign language teaching on the basis of data collected in two different instructional settings. A more specific goal was to determine whether there exist any differences between the ways of teaching foreign languages between the Polish and English upper secondary schools. The main beneficiaries of the research study are practitioners who can be provided with examples of best practices observed in settings with which they may not be familiar. Another group who can benefit from the investigation are researchers who are able to gain access to valuable data regarding foreign language instruction in Poland and England and can thus derive inspiration for conducting further investigation into specific issues. Students, also, can benefit from the research if their teachers employ more effective techniques. Finally, language policy makers could make use of ideas that could be implemented to improve the national language policy in one of the two countries under investigation.

Apart from contributing to the on-going debate on how to improve the quality of foreign language teaching, the major goal of this dissertation has been to compare and contrast nine aspects of foreign language teaching in order to find the differences between the Polish and English upper secondary schools and to establish examples of good practice worth implementing in the different education systems. The outcomes of the present research are therefore of interest to both Polish and British foreign language specialists. It is difficult for individuals to visit upper secondary schools in different countries and observe examples of good practice, and the analysis conducted by the present author therefore constitutes a valuable source of information and inspiration for practitioners. In particular, presenting examples of good practice and innovative solu-

tions from Polish and English upper secondary school may provide new ideas for improving language instruction in each of these contexts.

In accordance with such goals, *Chapter One* was dedicated to resolving the terminological confusion concerning overall and detailed aspects of language policy and planning. In particular, it focused on European Union language policy, presenting language policy and planning principles in Poland and England as well as attempting comparisons between the two-language policy and planning strategies. Such preliminary considerations were followed by the presentation of the principles of program evaluation in *Chapter Two*. Also in this case, the most important terms regarding program evaluation were provided and discussed; the aims, principles, standards and criteria of such evaluation were explored, the models and types of language program evaluation were presented; the European Union organisations dealing with it were included; and, finally, the stages of designing and performing program evaluation were discussed in detail. The first part of *Chapter Three* was devoted to presenting the organisation and structure of the Polish general upper secondary school system and English sixth form college system while the second section was aimed at discussing certain aspects of foreign language teaching together with providing the rationale for the choice of those specific facets. In *Chapter Four*, the focus of attention was shifted to the presentation of the methodology which was used in designing both the pilot and main research. This consisted of discussing the design of the study, participants, instruments and methodology of data collection and analysis. Finally, *Chapter Five*, presented the findings of the comparative research, identifying similarities and differences with respect to the nine aspects of foreign language teaching. The findings were reported and discussed, with an evaluation of the observed differences in the Polish and English upper secondary schools being attempted.

Bearing in mind the above aims, we can now proceed to spelling out the examples of good and innovative practice that were encountered in the Polish general upper secondary schools and English sixth form colleges as well as recommendations that should enhance the overall quality of foreign language instruction in Polish and English upper secondary schools. They could be summarised as follows:

- (1) *The impact of teacher teams:* In England, it was clear that foreign language teachers always saw themselves as members of a team, often a mixed team of teachers of different languages, meeting regularly and offering mutual support.

Direct observations, interviews and responses to the questionnaires revealed that the more centralized structure of the English foreign language teacher teams enabled the British teachers to unite their actions and solve problems efficiently and more innovative practices were observed in the language classroom. In contrast, in Poland teachers were more autonomous, with fewer organised opportunities for exchanging ideas, and cooperation was less regular without formal teacher team meetings.

The Polish teacher teams introduced more varied projects involving their students directly in foreign language activities, such as language contests and cultural events. Such actions are highly recommendable since foreign language students may experience the target culture and language as something more tangible and practical. Involving learners in a variety of additional activities may boost their confidence and develop cooperative skills, let alone motivation. Also, engaging students in language contests may facilitate the development of learner autonomy. In England, shared materials were created which were useful for all members of the team, especially for less experienced teachers. This is in accordance with the research claims advanced by specialists that close collaboration between teachers enables new ideas to be shared and junior teachers to be supported (Chappuis and Stiggins 2009: 57; Fischer and Taylor 2012: 236). The British teachers seemed to be very efficient in such activities and their organisation of foreign language teacher teams seemed to facilitate their actions. The importance of teacher teams also extends to planning a foreign language lesson, which was observed in particular in England. Closer collaboration within the teacher team makes the use of each other's experience and reduces the risk of unnecessary mistakes. Thanks to allocating time to joint work, foreign language teachers can introduce more innovative and various activities suitable for their students' needs.

If these observed differences are to serve as a basis for changes to be introduced across the two countries, it is suggested that significant improvements would be made within the Polish foreign language teaching community by adopting a more collegial and collaborative approach. It is proposed that this would improve the overall quality of foreign language teaching in the institution and thus whenever feasible, teachers ought to use the opportunities and share

examples of good practice more than it is formally required. It is also recommended that a team should be encouraged, enabled and, if necessary, authorised to require collaboration in the foreign language teacher team in each Polish secondary school. Obviously such steps could not be undertaken in isolation and would require similar leaders across the breadth of the curriculum.

(2) *Innovative techniques:*

- a. *peer mentoring:* One of the most powerful examples of innovative practices discovered during the research (5.1.4) was *peer mentoring*, which is also referred to in the literature as *peer teaching*, *collaborative learning*, *peer evaluation* or *peer tutoring* (Benson 2001; Grundman 2001; Lee 2014; Luoma 2004). English teachers described two techniques: the first where a weaker student was placed next to a strong student in a classroom to learn to encourage peer learning, and the second where more advanced students were used as mentors for those struggling. Garringer and MacRae (2008: 1) report that younger learners tend to look up to slightly older youth and this may foster the overall process of learning from youth tutors and, further, both the young *mentor* and *mentee* improve their language learning skills in the process because a mentor has to revise the material and extend his or her knowledge in order to share it and a mentee is provided with comprehensible input that is adjusted to their level (Benson 2001: 153; Garringer and MacRae 2008: 1; Luoma 2004: 2-3). Garringer and MacRae (2008: 1) emphasise the positive outcomes of peer mentoring in systems with limited financial resources because peer mentoring is free and requires neither extra staff nor additional facilities (Garringer and MacRae 2008: 1). It would thus be helpful for foreign language teachers in both countries to develop a systematic process of peer mentoring. It can be assumed that such a process would enhance collaboration and student confidence in the classroom, and would be consonant with earlier recommendations of building collaboration between teachers.
- b. *modern information and communication technology and VLE:* While planning a foreign language lesson, significant emphasis is laid on using modern information and communication tools in England. Teachers working together use specifically designed teaching aids, preparing a sequence of lessons based on cultural themes and introducing more elements of fun and games in order to make

their classes more attractive. The analysis yielded many examples of innovative approaches to engaging students and promoting independent learning, especially through the use of a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) of which MOODLE is an example. Such innovative techniques and teaching aids in the foreign language lessons are called for by specialists, but are not always implemented in some educational systems. These techniques can be recognised as activating methods (Harajová 2009: 4). They also facilitate better internalization of the material to be learned, make foreign language lessons more appealing for students and, finally, cater for the needs of students with a variety of learning styles and strategies. Here, especially, the mutual support of teachers working in a team is extremely beneficial because of the inevitable anxieties and deskilling experienced when using a new technique more familiar to the students than to the experienced teacher. The use of ICT opens new prospects for language teaching in Poland and it is recommended that this should be included as a key feature of initial teacher training and continuing professional development in Poland to create expectation and expertise. In other words, the education community should create a demand for resourcing, which may be available from the EU funding, to allow Poland to catch up with developments elsewhere in Europe.

- c. *independent learning program*: When making efforts to make learners autonomous, one cannot omit *independent learning programs* which were successfully implemented in some of the investigated schools in England (See Section 5.1.4). The programs were compulsory but the elements of collaboration were clearly visible. First, foreign language teachers and students negotiated a list of additional activities and then a detailed schedule was published on the intranet including deadlines. Next, learners reported the results to the teacher and got credits which constituted an important part of the final grade. Such a technique is a good example of an activating method which may increase learner autonomy, creativity, and problem solving skills (Harajová 2009: 4). It is recommended that such programs should be an obligatory part of foreign language instruction in Polish and English upper secondary school to help students cope with their work at university.
- (3) *The role of the coursebook*: In the light of developments in communication technology such as those highlighted above, even though a coursebook may be a

safe and efficient basis both for the foreign language teacher and learners, it is reasonable to believe that teachers should not be over reliant on it. Foreign language teachers should ensure that the textbook develops all the basic skills, such as reading, listening, speaking, and writing. It is important for it to appeal to a variety of learners with different learning styles and learning strategies. Furthermore, there should be a strong cultural component included in the textbook because cultural issues are significant components of the English and Polish curricula, and the materials should give the impression of authenticity. On the other hand, it is advisable that additional created and shared materials should complement even the most effective coursebook and provide a background for responding to specific needs that students may have. It is incumbent upon language teachers to make an in-depth evaluation of a coursebook before its selection, preferably in a teacher team like was in case of Polish teachers. This is connected with the need to invest heavily in modern communications technology in Polish schools to maintain equality of learning opportunity with other European countries.

- (4) *Leadership*: Developing a culture of collegiality and collaboration is not an administrative skill but it requires strong leadership from the top. In England in 1997, the Prime Minister, Tony Blair, focused upon the need for strong leadership in schools stating that he had never seen a good school with a bad head. An inevitable corollary is that there should be more positive involvement of the school principal in the development of pedagogy in a school across the curriculum. As Fischer and Taylor (2012: 249) highlighted, the principal's endorsement and encouragement can boost the effectiveness of the actions taken by the team, and enhance the quality of foreign language teaching. Importantly, the principal is not expected to get involved in the teacher teamwork directly but rather create an inspirational and supportive atmosphere to encourage it. Hence, excellent leadership skills seem to be indispensable to achieve such goals. It has been concluded from the analysis of the recruitment process for the position of a secondary school principal that in England much more emphasis is placed on leadership skills than in Poland. In light of the differences in the recruitment processes for school leaders in Poland and England, it seems warranted to propose that education authorities place additional emphasis on the leadership skills of appli-

cants for school headships. In addition, it seems a good idea to develop leadership courses for aspiring school principals with national funding as a strategic way to improve education in future decades. This recommendation is consonant with the earlier recommendation that leadership teacher positions should be created across the curriculum.

- (5) *Assessment of students:* Various forms of student assessment were observed in the research, such as self-assessment, descriptions of students' strong and weak points, providing targets for improvement, college review data and diagnostic tests which appear to fulfil the basic goals of formative assessment described in the professional literature (Brown 2004; Chater 1984; Hunt 2001). Assessment of this kind is important because it informs learners about their current level of achievement and offers directions on how to improve. Although marking and/or grading students on a regular basis was the norm in both countries, some inconsistencies were found and thus it is recommended that both the Polish and British foreign language teachers should employ a variety of techniques both to better inform the student and to be better able to reflect on his or her teaching style.
- (6) *Student engagement in lessons and autonomy:* Specialists highlight that the amount and quality of the classroom interactions is shaped both by teachers and students and thus it is necessary to understand that the optimal amount of the teacher's control over management of classroom interactions does not necessarily mean full or predominant teacher control. Thus, students ought to be encouraged to participate in classroom interactions more actively so as to assume responsibility for their own learning and this is evident in both countries in the involvement of students in project work on regular basis. However, the researcher observed many more opportunities for learners to control foreign language classroom interactions in the English sixth form colleges than in the Polish classrooms, which gave them more chances to develop communicative skills and take ownership of their learning. As Komorowska (2002: 168-169) explains, making learners autonomous helps them to solve language problems independently, allows them to become partners in language learning and facilitates the use of wider choice of learning strategies suitable for a particular individual. As the analysis revealed, more situations related to making learners autonomous were available in the English sixth form colleges. It is advisable that Polish upper sec-

ondary school teachers should make this a more important issue in foreign language teaching and it is recommended that more opportunities to make decisions regarding their foreign language learning should be given to Polish students.

- (7) *Languages in the world:* Both the demands of the modern world and the EU recommendations require giving young people opportunities for becoming multilingual. It seems to be of significant importance to be able to cope with the challenges of the modern world. The Polish educational system definitely meets such demands and provides young learners with an opportunity to study at least two foreign languages from the earliest stage of formal education to the final one. Despite some efforts and latest reforms the English educational system does not seem to provide its citizens with such chances. Although it was not a specific focus of the research, it is recommended that the culture of complacency in England around foreign language learning be challenged by the language teaching community in the UK to encourage greater language participation.

As can be seen from the recommendations presented above, certain elements of foreign language teaching are characteristic of English or Polish upper secondary schools and benefits could accrue from replicating them the contrasting educational system. Nevertheless, these reflections are in a way subjective, in the sense that they mirror the writer's own interpretation of the research findings within the framework of the relevant literature. A more comprehensive study is advisable which would either compare upper secondary schools in more than two European countries or in more upper secondary schools in England and Poland but in different regions, putting into practice the recommendations made above. For example, it would be of interest to explore the mission statements of the foreign language teacher teams to investigate whether and how such teams discuss the quality of foreign language teaching in their schools and identify problems that are to be solved. This would involve understanding the collection, collation and evaluation of information, and the creation of action plans for their implementation. Perhaps most significantly, it would be insightful to explore whether a greater focus on teacher team collaboration increases the quality of foreign language teaching. Although such investigations might pose some organisational and design problems, it would also be stimulating to examine the practical effects of peer mentoring and independent learning school programs on students' achievement in learning foreign languages. This might be accomplished through a program of action research in

which the added value of students' knowledge in groups where peer mentoring or independent learning school program was implemented and groups where such teaching techniques were not applied, could be compared. It would also be interesting to explore whether the use of a textbook as the main teaching aids has diminished in those countries where modern information technology is available in every classroom. Because this would be of particular interest to the publishing industry, external funding for such a research project might be possible. In the shorter term, the question of whether a coursebook alone is more or less efficient in comparison with using a coursebook together with teachers' own created materials could be addressed quickly through preliminary research on the teacher's opinions about the quality of foreign language textbooks in the two examined countries. Other recommendations for further research could refer to investigating the impact of the principal as a leader in education on the efficiency and performance of the foreign language teacher teams. In particular, the relative importance of people- and curriculum-leadership skills compared with administrative and organisational skills in the selection of school leaders should be examined.

SUMMARY

Since Poland joined the European Union in 2004 the country has been undergoing numerous structural reforms, which have had to adhere to the EU laws. One of the most important aims of those reforms was the overhaul of the educational system, including teaching modern foreign languages. However, it is far from clear, after so many years of being a EU member country and ongoing reforms, to what extent the teaching of modern foreign languages has been standardized, and whether there still exist national differences.

In the professional literature it is possible to find a lot of comparative studies dealing with education systems in different countries. However, the main recipients of such publications are usually educational authorities and institutions which are responsible for planning and implementing national language policy. It is difficult to find comparative studies which concern teaching modern foreign languages in upper secondary schools in different countries that would have been conducted with the practitioner, the teacher of the foreign language, in mind.

The principal aim of the present dissertation is to compare nine aspects of foreign language teaching in Polish and English upper secondary schools. More specifically, for the purpose of the present dissertation, nine research questions have been posed. These are as follows:

- (1) What are the similarities and differences in the organisation and performance of foreign language teacher teams in Polish and English upper secondary schools? The main focus was on establishing whether in each upper secondary school there is one teacher team for all curriculum modern foreign languages or there are individual teams for each modern foreign language. The emphasis here was placed on the teacher teams' course of actions and their range of activities.
- (2) What are the similarities and differences in the ethos of the principal as a leader of upper secondary schools in Poland and England? A more specific goal was to explore the participating teachers' opinions regarding the extent to which an efficient and competent principal affects the efficiency of performance of a foreign language teacher teams as well as overall quality of foreign language instruction in a school.

- (3) What are the similarities and differences in planning foreign language lessons in Polish and English upper secondary schools? The way in which teachers plan a foreign language lesson was explored together with the overall model of the typical lesson plan existing in particular schools.
- (4) What are the similarities and differences in the way in which teaching techniques and lesson aids are chosen in Polish and English upper secondary schools? The research concentrated on the examples of teaching techniques and lesson aids used during foreign language lessons in each of the two contexts.
- (5) What are the similarities and differences in the way in which foreign language coursebooks are chosen in Polish and English upper secondary schools? In particular, the frequency of changing a textbook and the reasons for doing so were examined as well as the criteria used for assessing the usefulness of a coursebook applied by teachers.
- (6) What are the similarities and differences in the way of assessing students during foreign language lessons in Polish and English upper secondary schools? In particular, emphasis was placed on collecting information about the forms of student assessment used, the frequency with which students are assessed during the lesson, as well as the teachers' opinions on whether the existing forms of assessment were sufficient or not.
- (7) What are the similarities and differences in classroom interactions during foreign language lessons in Polish and English upper secondary schools? In particular, the proportion of controlling interactions during foreign language lessons was taken into account as well as verbal and non-verbal forms of discourse, types of interactions during elicitation, and finally the ways in which corrective feedback was offered.
- (8) What are the similarities and differences when it comes to helping foreign language students to become autonomous in Polish and English upper secondary schools? The focus in this case was on the teachers' opinions whether their students could take charge of their foreign language learning process and what steps could be taken to foster it. Some specific examples of such actions were also listed.
- (9) What are the similarities and differences in foreign language program evaluation in Polish and English upper secondary schools? The key aspects of the examina-

tion were the ways in which foreign language program evaluation is performed and the teachers' opinions about the efficiency of this process in their schools.

In order to answer these research questions, the present author conducted a pilot study in one Polish general upper secondary school and one English sixth form college before the main study in four Polish general upper secondary schools and four English sixth form colleges. The collected data were processed and analysed with a view to indicating the similarities and differences concerning the nine aspects of foreign language teaching, as well as identifying qualitatively examples of good practice as well as instances of innovation in teaching. The value of the present work lies in the fact that it represents the first attempt at a systematic comparison of aspects of modern foreign language teaching across two EU countries, England and Poland. As a consequence, the study throws new light on how modern foreign languages are taught in Polish and English upper secondary schools. The research findings can be applied by foreign language practitioners and the application of innovative solutions in good practice in foreign language lessons can improve the overall quality of foreign language teaching.

STRESZCZENIE

Po wstąpieniu przez Polskę do Unii Europejskiej w 2004 roku, kraj systematycznie przechodzi szereg reform strukturalnych, które muszą być zgodne z prawem unijnym. Reformy dotyczą również systemu edukacji, w tym nauczania języków obcych. Nasuwa się więc pytanie, czy po tylu latach członkostwa w Unii Europejskiej i po szeregu reform związanych z nauczaniem języków obcych nauczanie w różnych krajach Unii Europejskiej jest rzeczywiście ujednolicone, czy też nadal występują tu jakieś różnice?

W literaturze fachowej występuje mnogość opracowań porównujących systemy edukacyjne w różnych krajach, jednakże głównymi odbiorcami takich opracowań są z reguły władze i instytucje oświatowe, prowadzące krajową politykę językową. Z trudem można napotkać jednak badania porównujące nauczanie języków obcych w szkołach średnich w różnych krajach, przeprowadzone przez praktyków nauczania, gdzie docelowym odbiorcą mogliby być inni nauczyciele języków obcych.

W związku z tym, przedmiot niniejszej pracy stanowi porównanie dziewięciu elementów nauczania języków obcych w polskich i angielskich szkołach ponadgimnazjalnych. W obrębie przyjętego zakresu pracy sprecyzowano dziewięć pytań badawczych:

- (1) Jakie są podobieństwa i różnice w strukturze i działalności zespołów metodycznych z języków obcych w polskich i angielskich szkołach ponadgimnazjalnych? W szczególności skupiono się na fakcie, czy w danej szkole istnieje jeden zespół metodyczny z języków obcych z liderem, czy kilka odrębnych grup. Przedmiotem badania był również sposób funkcjonowania zespołów i zakres ich działalności.
- (2) Jakie są podobieństwa i różnice w etosie dyrektora jako lidera szkoły ponadgimnazjalnej w Polsce i Anglii? Szczegółowym celem było zbadanie opinii nauczycieli do jakiego stopnia skuteczny i sprawny dyrektor jako lider w edukacji wpływa na jakość pracy zespołów metodycznych z języków obcych i jakość nauczania języków obcych w danej szkole.
- (3) Jakie są podobieństwa i różnice w planowaniu lekcji języka obcego w polskiej i angielskiej szkole ponadgimnazjalnej? Badaniu poddano sposób planowania lekcji języka obcego przez nauczycieli oraz wypracowany model lekcji w danej szkole.

- (4) Jakie są podobieństwa i różnice w doborze technik nauczania i środków dydaktycznych w polskiej i angielskiej szkole ponadgimnazjalnej? W badaniu skupiono się na przykładach technik nauczania stosowanych podczas lekcji języka obcego oraz na rodzajach zastosowanych pomocy dydaktycznych.
- (5) Jakie są podobieństwa i różnice w sposobie wyboru podręcznika do nauczania języków obcych w polskiej i angielskiej szkole ponadgimnazjalnej? W szczególności badano częstotliwość zmiany podręcznika, powód zmiany oraz kryteria oceny przydatności nowego.
- (6) Jakie są podobieństwa i różnice w sposobie oceniania uczniów na lekcjach języka obcego w polskiej i angielskiej szkole ponadgimnazjalnej? W pracy zbierano informacje na temat form oceniania uczniów, częstotliwości z jaką są oceniani oraz czy nauczyciele języków obcych uznali formy oceniania obowiązujące w danej szkole za wystarczające.
- (7) Jakie są podobieństwa i różnice w dyskursie i interakcjach podczas lekcji języka obcego w polskiej i angielskiej szkole ponadgimnazjalnej. Szczególnie badano proporcje kontroli interakcji podczas lekcji, werbalne i niewerbalne formy dyskursu, typy interakcji podczas sprawdzania wiedzy oraz w jaki sposób były poprawiane błędy uczniów.
- (8) Jakie są podobieństwa i różnice w działaniu szkoły i nauczycieli mających na celu zwiększenie autonomii ucznia w nauce języka obcego? Przedmiotem zainteresowania była opinia nauczycieli języków obcych, czy ich uczniowie potrafią kontrolować swój proces uczenia się języka obcego i jakie kroki powinny być podjęte, aby sprzyjać autonomii. Odnotowywano również konkretne przykłady działań w szkole zwiększających zachowania autonomiczne uczniów.
- (9) Jakie są podobieństwa i różnice w ewaluacji programu nauczania języków obcych w polskiej i angielskiej szkole ponadgimnazjalnej? Kluczowymi aspektami badań były sposoby przeprowadzania ewaluacji programu nauczania języka obcego oraz ocena skuteczności pracy z poszczególnymi programami nauczania w opinii nauczycieli.

W celu odpowiedzi na powyższe pytania zostały przeprowadzone badania pilotażowe w polskim liceum ogólnokształcącym oraz angielskim the sixth form college oraz badanie główne w czterech polskich liceach ogólnokształcących i czterech angielskich szkołach

ponadgimnazjalnych typu the sixth form college. Następnie dokonano przetworzenia oraz wnikliwej analizy danych w celu wskazania podobieństw i różnic związanych z dziewięcioma zagadnieniami badawczymi oraz wyodrębnieniu przykładów dobrych i innowacyjnych praktyk edukacyjnych zwiększających jakość nauczania. Oryginalność zdefiniowanego tematu badań przejawia się w wyborze zakresu badanych zagadnień oraz przyjętej płaszczyźnie badawczej obejmującej dwa różne kraje. Skutkiem tego, badania rzucają nowe światło na sposób nauczania języków obcych w tych krajach. Uzyskane wyniki na poziomie teoretycznym pozwoliły pogłębić wiedzę na temat sposobów nauczania języków obcych w polskich i angielskich szkołach ponadgimnazjalnych. Rezultaty badań mają szerokie zastosowanie praktyczne, w szczególności dla nauczycieli języków obcych, i mogą zostać wykorzystane na lekcjach języka obcego jako innowacyjne przykłady dobrych praktyk podnoszących jakość kształcenia językowego.

References

- Allwright, Dick and Kathleen M. Bailey. 1991. *Focus on the language classroom: An introduction to classroom research for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ammon, Ulrich. 2012. "Language policy in the European Union (EU)", in: Bernard Spolsky (ed.), *Language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 570-591.
- Aspinwall, Kath T., Tim Simkins, John F. Wilkinson and M. John McAuley. 1992. *Managing evaluation in education*. London: Routledge.
- Assessment and Qualifications Alliance. 2014. "Uniform mark scale (UMS)". (www.aqa.org.uk/exams-administration/about-results/uniform-mark-scale) (date of access: 25 Apr. 2014).
- Assessment and Qualifications Alliance. 2013. *Guide to the Uniform Mark Scale(UMS)*. (www.store.aqa.org.uk/over/stat_pdf/UNIFORMMARKS-LEAFLET.PDF) (date of access: 25 Apr. 2014).
- Assessment and Qualifications Alliance. 2012. *Assessment and Qualifications Alliance Home Page*. (<http://web.aqa.org.uk/about-us/http://web.aqa.org.uk/about-us>) (date of access: 11 Dec. 2012).
- Assessment and Qualification Alliance. 2007. *GCE AS and A Level specification. French/German/Spanish. AS exams 2009 onwards. A2 exams 2010 onwards*. Manchester: AQA. (<http://store.aqa.org.uk/qual/gce/pdf/AQA-2650-2660-2695-W-SP.PDF>) (date of access: 11 Dec. 2012).
- Assessment and Qualification Alliance. 2013. *AS and A Level specification. French/German/Spanish. For exams from June 2014 onwards. For certification*

- from June 2014 onwards. Manchester: AQA.
 (<http://filestore.aqa.org.uk/subjects/specifications/alevel/AQA-2650-2660-2695-W-SP-14.PDF>) (date of access: 2 May 2014).
- Association of Colleges. 2015. "About colleges". (www.aoc.co.uk/en/about_colleges/)
 (date of access: 19. Sep. 2015).
- Baizerman, Michael. 2009. "Deepening understanding of managing evaluation", in:
 Donald W. Compton and Michael Baizerman (eds.), *Managing program evaluation: Towards explicating professional practice. New directions for evaluation*
 121. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 87-98.
- Baizerman, Michael and Donald W. Compton. 2009. "A perspective on managing
 evaluation", in: Donald W. Compton and Michael Baizerman (eds.), *Managing
 program evaluation: Towards explicating professional practice. New Directions
 for Evaluation* 121. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 7-15.
- Baldauf, Richard B., Minglin Li and Shouhui Zhao. 2010. "Language acquisition man-
 agement inside and outside the school", in: Bernard Spolsky and Francis M. Hult
 (eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell,
 233-250.
- Beacco, Jean-Claude and Michael Byram. 2003. *Guide for development of language
 education policies in Europe. From linguistic diversity to plurilingual education*.
 Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Benson, Phil. 2009. "Making sense of autonomy in language learning", in: Richard
 Pemberton, Sarah Toogood and Andy Barfield (eds.), *Maintaining control:
 Autonomy and language learning*. Aberdeen: Hong Kong University Press, 13-
 26.
- Benson, Phil. 2001. *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. Harlow:
 Longman.
- Benson, Phil. 1997. "The philosophy and politics of learner autonomy", in: Phil Benson
 and Peter Voller (eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning*. Lon-
 don and New York: Longman, 18-34.
- Benson, Phil and Peter Voller (eds.). 1997. *Autonomy and independence in language
 learning*. London and New York: Longman.
- Bereday, George Z. F. 1964. *Comparative method in education*. New York: Holt,
 Rinehart and Winston.

- Berk, Richard. 2010. "Recent perspectives on the regression discontinuity design", in: Alex R. Piquero and David Weisburd (eds.), *Handbook of quantitative criminology*. New York: Springer, 563-579.
- "Blair goes to war on bad head teachers". 1997. *The Herald*, 16 May. 1997. (www.heraldscotland.com/news/12325308.Blair_goes_to_war_on_bad_head_teachers/) (date of access: 8 Jun. 2016).
- Boldizsár, Gabor. 2003. *An introduction to the current European context in language teaching*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Borek, Agnieszka. 2010. "Metody i narzędzia ewaluacji zewnętrznej" [Methods and tools in external evaluation], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Odpowiedzialność* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Responsibility]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 25-36.
- Boslaugh, Sarah and Watters, Paul Andrew. 2008. *Statistics in a nutshell. A desktop quick reference*. Sebastopol: O'Reilly.
- Brett, David and Marta González-Lloret. 2011. "Technology-enhanced materials", in: Michael H. Long and Catherine J. Doughty (eds.). *The handbook of language teaching*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 351-369.
- Bright, William (ed.). 1992. *International encyclopaedia of linguistics*. Vol. 1-4: 310-311. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Brown, H. Douglas. 2004. *Language assessment. Principles and classroom practice*. New York, Longman.
- Brown, James D. 1995. *The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.
- Bruhn, John and Howard M. Rebach. 2007. *Evaluation research intervention and social change*. New York: Springer.
- Brundrett, Mark, Neil Burton and Robert Smith (eds.). 2003. *Leadership in education*. London: Sage Publications.
- Bryman, Alan. 2004. *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brzezińska, Anna. 2000. Miejsce ewaluacji w procesie kształcenia [The role of evaluation in the educational process], in: Anna Brzezińska and Jerzy Brzeziński (eds.), *Ewaluacja procesu kształcenia w szkole wyższej*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Fundacji Humaniora, 93-116.

- Brzezińska, Anna and Jerzy Brzeziński. 2000. *Ewaluacja procesu kształcenia w szkole wyższej* [Evaluation of the educational process in the school of higher education]. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Fundacji Humaniora.
- Butler, Christopher. 1985. *Statistics in linguistics*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Byram, Michael (ed.). 2004. *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning*. London: Routledge.
- Camilleri, Antoinette. 2000. "The development of cognitive processes", in: Anne-Brit Fenner and David Newby (eds.), *Approaches to material design in European textbooks: Implementing the principles of authenticity, learner autonomy, cultural awareness*. Graz: European Centre for Modern Languages, 13-14.
- Candelier, Michael (ed.). 2004. *Janua Linguarum – The gateway to languages. The introduction of the language awareness into the curriculum: Awakening to languages*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing.
- Celuch, Małgorzata. 2012. "Konkurs na dyrektora szkoły-krok po kroku". (www.oficynamm.pl/oferta_elementy/do_pobrania/szkola/ndsp_artykul.pdf) (date of access: 23 Mar. 2014).
- Cenoz, Jasone and Durk Gorter. 2012. "Language policy in education: additional languages", in: Bernard Spolsky (ed.), *Language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 301-319.
- Central Examination Board. 2010. *Informator o egzaminie maturalnym z języka obcego nowożytnego od roku szkolnego 2011/2012* [The guide to the final upper secondary examination in a modern foreign language from the school year 2011/2012]. Warszawa: Centralna Komisja Egzaminacyjna.
- Central Examination Board. 2013. *Informator o egzaminie maturalnym z języka angielskiego od roku szkolnego 2014/2015* [The guide to the final upper secondary examination in a modern foreign language from the school year 2014/2015]. Warszawa: Centralna Komisja Egzaminacyjna.
- Central Examination Board. 2013d. "Informator o egzaminie maturalnym od roku szkolnego 2014/2015. Część ogólna" [The guide to the final upper secondary examination from the school year 2014/2015. General information]. Warszawa: Centralna Komisja Egzaminacyjna.
- Central Examination Board. 2012. "Zadania Centralnej Komisji Egzaminacyjnej" [The tasks of the Central Examination Board].

- (<http://www.cke.edu.pl/index.php?option=content&task=view&id=22&Itemid=44>) (date of Access: 10 Dec. 2012).
- Chancellery of the Sejm. 1999. "Ustawa z dnia 7 października 1999r. o języku polskim", in: *Dz.U.1999 Nr 90 poz. 999*.
(<http://isap.sejm.gov.pl/DetailsServlet?id=WDU19990900999>) (date of access: 6 Oct. 2013).
- Chancellery of the Sejm. 2005. "Ustawa z dnia 1 stycznia 1999r. Przepisy wprowadzające reformę ustroju szkolnego" [The Act of Parliament of 1 January 1999. Regulations introducing the school system reform].
(<http://isap.sejm.gov.pl/DetailsServlet?id=WDU19990120096>) (date of access: 16 Mar. 2014).
- Chancellery of the Sejm. 2014. "Ustawa z dnia 7 września 1991r. o systemie oświaty" [The Act of Parliament of 7 September 1991 about the education system].
(<http://isap.sejm.gov.pl/DetailsServlet?id=WDU19910950425&min=1>) (date of access: 16 Mar. 2014).
- Chappuis, Jan and Rick Stiggins. 2009. "Supporting teacher. The learning-team model helps teachers make changes in practice that lead to improvement of students achievement", *Educational Leadership* 66, 5: 56-60.
- Chartered Institute of Legal Executives. 2014. "The legal system of the United Kingdom". (www.cilex.org.uk/about_cilex_lawyers/the_uk_legal_system.aspx) (date of access: 5 Apr. 2014).
- Chater, Pauline. 1984. *Marking and assessment in English*. London: Methuen.
- Chaudron, Craig. 1990. *Second language classrooms. Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chelimsky, Eleanor. 1997. "Praktyka ewaluacyjna dzisiaj" [The practice of evaluation today]. (Translated by Michał Kowalski), in: Leszek Korporowicz (ed.), *Ewaluacja w edukacji* [Evaluation in education], Warszawa: Oficyna Naukowa, 244-259.
- Ciężka, Beata. 2012. „Koncepcja metodologiczna ewaluacji w nadzorze pedagogicznym w kontekście czterech generacji ewaluacji, czyli gdzie jesteśmy na „drzewie ewolucji ewaluacji?” [Methodological concept of evaluation in pedagogical supervision in the context of four generations of evaluation, in other words, where we are in the „tree of evaluation evolution?”], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiwicz (ed.).

2012. *Jak być jeszcze lepszym? Ewaluacja w edukacji* [How to be better? Evaluation in education]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 69-89.
- Ciężka, Beata. 2005a. „Planowanie ewaluacji” [Planning of the evaluation], in: *Ewaluacja – kwestie ogólne*. Warszawa: Polskie Towarzystwo Ewaluacyjne, 13-18.
- Ciężka, Beata. 2005. “Pojęcie ewaluacji i jej rodzaje” [Defining evaluation and its types], in: *Ewaluacja – kwestie ogólne*. Warszawa: Polskie Towarzystwo Ewaluacyjne, 3-7.
- Ciężka, Beata. 2010a. “Stań mocno na nogach, czyli jak przygotować ewaluację w pięciu krokach” [To establish yourself on firm footing that is how to prepare evaluation in five steps], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). 2010. *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Konteksty* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Contexts]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 55-69.
- Ciężka, Beata. 2010b. „Planowanie ewaluacji wewnętrznej w szkole (placówce) wraz z przykładami projektów ewaluacji” [Planning internal evaluation in a school (an institution) including examples of evaluation projects], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). 2010b. *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Autonomia* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Autonomy]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 83-107.
- Ciolan, Lucian. 2010. “W trosce o wysoką jakość raportu z ewaluacji – kilka uniwersalnych prawd” [Concerns about the high quality of the evaluation report – a few universal truths], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Odpowiedzialność* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Responsibility]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 71-78.
- Cobarrubas, Juan and Fishman, Joshua. 1983. *Progress in language planning. International perspectives*. Berlin: Mouton.
- Cohen, Louis and Lawrence Manion. 1995. *A guide to teaching practice*. (3rd edition.) London: Routledge.
- Cohen, Louis and Lawrence Manion. 1994. *Research methods in education*. London: Routledge.
- Commission of the European Communities. 2003. *Promoting language learning and linguistic diversity: An action plan 2004-2006*. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities.

- The Constitution of the Republic of Poland. 1997.
- Cook, Guy. 1989. *Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cooper, Robert L. 1989. *Language planning and social change*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Council of Europe. 2001. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
(www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf) (date of access: 26 Oct. 2013).
- Council of Europe. 2012. "Education and languages, language policy".
(www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/) (date of access: 27 Oct. 2013).
- Council of Europe. 2001a. "European Year of Languages: Parliamentary Assembly Recommendation 1539 (2001)"
(<https://wcd.coe.int/ViewDoc.jsp?id=244921&Site=COE>) (date of access: 18 Oct. 2013).
- Council of Europe. 2006. "Decision number 1720/2006/EC of the European Parliament and the Council of 15 November 2006 establishing an action program in the field of lifelong learning", (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/JOHtml.do?uri=OJ:L:2006:327:SOM:en:HTML>) (date of access: 18 Oct 2013).
- Council of Europe. 2006. "Council regulation (EC) No 1083/2006 of July 2006 laying down general provisions on the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund and the Cohesion Fund and repealing Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999", (eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L2006:210:0025:0025:EN:PDF) (date of access: 04 Feb. 2014).
- Constitutional Tribunal. 2014. „Ustawa o Trybunale Konstytucyjnym”
(<http://trybunal.gov.pl/o-trybunale/akty-normatywne/ustawa-o-trybunale-konstytucyjnym/>) (date of access: 16 Mar. 2014).
- Council of Ministers. 2006. "Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów z dnia 5 maja 2006r. w sprawie utworzenia Ministerstwa Edukacji Narodowej oraz zniesienia Ministerstwa Edukacji Narodowej i Nauki".
(http://bip.men.gov.pl/index.php?option=com_content&view=section&layout=blog&id=4&Itemid=14) (date of access: 5 Oct. 2013).

- Coupland, Nikolas (ed.). 2010. *The handbook of language and globalization*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Cronbach, Lee J., Susan R. Ambron, Sanford M. Dornbush, Robert D. Hess, Robert C. Hornik, D. C. Philips, Decker F. Walker and Stephen S. Weiner. 1980. *Towards reform in program evaluation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Crystal, David. 2007. *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, David. 1996. *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, David. 2002. *The English language. A guided tour of the language*. London: Penguin Books.
- Cunningsworth, Alan. 1984. *Evaluating and selecting EFL teaching materials*. London: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Członkowska-Naumiuk, Małgorzata. 2012. "Nauka języków obcych w programie Erasmus" [Teaching foreign languages in Erasmus program]. *Języki obce w szkole* 3: 89-91.
- Daust, Denise. 1997. "Language planning and language reform", in: Florian Coulmas (ed.), *The Handbook of Sociolinguistics*, Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, 436-452.
- Davidson, E. Jane. 2005. *Evaluation methodology basics. The nuts and bolts of sound evaluation*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Davis, Alan and Catherine Elder (eds.). 2006. *The handbook of applied linguistics*. Malden: Blackwell Publishing.
- Department for Education. 2012. "Consultation on the draft Order making modern foreign languages statutory for Key Stage 2; and the proposal that requires schools teach one or more of seven languages at Key Stage 2".
(<http://www.education.gov.uk/aboutdfe/departmentalinformation/consultations/a00216689/modern-foreign-languages>) (date of access: 12 Dec. 2012).
- Department for Education. 2011. *The framework for the National Curriculum. A report by the Expert Panel for the National Curriculum review*. London: Department for Education.
- Department for Education. 2013. "Languages programs of study: key stage 2. National curriculum in England".

- (https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/239042/PRIMARY_national_curriculum) (date of access: 3 Apr. 2016).
- Department for Education. 2016. "Policy paper. English Baccalaureate (EBcc)". (<https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/english-baccalaureate-ebcc/english-baccalaureate-ebcc>) (date of access: 2 Apr. 2016).
- Department for Education and Employment. 1999. *The National Curriculum. Handbook for primary teachers in England www.nc.uk.net. Key stages 1 and 2*. London: Department for Education and Employment.
- Department for Education and Skills. 2002. *Languages for all: A strategy for England*. Annesley: Department for Education and Skills.
- Department for Education and Skills. 2007. *Languages review*. Annesley: Department for Education and Skills.
- Department for Education and Employment. 2004. *The National Curriculum. Handbook for secondary teachers in England www.nc.uk.net. Key stages 3 and 4*. London: Department for Education and Employment.
- Derecka, Dorota, Tomasz Derecki and Zbigniew Sobór. 2012. *Poradnik dla dyrektora Liceum Ogólnokształcącego. Ramowe plany nauczania* [The guide for the general upper secondary school principal. Teaching frameworks]. Warszawa: Ośrodek Rozwoju Edukacji.
- Dimmock, Clive. 2003. "Leadership in learning-centred schools: cultural context, functions and qualities", in: Mark Brundrett, Neil Burton and Robert Smith (eds.). *Leadership in education*. London: Sage Publications, 3-22.
- The District Examination Board in Poznań. 2012. „Cele działania OKE w Poznaniu” [The action goals of OKE In Poznań]. (http://www.oke.poznan.pl/cms,743,cele_dzialania_oke_w_poznaniu.htm) (date of Access: 10 Dec. 2012).
- The District Examination Board in Poznań. 2014. "Wyniki Okręgu, województw i powiatów" [Results of the District, voivodships and counties]. (www.oke.poznan.pl/cms,1575,rok_2011.htm) (date of access: 29 Mar. 2014).
- The District Examination Board in Poznań. 2014a. "Wyniki Okręgu, województw i powiatów" [Results of the District, voivodships and counties]. (www.oke.poznan.pl/cms,2051,rok_2012.htm) (date of access: 29 Mar. 2014).

- The District Examination Board in Poznań. 2014b. "Wyniki Okręgu, województw i powiatów" [Results of the District, voivodships and counties].
(www.oke.poznan.pl/cms,2680,rok_2013.htm) (date of access: 29 Mar. 2014).
- Dorczak, Roman. 2013. "Dyrektor szkoły jako przywódca edukacyjny-próba określenia kompetencji kluczowych" [A head of the school as a leader in education-the attempt to define the key competences], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). *Przywództwo i zmiana w edukacji. Ewaluacja jako mechanizm doskonalenia*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 75-88.
- Dörnyei, Zoltán. 2008. *Questionnaires in second language research. Construction, administration and processing*. London: Routledge.
- Drozd, Ewa and Laura Piotrowska. 2010. „Rola zawodowa wizytatora do spraw ewaluacji” [The Professional role of evaluation inspectors], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Odpowiedzialność* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Responsibility]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 81-86.
- Duszak, Anna. 1998. *Tekst, dyskurs, komunikacja międzykulturowa* [Text, discourse, intercultural Communication]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN SA.
- DYLAN. 2006. "DYLAN: Language dynamics and management of diversity"
(http://www.dylan-project.org/Dylan_en/home/home.php) (date of access: 18 Oct. 2013).
- Edexcel. 2013. *Specification GCE French*. London: A Pearson Company.
([www.edexcel.com/migrationdocuments/GCENewGCE/UA035232_GCE_Lin_French_Issue_3\(1\).pdf](http://www.edexcel.com/migrationdocuments/GCENewGCE/UA035232_GCE_Lin_French_Issue_3(1).pdf)) (date of access: 2 May 2014).
- Edexcel. 2012. *Edexcel Home Page*. (<http://www.edexcel.com/Aboutus/who-we-are/Pages/Whoweare.aspx>) (date of access: 11 Dec. 2012).
- Edexcel. 2010. *Specification. GCE French*. London: A Pearson Company.
(<http://www.edexcel.com/migrationdocuments/GCE%20New%20GCE/UA024841%20GCE%20in%20French%20Iss2%20210510.pdf>) (date of access: 11 Dec. 2012).
- Education Advisers. 2009. *E- guide. How to choose an independent sixth form college*. Ewhurst: Education Advisers Limited.
- Ellis, Rod. 2012. *Language teaching research and language pedagogy*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

- Ellis, Rod. 2012a. *The study of second language acquisition*. Second Edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- European Centre for Modern Languages. 2013. *The European Centre for Modern Languages Home Page*. (www.ecml.at) (date of access: 27 Oct. 2013).
- European Centre for Modern Languages. 2015. "A centre to promote quality language education in Europe". (www.ecml.at/AboutUs/AboutUs-Overview/tabid/172/language/en_GB/Default.aspx) (date of access: 12 Mar. 2016).
- European Commission. 2013b. "About the European Commission". (www.ec.europa.eu/about/index_en.htm) (date of access: 27 Oct. 2013).
- European Commission. 2006. *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at school in Europe*. Brussels: Eurydice.
- European Commission. 2005. "ELAN: Effects on the European economy of the shortages of foreign language skills in enterprise". (ec.europa.eu/languages/documents/doc421_en.pdf) (date of access: 18 Oct. 2013).
- European Commission. 2014. "Erasmus+ program guide. Valid as of 1 January 2014". (ec.europa.eu/programs/erasmus-plus/documents/erasmus-plus-program-guide_en.pdf) (date of access: 30 Jun. 2014).
- European Commission. 2005. *The European Indicator of Language Competence*. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities.
- European Commission. 2013. "European Language Label". (<http://ec.europa.eu/languages/european-language-label/>) (date of access: 18 Oct 2013).
- European Commission. 2013a. "European Survey on Language Competences and European benchmark". (www.ec.europa.eu/languages-of-europe/language-competence_en.htm) (date of access: 26 Oct. 2013).
- European Commission. 2007. *Framework for the European survey on language competences*. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities.
- European Commission. 2013c. "Languages in specific areas". (www.ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/languages-in-specific-areas_en.htm) (date of access: 27 Oct. 2013).

- European Commission. 2013d. “European encyclopedia on national education systems”.
(www.webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/United-Kingdom-England:Overview) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- European Commission. 2003. *Promoting language learning and linguistic diversity: an Action Plan 2004-2006*. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities.
- European Commission. 2011. “Lingua franca: chimera or reality?”.
(http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/publications/studies/index_en.htm) (date of access: 28 Aug. 2013).
- European Commission. 2012a. *Key data on teaching languages at school in Europe – 2012 edition*. Brussels: Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency.
- European Commission. 2012c. “Specific ongoing reforms and policy developments at national level”, in: *European Encyclopedia of National Education Systems*.
(https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/United-KingdomEngland:Specific_Ongoing_Reforms_and_Policy_Developments_at_National_Level) (date of access: 10 Dec.2012).
- European Commission. 2012b. “Teaching and learning in upper secondary education. Curriculum, subjects, number of hours”, in: *European Encyclopedia of National Education Systems*.
(https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/United-KingdomEngland:Teaching_and_Learning_in_General_Upper_Secondary_Education) (date of access: 10 Dec. 2012).
- European Commission. 2015. “Erasmus+ Program. Annual Report 2014”.
(http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/statistics/erasmus-plus-annual-report_en.pdf) (date of access: 29 Mar. 2016).
- European Commission. 1995. “Teaching and learning: Towards the learning society”.
(<http://ec.europa.eu/white-papers/>) (date of access: 14 Oct. 2013).
- European Commission. 2016.”Languages. Supporting language learning and linguistic diversity”. (ec.europa.eu/languages/policy/strategic-framework/index_en.htm)
(date of access: 12 Mar. 2016).
- European Council. 1997. “Council Resolution of 16 Dec 1997 on the early teaching of European Union languages”, in: *Official Journal of European Communities*.
(<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/pl/legis/latest/chap1630.htm>) (date of access: 14 Oct. 2013).

- European Council. 1995. “Council Resolution of 31 March 1995 on improving and diversifying language learning and teaching within the education systems of the European Union”, in: *Official Journal of European Communities*. (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/pl/legis/latest/chap1630.htm>) (date of access: 14 Oct. 2013).
- European Council. 2002. “Council Resolution of 14 February 2002 on the promotion of the linguistic diversity and language learning in the framework of the implementation of the objectives of the European Year of Languages 2001”, in: *Official Journal of the European Communities*. (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32002G0223%2801%29:PL:NOT>) (date of access: 18 Oct. 2013).
- European Council. 2000. “Decision no. 1934/2000/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 July 2000 on the European Year of Languages 2001”, in: *Official Journal of the European Communities* (L232). (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32000D1934:EN:HTM>) (date of access: 5 Oct. 2013).
- European Council. 2007. *From linguistic diversity to plurilingual education: Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe. Executive version*. Strasbourg: Language Policy Division.
- European Funds Portal. 2014. “Evaluation”, (www.ewaluacja.gov.pl/english/Strony/Evaluation.aspx) (date of access: 4 Feb. 2014).
- European Parliament. 2015. “Committees. Culture and Education”. (www.europarl.europa.eu/committees/en/cult/home.html) (date of access: 27 Jun. 2015).
- European Parliament. 2015a. “Legislative powers”. (www.europa.eu/aboutparliament/en/2015/0201PVL0EU0004/Powers-and-procedures) (date of access: 12 Mar. 2016).
- European Union. 2013. “EU institutions and bodies”. (www.europa.eu/pol/mult/index_en.htm) (date of access: 27 Oct. 2013).
- European Union. 2015. “Committee of the Regions”. (www.europa.eu/about-eu/institutions-bodies/cor/index_en.htm) (date of access: 27 Jun. 2015).

- European Union. 2015b. "Education, Youth, Culture and Research (EDUC)".
(www.cor.europa.eu/en/activities/commissions/educ/Pages/educ.aspx) (date of access: 27 Jun. 2015).
- Eurydice. 2015. "Poland. Organization of general upper secondary education",
https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/Poland:Organisation_of_General_Upper_Secondary_Education) (date of access: 5 Sep. 2015).
- Farber, Kathy and William Armaline. 2012. "Zespoły nauczycieli jako zasadniczy element demokratycznej szkoły" [Teacher teams as a fundamental element of a democratic school], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.), *Jakość edukacji. Różnorodne perspektywy*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 227-234.
- Fayol, Henri. 1952. *General and industrial management*. London: Pitman.
- Fenner, Anne-Brit. 2000. "Learner autonomy", in: Anne-Brit Fenner and David Newby (eds.), *Approaches to material design in European textbooks: Implementing the principles of authenticity, learner autonomy, cultural awareness*. Graz: European Centre for Modern Languages, 78-139.
- Fenner, Anne-Brit and David Newby. 2000. *Approaches to material design in European textbooks: Implementing the principles of authenticity, learner autonomy, cultural awareness*. Graz: European Centre for Modern Languages.
- Ferguson, George A. and Yoshio Takane. 2003. *Analiza statystyczna w psychologii i pedagogice* [Statistical analysis in psychology and pedagogy]. (Translated by Michał Zagrodzki.) Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Fettes, Mark. 1997. "Language planning and education", in: Ruth Wodak and David Corson (eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education. Volume 1. Language policy and political issues in education*. Dordrecht, Boston, London: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 13-22.
- Fischer, John M. and Jeff Taylor. 2012. "Wspieranie zespołów nauczycieli w procesie podejmowania decyzji" [Supporting teacher teams in the decision making process], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.), *Jakość edukacji. Różnorodne perspektywy*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 235-249.
- Fituch, Marta. 2007. „Kształcenie językowe w polskiej szkole średniej na tle rozwiązań europejskich” [Language education in Polish upper secondary schools in comparison with the European solutions], in: Hanna Komorowska (ed.), *Nauczanie ję-*

- zyków obcych – Polska a Europa*. [Teaching foreign languages – Poland and Europe]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo SWPS Academica, 156-180.
- Foundation for the Development of the Education System. 2011. *Comenius*. Warszawa: Fundacja Rozwoju Systemu Edukacji Narodowej, Narodowa Agencja Programu “Uczenie się przez całe życie”.
- Foundation for the Development of the Education System. 2012. *Erasmus w Polsce w roku akademickim 2010/11* [Erasmus in Poland in the academic year 2010/2011]. Warszawa: Fundacja Rozwoju Systemu Edukacji.
- Foundation for the Development of the Education System. 2012a. *Program Grundtvig: Niezawodna edukacja dorosłych* [Grundtvig program: An unfailing way in adult education]. Warszawa: Fundacja Rozwoju Systemu Edukacji.
- Foundation for the Development of the Education System. 2012-2013. “Leonardo da Vinci”. (www.leonardo.org.pl/o-programie/cele-programu) (date of access: 26 Oct. 2013).
- Foundation for the Development of the Education System. 2013-2015. “O programie Erasmus+”. (www.erasmusplus.org.pl/o-programie) (date of access 20 Jun. 2015).
- Gârboan, Raluca A. 2009. “Concepts of research methods and statistics used in program evaluation”, *Transylvanian Review of Administrative Sciences* 26: 54-61.
- Garringer, Michael and Patti MacRae. 2008. *Building effective peer mentoring programs in schools. An introductory guide*. Folsom: Mentoring Resource Center.
- Gnitecki, Janusz. 1989. *Badania porównawcze nad systemami kształcenia* [Comparative studies of educational systems]. Zielona Góra: Wydawnictwo Wyższej Szkoły Pedagogicznej w Zielonej Górze.
- Godwin-Jones, Roberta. 2011. “Emerging technologies: Autonomous language learning”, *Language Learning and Technology* 3, 15: 4-11.
- Government Digital Service. 2012. “Early Years Foundation Stage”. (<https://www.gov.uk/early-years-foundation-stage>) (date of access: 9 Dec. 2012).
- Government Digital Service. 2015. “School leaving age”. (<http://www.gov.uk/when-you-can-leave-school>) (date of access: 23 Mar. 2016).
- Green, Jackie and Jane South. 2006. *Key concepts for public health practice: Evaluation*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

- Grundman, Judith. 2002. *Cooperative learning in an English as a second language classroom*. Saint Paul: Hamline University.
- Guba, Egon G. and Yvonna S. Lincoln. 1989. *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Gunter, Helen M. 2002. *Leaders and leadership in education*. London: Sage Publications.
- Guthrie, G. P. 1982. *An ethnography of bilingual education in a Chinese community*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Illinois at Urbana Champaign.
- Hamilton, David. 1976. *Curriculum evaluation*. London: Open Books.
- Hampshire County Council. 2014. "Hampshire school holidays and school term dates". (www3.hants.gov.uk/education/schools/schoolholidays) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- Hague, Paul. 2002. *Badania marketingowe. Planowanie, metodologia i ocena wyników* [Market research: a guide to planning, methodology and evaluation]. (Translated by Magda Witkowska.) Gliwice: HELION.
- Harajová, Alica. 2009. "Activating methods in foreign language teaching", *Humanising Language Teaching*, 5: 1-5.
- Harmer, Jeremy. 2002. *The practice of English language teaching*. (3rd edition.) Harlow: Longman.
- Haugen, Einar. 1959. "Planning for a standard language in modern Norway", *Anthropological linguistics*, 1, 3: 8-21.
- Haynes, Anthony. 2010. *The complete guide to lesson planning and preparation*. London: Continuum.
- Hedge, Tricia. 2008. *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hogan, Christine. 2003. *Practical facilitation: A toolkit of techniques*. London: Kogan Page.
- Hopkins, David. 2009. *A teacher's guide to classroom research*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Hörner, Wolfgang and Inetta Nowosad. 2007. "Poland", in: Wolfgang Hörner, Hans Döbert, Botho von Kopp and Wolfgang Mitter (eds.), *The education systems of Europe*. Dordrecht: Springer, 590-606.

- Hörner, Wolfgang, Hans Döbert, Batho von Kopp and Wolfgang Mitter. (eds.). 2007. *The education systems of Europe*. Dordrecht: Springer.
- House, Ernest R. (ed.). 1986. *New directions in educational evaluation*. Oxon: Routledge Falmer.
- House, Ernest R. 1997a. "Ewaluacja i jej uprawomocnianie. Główne podejścia" [Approaches to evaluation. The major approaches]. (Translated by Zbyszko Melosik.), in: Leszek Korporowicz (ed.), *Ewaluacja w edukacji* [Evaluation in education], Warszawa: Oficyna Naukowa, 95-119.
- Hunt, Marilyn. 2001. "Principles and theoretical approaches in assessment", in: Arthur Lore and Stella Hurd (eds.), *Supporting lifelong language learning. Theoretical and practical approaches*. London: The Open University, 152-164.
- IEA. 2011. *International Association for the Evaluation of Evaluation Achievement Home Page*. (<http://www.iea.nl/>) (date of access: 18 Dec. 2014).
- Illés, Éva. 2012. "Learner autonomy revisited", *ELT Journal*, 4(66): 505-513.
- Information Commissioner's Office. 2011. "The employment practices code". (www.ico.org.uk/Global/~media/documents/library/Data_Protection/Detailed-specialist_guides/the_employment_practices_code.ashx) (date of access: 12 Apr. 2014).
- Jahr, Ernst H. 1992. "Sociolinguistics: minorities and sociolinguistics", in: William Bright (ed.), *International encyclopedia of linguistics*. Vol. 4. New York: Oxford University Press, 12-15.
- Jameson, Jill. 2006. *Leadership in post compulsory education. Inspiring leaders of the future*. Oxon: David Fulton Publishers.
- Jernudd, Björn and Jiří Nekvapil. 2012. "History of the field: a sketch", in: Bernard Spolsky (ed.), *Language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 16-36.
- Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation. 2014. "Program evaluation standard statements". (<http://www.jcsee.org/program-evaluation-standards-statements>) (date of access: 07 Feb. 2014).
- Joint Council for Qualifications. 2013. "Construction of the common timetable". (<http://www.jcq.org.uk/exams-office/key-dates-and-timetables>) (date of access: 13 Oct. 2013).
- Joint Office for Qualifications. 2013a. "Results 2013". (www.GCEResultsBooklet~15August2013.pdf) (date of access: 26 Apr. 2014).

- Joint Office for Qualifications. 2012. "Results 2012". (www.GCEResults2012.pdf) (date of access: 26 Apr. 2014).
- Joint Office for Qualifications. 2011. "Results 2011". (www.JCQRESULTS18-08-11.pdf) (date of access: 26 Apr. 2014).
- Johnson, Karen E. 1998. *Understanding communication in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Journal of Laws. 2007. "Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 30 kwietnia 2007 roku w sprawie warunków i sposobu oceniania, klasyfikowania i promowania uczniów i słuchaczy oraz przeprowadzania sprawdzianów i egzaminów w szkołach publicznych"[The Decree of the Minister of Education of 30th April on conditions and methods of assessment, classification and promoting students and auditors and on scheduling tests and exams in state schools], in: *Journal of Laws*, 30 April 2007, number 83 (562).
- Journal of Laws. 2009. "Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 7 października 2009r. w sprawie nadzoru pedagogicznego"[The Decree of the Minister of Education of 7th October 2009 on pedagogic supervision], in: *Journal of Laws*, 9 October 2009, number 168 (1324).
- Journal of Laws. 2009a. "Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 12 marca 2009r. w sprawie szczegółowych kwalifikacji wymaganych od nauczycieli oraz określenia szkół i wypadków, w których można zatrudnić nauczycieli niemających wyższego wykształcenia lub ukończonego zakładu kształcenia nauczycieli" [The Decree of the Minister of Education of 12th March 2009 on the issue of detailed qualifications required from teachers and defining schools and situations when a teacher who has not got higher education degree or teaching college qualifications can be employed], in: *Journal of Laws*, 27 March 2009, 50 (400).
- Journal of Laws. 2010. "Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 8 kwietnia 2010r. w sprawie regulaminu konkursu na stanowisko dyrektora publicznej szkoły lub publicznej placówki oraz trybu pracy komisji konkursowej" [The Decree of the Minister of Education of 8th April 2010 on the drill of regulations for the position of the head of the state school or a state educational institution and the procedures of the open competition commission], in: *Journal of Laws*, 13 April 2010, number 60 (373).

- Journal of Laws. 2012. "Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 7 lutego 2012r. w sprawie ramowych planów nauczania w szkołach publicznych" [The Decree of the minister of Education of 7th of February 2012 on teaching frameworks in state schools], in: *Journal of Laws*, 22 February 2012, 204.
- Journal of Laws. 2012a. "Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 21 czerwca 2012r. w sprawie dopuszczenia do użytku w szkole programów wychowania przedszkolnego i programów nauczania oraz dopuszczania do użytku szkolnego podręczników" [The Decree of the Minister of Education of 21st of June 2012 on the issue of passing a syllabi for pre-school education and syllabi and passing coursebooks as appropriate for the use in schools], in: *Journal of Laws*, 3 July 2012, 752.
- Journal of Laws. 2013. "Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 10 maja 2013r. zmieniające rozporządzenie w sprawie nadzoru pedagogicznego"[The Decree of the Minister of Education of 10th of May 2013 on changing the decree of pedagogic supervision], in: *Journal of Laws*, 14 May 2013, 560.
- Jurczyk, Tomasz, Jakub Kołodziejczyk, Elżbieta Komarnicka, Tadeusz Polański, Jadwiga Romaniuk, Jacek Staromłyński and Irena Wojtanowicz-Stadler. 2012. "Proces edukacyjny i jego realizatorzy (czyli o współdziałaniu nauczycieli w zmieniającym świecie)" [The educational process and its executers (about teachers' cooperation in the changing world)], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.), *Jakość edukacji. Różnorodne perspektywy*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 263-272.
- Kasprzak, Tomasz. 2010. "Ewaluacja dla rozwoju. Raport jako dialog" [Evaluation for development. A report as a dialog], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Odpowiedzialność* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Responsibility]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 59-70.
- Kelly, Albert V. 2011. *The curriculum. Theory and practice*. (6th edition.) London: Sage.
- Kiely, Richard. 2009. "Small answers to the big question: Learning from language program evaluation", *Language Teaching Research* 13, 1: 99-116.
- Kiely, Richard and Pauline Rea-Dickins. 2005. *Program evaluation in language education*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Kennedy, Chris. 2011. "Challenges for language policy, language and development", in: Hywel Coleman (ed.), *Dreams and realities: Developing countries and the English language*. London: British Council, 2-15.
- King, Nigel and Horrocks, Christine. 2010. *Interviews in qualitative research*. Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Kletko-Mijelska, Marzena. 2007. Zreformowany system edukacji i jego wpływ na kształcenie i wychowanie dzieci w publicznych szkołach podstawowych. Studium politologiczne [The reformed education system and its influence on children's education in state primary schools. The study concerning political science]. [Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Śląsk.].
- Knapp, Karlfried and Barbara Seidlhofer (eds.). 2009. *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Komorowska, Hanna. 1995. *Konstrukcja, realizacja i ewaluacja programu nauczania* [Construction, realization and program evaluation]. Warszawa: Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych.
- Komorowska, Hanna. 1999. *O programach prawie wszystko* [Almost everything about programs]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwa Szkolne i Pedagogiczne.
- Komorowska, Hanna. 2002. *Metodyka nauczania języków obcych* [Methodology of teaching foreign languages]. Warszawa: Fraszka Edukacyjna.
- Komorowska, Hanna. 2002a. *Sprawdzanie umiejętności w nauce języka obcego. Kontrola-ocena-testowanie* [Testing skills in language learning. Controlling-assessment-testing]. Warszawa: Fraszka Edukacyjna.
- Komorowska, Hanna. 2004b. „Polityka językowa w polskim systemie oświatowym na tle rozwiązań europejskich” [Language Policy in Polish educational system in comparison with the European solutions]. *Języki Obce w Szkole* 2: 34-39.
- Komorowska, Hanna. 2007. "Polska polityka językowa na tle innych krajów Unii Europejskiej" [Polish language policy in comparison with the language policy of other European Union countries], in: Hanna Komorowska (ed.), *Nauczanie języków obcych - Polska a Europa*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Szkoły Wyższej Psychologii Społecznej "Academica", 13-36.
- Korporowicz, Leszek (ed.). 1997. *Ewaluacja w edukacji* [Evaluation in education]. Warszawa: Oficyna Naukowa.

- Kouhan, Beata. 2012. "Dyskurs edukacyjny na lekcji języka obcego w polskim liceum ogólnokształcącym a brytyjskim the sixth form college-wyniki badań porównawczych" [Educational discourse during foreign language lessons in Polish general upper secondary school and British sixth form college – the results of a comparative study], *Neofilolog* 38, 2: 201-222.
- Krzyżanowski, Michał and Ruth Wodak. 2011. "Political strategies and language policies: the European Union Lisbon strategy and its implications for the EU's language and multilingualism policy", *Language Policy* 10: 115-136.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. 2003. *Beyond methods: macrostrategies for language teaching*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press.
- Kunnan, Antony John and Eunice Eunhee Jang. 2011. "Diagnostic feedback in language assessment", in: Michael H. Long and Catherine J. Doughty (eds.), *The handbook of language teaching*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 610-627.
- Kvale, Steinar. 2010. *Prowadzenie wywiadów* [Doing interview]. (Translated by Agata Dziuban.) Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Langbein, Laura and Claire L. Felbinger. *Public program evaluation: A statistical guide*. Armonk: M. E. Sharpe.
- Lee, Naomi. 2014. *Collaborative learning for English language learners*. Madison: Wisconsin Center for Education Research.
- Legenhasen, Lienhard. 2009. „Autonomous language learning”, in: Karlfried Knapp and Barbara Seidlhofer (eds.), *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 373-400.
- Library of the European Parliament. 2013. Policy and legislative evaluation in the EU. ([www.europeanevaluation.org/files/LDM_BRI\(2013\)130483_REVEN.pdf](http://www.europeanevaluation.org/files/LDM_BRI(2013)130483_REVEN.pdf)) (date of access: 14 Mar. 2014).
- Liddicoat, Anthony J. 2013. *Language-in-education policies. The discursive construction of intercultural relations*. Bristol, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters.
- Little, David. 2011. *The European Language Portfolio. A guide to the planning, implementation and evaluation of whole-school projects*. Graz: European Centre for Modern Languages.
- Lo Bianco, Joseph. 2006. "Language planning as applied linguistics", in: Alan Davis and Catherine Elder (eds.), *The handbook of applied linguistics*. Malden: Blackwell Publishing, 738-762.

- Long, Michael H. and Catherine J. Doughty (eds.). 2011. *The handbook of language teaching*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Longman dictionary of English language and culture*. 1992. Harlow: Longman.
- Lore, Arthur and Stella Hurd (eds.). 2001. *Supporting lifelong language learning. Theoretical and practical approaches*. London: The Open University.
- Luoma, Sari. 2004. *Assessing speaking*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lynch, Brian. K. 1996. *Language program evaluation: Theory and practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Łobodzki, Mieczysław. 2006. *Metody i techniki badań pedagogicznych* [Methods and techniques in pedagogical research]. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Łobodzki, Mieczysław. 2004. *Wprowadzenie do metodologii badań pedagogicznych* [Introduction to pedagogical research methodology]. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Macfarlane, Eric. 1978. *Sixth form colleges*. London: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Macfarlane, Eric. 1993. *Education 16-19. In transition*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Mackey, Alison and Gass, Susan M. 2008. *Second language research. Methodology and design*. London: Routledge.
- Macmillan English Dictionary for advanced learners*. 2002. Oxford: Macmillan Education.
- Madalińska-Michalak, Joanna. 2013. „Przywództwo edukacyjne: Rola dyrektora w kreowaniu kultury organizacyjnej szkoły” [Leadership in education: the role of a head of the school in creating the school’s organizational culture], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). *Przywództwo i zmiana w edukacji. Ewaluacja jako mechanizm dokonywania*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 23-45.
- Madej, Paweł. 2011. “Wykorzystanie narzędzi ICT w nauczaniu języków obcych” [The use of ICT tools in foreign language teaching], *Języki Obce w Szkole* 3: 31-38.
- Magnuszewska, Zofia. 2005. “Europejska polityka językowa” [European language policy], in: Elżbieta Jastrzębska and Marek Kuczyński (eds.), *Europejska polityka językowa*. Zielona Góra: Oficyna Wydawnicza Uniwersytetu Zielonogórskiego, 9-18.
- Mathison, Sandra (ed.). 2005. *Encyclopedia of evaluation*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

- May, Stephen A., 1999. "School language policies", in: Ruth Wodak and David Corson (eds.), *Language policy and political issues in education. Encyclopedia of language and education*. Vol. 1. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 229-240.
- Mazurkiewicz, Grzegorz (ed.). 2010b. *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Autonomia* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Autonomy]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego.
- Mazurkiewicz, Grzegorz (ed.). 2010a. *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Konteksty* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Contexts]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego.
- Mazurkiewicz, Grzegorz (ed.). 2010c. *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Odpowiedzialność* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Responsibility]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego.
- Mazurkiewicz, Grzegorz. 2010d. „Po co szkołom ewaluacja?” [What do schools need evaluation for?], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Autonomia* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Autonomy]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 9-17.
- Mazurkiewicz, Grzegorz. 2012. *Edukacja i przywództwo. Modele mentalne jako bariery rozwoju* [Education and leadership. Mental models as barriers in improvement]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego.
- Mazurkiewicz, Grzegorz. 2012a. *Jakość edukacji. Różnorodne perspektywy* [The quality of education. Diverse perspectives]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego.
- Mazurkiewicz, Grzegorz. 2013. *Przywództwo i zmiana w edukacji. Ewaluacja jako mechanizm doskonalenia* [Leadership and change in education. Evaluation as a mechanism for improvement]. Kraków; Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego.
- Mazurkiewicz, Grzegorz and Joanna Berdzik. 2010. „System Ewaluacji Oświaty: model i procedura ewaluacji zewnętrznej” [Evaluation In Education System: the model and external evaluation procedure], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). 2010. *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Odpowiedzialność* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Responsibility]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 13-24.

- McKay, Sandra L. and Rani Rubdy. 2011. "The social and sociolinguistic contexts of language learning and teaching", in: Michael H. Long and Catherine J. Doughty (eds.), *The handbook of language teaching*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 9-25.
- McNamra, Tim. 2009. "Principles of testing and assessment", in: Karlfried Knapp and Barbara Seidlhofer (eds.), *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 607-627.
- Mesthrie, Rajend. 2010. "Sociolinguistics and sociology of language", in: Bernard Spolsky and Francis M. Hult (eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 66-82.
- Ministry of National Education. 2016. "Reforma edukacji – prezentacja projektów ustaw"[Educational reform – the presentation of the project bills]. (<https://men.gov.pl/pl/reforma-prawo-oswiatowe>) (date of access: 25 Sep. 2016).
- Ministry of National Education. 2009. "Podstawa programowa z komentarzami. Tom 3. Języki obce w szkole podstawowej, gimnazjum i liceum" [Core National Curriculum with comments. Volume 3. Foreign languages in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools]. (http://www.men.gov.pl/images/stories/pdf/Reforma/men_tom_3.pdf) (date of access: 9 Dec. 2012).
- Ministry of National Education and Science. 2005-2006. *Raport krajowy. Edukacja językowa w Polsce: język narodowy, regionalny, języki obce oraz języki mniejszości narodowych i etnicznych* [National report. Language education in Poland: national language, regional, foreign languages and national and ethnic minority languages]. Warszawa: Ministerstwo Edukacji i Nauki.
- Mizerek, Henryk. 2010b. „Efektywna autoewaluacja w szkole – jak ją sensownie zaprojektować i przeprowadzić?” [Effective selfevaluation in school – how to design and conduct it in a sensible way?], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.), *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Autonomia* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Autonomy], Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 19-62.
- Moraczewska, Barbara. 2010. *Szkolnictwo polskie w latach 1945-1975 z uwzględnieniem miasta Włocławka* [Polish education between 1945-1975 including Włocławek city]. Włocławek: Wydawnictwo Państwowej Wyższej Szkoły Zawodowej we Włocławku.

- Murphy, Dermot F. 1985. "Evaluation in language teaching: Assessment, accountability and awareness", in: J. Charles Alderson (ed.). *Evaluation*. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1-17.
- The National Archives. 2014. "Ofqual". (www.gov.uk/government/organisations/office-of-qualifications-and-examinations-regulation) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2014a. "Ofsted".
(www.gov.uk/government/organisations/ofsted) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2014b. "Education and Funding Agency".
(www.gov.uk/government/organisations/education-funding-agency) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2014c. "National College for Teaching and Leadership".
(www.education.gov.uk/nationalcollege/index/about-us.htm) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2014d. "The Office of the Children's Commissioner".
(www.gov.uk/government/organisations/office-of-the-children-s-commissioner)
(date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2014e. "The School Teachers' Review Body".
(www.gov.uk/government/organisations/school-teachers-review-body) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2014f. "Social Mobility and Children Poverty Commission".
(www.gov.uk/government/organisations/social-mobility-and-child-poverty-commission) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2014b. "Further Education and Skills".
(www.gov.uk/government/topics/further-education-and-skills) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2014h. "The Further and Higher Education Act 1992".
(www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1992/13/pdfs/ukpga_199220013_en.pdf) (date of access: 5 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2012. "The Education Act 2011".
(www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2011/21/pdfs/ukpga_201110021_en.pdf) (date of access: 5 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2007. "The further education (principals' qualifications) (England) regulations 2007".

- (www.legislation.gov.uk/uksi/2007/1864/pdfs/uksi_20071864_en.pdf) (date of access: 12 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 2002. "Learning and Skills Act 2000".
(www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2000/21/pdfs/ukpga_200000021_en.pdf) (date of access: 5 Apr. 2014).
- The National Archives. 1993. "Education Reform Act 1988".
(www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1988/40/pdfs/ukpga_19880040_en.pdf) (date of access: 5 Apr. 2014).
- Nadzór Pedagogiczny. System Ewaluacji Oświaty. 2014. Wizja projektu [Project vision]. (www.nadzorpedagogiczny.edu.pl/action/vission) (date of access: 14 Mar. 2014).
- Nedkova, Marietta. 2004. "Evaluation", in: Michael Byram (ed.). *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning*. London: Routledge, 206-211.
- Nevo, David. 1997. „Konceptualizacja ewaluacji edukacyjnej” [The conceptualization of educational evaluation]. (Translated by Zbyszko Melosik), in: Leszek Korporowicz (ed.), *Ewaluacja w edukacji* [Evaluation in education], Warszawa: Oficyna Naukowa, 51-64.
- Norris, John M. 2006. "The why (and how) of assessing student learning outcomes in college foreign language programs", *The Modern Language Journal* 90: 576-583.
- Norris, John M., John McE Davis, Castle Sinicrope and Yukiko Watanabe. 2009. *Toward useful program evaluation in college language education*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, National Foreign Language Resource Center.
- Nunan, David. 1999. *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, David. 1988. *Syllabus design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ofqual. 2011. *GCE AS and A Level subject criteria for modern foreign languages (MFL)*. Coventry: Office of Qualifications and Examinations Regulations.
- Ofqual. 2013. *Office of Qualifications and Examinations Regulation Home Page*. (www.ofqual.gov.uk/about-us/) (date of access: 12 Oct. 2013).
- Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills. 2014. Who we are and what we do. (www.ofsted.gov.uk/about-us) (date of access: 14 Mar. 2014).

- Olejniczak, Karol. 2008. *Mechanizmy wykorzystania ewaluacji. Studium ewaluacji średniookresowych INTERREG III* [The mechanisms of using evaluation. The study of the medium-term INTERREG III evaluation]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Scholar.
- Oleszak, Wojciech. 2010. "Principals of the professional training evaluation", *General and Professional Education* 1: 151-174.
- Owen, John M. 2007. *Program evaluation. Forms and approaches*. (3rd edition.) New York: The Guilford Press.
- Oxford advanced learner's dictionary*. 2000. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Oxford, Cambridge and RSA Examinations. 2008. *AS/A Level GCE. Modern foreign languages. Version 3 July 2008 specification*. Cambridge: OCR.
(<http://www.ocr.org.uk/images/82314-specification.pdf>) (date of access: 11 Dec. 2012).
- Oxford, Cambridge and RSA Examinations. 2012. *Oxford, Cambridge and RSA Examinations Home Page*. (<http://www.ocr.org.uk/about-us>) (date of access: 11 Dec. 2012).
- Oxford, Cambridge and RSA Examinations. 2013. *AS/A Level GCE. Modern foreign languages. Version 4 September 2013 specification*. Cambridge: OCR.
(www.ocr.org.uk/Images/82314-specification.pdf) (date of access: 2 May 2014).
- Pachociński, Ryszard. 2007. *Pedagogika porównawcza* [Comparative pedagogy]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie "Żak".
- Pallant, Julie. 2007. *SPSS. Survival manual. A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows*. (3rd edition.) Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Parr-Modrzejewska, Anna. 2012. *Nowa podstawa programowa. IV etap edukacyjny. Przewodnik dla nauczyciela* [The new core curriculum. IV educational key stage. The guide for a teacher]. Macmillan Polska.
- Patel, Rambhai N. 2010. *Educational evaluation: Theory and practice*. Mumbai: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Paton, Graeme. 2011. "A-level results: number of languages students falls to new low". *The Telegraph*, 18 Aug. 2011. (www.telegraph.co.uk/education/8709091/A-level-results-number-of-languages-students-falls-to-new-low.html) (date of access: 3 May 2014).

- Patton, Michael Q. 2002. *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. (3rd edition.) Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Patton, Michael Q. 1997. *Utilisation-focused evaluation*. (3rd edition.) Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Pawlak, Mirosław. 2000. "Optimizing interaction in the second language classroom", *Studia Anglica Posnaniensia* 35: 233-258.
- Pawlak, Mirosław. 2006a. "Autonomia ucznia a Europejskie portfolio językowe dla uczniów szkół ponadgimnazjalnych i studentów" [Student's autonomy and the European Language Portfolio for upper secondary pupils and university students]. *Języki Obce w Szkole* 1: 42-50.
- Pawlak Mirosław. 2006b. "Europejskie portfolio językowe dla szkół ponadgimnazjalnych i studentów w badaniach pilotażowych – opinie, uwagi, sugestie" [European Language Portfolio for Upper secondary school pupils and university students in pilot research – opinions, remarks, suggestions]. *Języki Obce w Szkole* 5: 62-78.
- Pawlak, Mirosław, Emilia Bartczak, Zofia Lis, Izabela Marciniak and Mirosław Pawlak. 2006d. *Europejskie portfolio językowe dla uczniów szkół ponadgimnazjalnych i studentów* [European language portfolio for upper secondary school pupils and university students]. Warszawa: Centralny Ośrodek Kształcenia Nauczycieli.
- Pawlak, Mirosław, Izabela Marciniak, Zofia Lis and Emilia Bartczak. 2006c. *Jak samodzielnie poznawać języki i kultury. Przewodnik metodyczny do europejskiego portfolio językowego dla uczniów szkół ponadgimnazjalnych i studentów*. [How to explore languages and cultures independently. The methodological guide to European language portfolio for upper secondary pupils and university students]. Warszawa: CODN.
- Pawlak, Mirosław. 2008. "Europejskie portfolio językowe jako narzędzie rozwijania autonomii studentów anglistyki-wyniki badań" [European language portfolio as a tool to develop learner autonomy of English studies]. *Języki Obce w Szkole* 6: 127-138.
- Pawlak, Mirosław. 2009. "Rola nauczyciela w kształtowaniu procesów interakcyjnych podczas lekcji języka obcego" [The teacher's role in shaping interaction during a foreign language lesson], in: Mirosław Pawlak, Anna Mystkowska-Wiertelak

- and Agnieszka Pietrzykowska (eds.), *Nauczyciel języków obcych dziś i jutro*. Poznań-Kalisz: Polskie Towarzystwo Neofilologiczne, 311-331.
- Pawlak, Mirosław. 2011. "Nowe spojrzenie na dobrego ucznia w dydaktyce językowej" [A new look at the good learner in language didactics]. *Języki Obce w Szkole* 1: 28-36.
- Pawlak, Mirosław. 2012. *Error correction in the foreign language classroom. Reconsidering the issues*. Poznań-Kalisz-Konin: Wydział Pedagogiczno-Artystyczny w Kaliszu and Wydawnictwo Państwowej Wyższej Szkoły Zawodowej w Koninie.
- Perloff, Robert, Evelyn Perloff and Edward Sussna. 1976. "Program evaluation", *Annual Review of Psychology* 27, 1: 569-594.
- Phillipson, Robert. 2008. "Language policy and education in the European Union", in: Nancy H. Hornberger (ed.), *Encyclopedia of language and education*. New York: Springer, 253-264.
- Phillipson, Robert and Tove Skutnabb-Kangas. 2011. "The politics and policies of language and language teaching", in: Michael H. Long and Catherine J. Doughty (eds.), *The handbook of language teaching*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 26-41.
- Piłatowska, Mariola. 2006. *Repetitorium ze statystyki* [A statistics compendium]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Piquero, Alex R. and David Weisburd (eds.). 2010. *Handbook of quantitative criminology*. New York: Springer.
- Polio, Charlene and Jessica Williams. 2011. "Teaching and testing writing", in: Michael H. Long and Catherine J. Doughty (eds.). 2011. *The handbook of language teaching*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 486-517.
- Polish Evaluation Society. 2012. About PTE. (www.pte.org/index.php/english) (date of access: 14 Mar. 2014).
- Popham, W. James. 1975. *Educational evaluation*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Powell, Ronald R. 2006. "Evaluation research: An overview", *Library Trends* 55, 1: 102-120.
- Priest, Simon. 2001. "A program evaluation primer", *Journal of Experiential Education* 1: 34-40.
- Public information Bulletin. 2012. "Regulamin organizacyjny zespołu szkół ponadgimnazjalnych w Szprotawie" [The organisational regulations of the upper secondary schools complex in Szprotawa].

- (http://bip.wrota.lubuskie.pl/zspszprowata/40/2/Regulamin_Organizacyjny_Zepolu_Szkol_Ponadgimnazjalnych_w_Szprotawie/#) (date of access: 21 Mar. 2014).
- Pułaska-Turyna, Beata. *Statystyka dla ekonomistów* [Statistics for economists]. Warszawa: Difin.
- Rada Pedagogiczna Liceum Ogólnokształcącego w Sulechowie. 2012. “Statut Liceum Ogólnokształcącego w Sulechowie” [The Statute of the General Upper Secondary School in Sulechów]. (www.losulechow.pl/resources/Statut.pdf) (date of access: 21 Mar. 2014).
- Ratcliffe, Rebecca. 2013. “Drop in number of A-level students studying foreign languages”. *The Guardian*, 15 Aug. 2013. (www.theguardian.com/education/2013/ang/15/a-level-results-foreign-languages) (date of access: 3 May 2014).
- Rea-Dickins, Pauline and Kevin Germaine. 1992. *Evaluation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Réaume, Denise and Meital Pinto. 2012. “Philosophy of language policy”, in: Bernard Spolsky (ed.), *Language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 37-58.
- Ricento, Thomas. 2010. “Language policy and globalization”, in Nikolas Coupland (ed.), *The handbook of language and globalization*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 123-141.
- Richards, Jack C. 2010. *Classroom-based evaluation in second language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richardson, Hanna. 2011. Gove: “door open” for compulsory foreign language GCSE. (<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/education-12243936>) (date of access: 12 Dec. 2012).
- Rifkin, Benjamin. 2003. “Guidelines for foreign language lesson planning”, *Foreign Language Annals* 2: 167-179.
- Robichaud, David and Helder De Schutter. 2012. “Language is just a tool! On the instrumentalist approach to language”, in: Bernard Spolsky (ed.), *Language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 124-145.
- Rodriguez-Campos, Liliana and Rigoberto Rincones-Gomez. 2013. *Collaborative evaluations: Step-by-step*. (2nd edition.) Stanford: Stanford Business Books.

- Ross, Steven J. 2011. "Program evaluation", in: Michael H. Long, and Catherine J. Doughty (eds.). *The Handbook of language teaching*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 756-778.
- Rossi, Peter H., Mark W. Lipsey and Howard E. Feeman. 2004. *Evaluation: A systematic approach*. (7th edition) Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Ryan, Stephen M. 1997. "Preparing learners for independence: resources beyond the classroom", in: Phil Benson and Peter Voller (eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning*. London and New York: Longman, 215-224.
- Rudolf, Agnieszka. 2005. "Podstawowe metody badań ewaluacyjnych" [The basic methods of evaluation research], in: *Ewaluacja – kwestie ogólne*. Warszawa: Polskie Towarzystwo Ewaluacyjne, 8-12.
- Sacks, Harvey, Emanuel A. Schegloff and Gail Jefferson. 1974. "A simplest systematics for the organisation of turn-taking for conversation", *Language* 4, 50: 696-735.
- Sallabank, Julia. 2012. "Diversity and language policy for endangered languages", in: Bernard Spolsky (ed.), *Language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 100-123.
- Scriven, Michael. 1980. *The logic of evaluation*. Port Reyes: Edge Press.
- Sechrest, Lee and Aurelio José Figueredo. 1993. "Program evaluation", *Annual Review of Psychology* 44: 645-674.
- Sheerin, Susan. 1997. "An exploration of the relationship between self-access and independent learning", in: Phil Benson and Peter Voller (eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning*. London and New York: Longman, 54-65.
- Simons, Helen. 1997b. "Polityczne implikacje teorii ewolucyjnych: Przybliżenie problemu" [The political implications of evaluation theory: A close look]. (Translated by Kazimierz Frieske), in: Leszek Korporowicz (ed.), *Ewaluacja w edukacji* [Evaluation in education]. Warszawa: Oficyna Naukowa, 65-92.
- Sixth Form College Farnborough. 2011. „Student code of conduct”.
(www.farnborough.ac.uk/dofe_code_conduct) (date of access: 12 Apr. 2014).
- Sixth Form College Farnborough. 2013. "College Charter 2013/2014".
(www.farnborough.ac.uk/files/file/College%20Charter%202013.pdf) (date of access: 30 Mar. 2014).

- Sixth Form College Farnborough. 2013a. "Prospectus".
(www.farnborough.ac.uk/files/file/Prospectus.pdf) (date of access: 12 Apr. 2014).
- Sixth Form College Farnborough. 2013b. "AS level examination pass rates 2013".
(www.WebASLevel2013-1.pdf) (date of access: 26 Apr. 2014).
- Sixth Form College Farnborough. 2013c. "A2 level examination pass rates 2013".
(www.WebA2Level2013.pdf) (date of access: 26 Apr. 2014).
- Sixth Form College Farnborough. 2014. "Courses available".
(www.farnborough.ac.uk/Course_Guide) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- Sixth Form College Farnborough. 2014a. "The Corporation of the Sixth Form College Farnborough management structure and responsibilities".
(www.whatdotheyknow.com/request/178647/response/433887/attach/html/3/ManagementStructure2012.doc.html) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- Sixth Form College Farnborough. 2014b. "The Student Association".
(www.farnborough.ac.uk/prospective_sa) (date of access: 11 Apr. 2014).
- Skierniewski, Tomasz. 2005. „Zarządzanie ewaluacją” [Managing evaluation], in: *Ewaluacja – kwestie ogólne*. Warszawa: Polskie Towarzystwo Ewaluacyjne, 28-34.
- Sobczyk, Mieczysław. 2005. *Statystyka* [Statistics]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Spolsky, Bernard and Francis. M. Hult. 2010. *The handbook of educational linguistics*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Spolsky, Bernard (ed.). 2012. *Language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Spolsky, Bernard. 2012. "What is language policy?", in: Bernard Spolsky (ed.), *Language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 3-15.
- Stake, Robert. 1967. „The countenance of educational evaluation”, *Teachers' College Record* 68, 7: 523-540.
- Staszewska, Zofia. 2013. „Opinia prawna” (www.kuratorium.waw.pl/files/f-6054-2-opinia_-_wojt.pdf) (date of access: 23 Mar. 2014).
- Stern, Elliot. 2009. "Evaluation policy in the European Union and its institutions", *New Directions for Evaluation* 123: 67-85.

- Stufflebeam, Daniel L., W. J. Foley, W. J. Gephart, L. R. Hammond, H. O. Merriman and M. M. Provus. 1971. *Educational evaluation and decision-making in education*. New York: Peacock Press.
- Stufflebeam, Daniel L. 2001. „The metaevaluation imperative”, *American Journal of Evaluation* 22, 2: 189-209.
- Szerszeń, Paweł. 2011. „Media elektroniczne w glottodydaktyce. Zmiany w sposobach działania ucznia, nauczyciela oraz formułowania tekstów” [Electronic media In glottodidactics. Changes in the ways of student’s and teacher’s performance and text creation], *Języki Obce w Szkole* 3: 28-30.
- Szymczak, Mieczysław (ed.). 1978. *Słownik języka polskiego. Tom pierwszy A-K* [Polish language dictionary. Volume one A-K]. Warszawa: Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe.
- Taba, Hilda. 1962. *Curriculum development: Theory and practice*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.
- Taylor, Frederick W. 1947. *Scientific management*. New York: Harper and Row.
- The free dictionary*. 2014. (www.thefreedictionary.com/evaluator) (date of access: 06 Feb. 2014).
- The Government Digital Service. 2015. „School leaving age” (www.gov.uk/when-you-can-leave-school) (date of access: 3 Jul. 2015).
- Thornbury, Scott. 2008. *How to teach speaking*. Harlow: Longman.
- Tokarski, Jan (ed.). 1980. *Słownik wyrazów obcych* [Foreign words dictionary]. Warszawa: Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe.
- Tołwińska-Królikowska, Elżbieta (ed.). 2010. *Autoewaluacja w szkole* [Self-evaluation in schools]. Warszawa: Ośrodek Rozwoju Edukacji.
- Trzcińska, Beata. 2009. “Odnoszenie egzaminów z języków obcych do Europejskiego systemu opisu kształcenia językowego” [Relating foreign language exams to Common European Framework of Reference]. *Języki obce w szkole* 3: 84-89.
- Tyler, Ralph W. 1950. *Basic principles of curriculum development*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- United Kingdom Evaluation Society. 2012. The UK Evaluation Society. (www.evaluation.org.uk/about-us/about-ukes) (date of access: 14 Mar. 2014).
- Ur, Penny. 2002. *A course in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Urwick, Lyndall. 1952. *Notes on the theory of organisation*. American Management Association.
- U.S. English Foundation Research. 2013. *United Kingdom. Language research. Legislation: Legislation dealing with the use of languages*.
(www.usefoundation.org/view/633) (date of access: 12 Oct. 2013).
- Van Lakerveld, Laap. 2010. "Dialog i rozwój w ewaluacji" [Dialog and development in evaluation], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.), *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Autonomia* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Autonomy], Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 63-81.
- Vasagar, Jeevan. 2012. "Foreign languages to be taught at school from age seven". *The Guardian*, 10 Jun. 2012.
(<http://www.theguardian.co.uk/education/2012/jun/10/foreign-languages-compulsory-aged-7>) (date of access: 12 Dec. 2012).
- Vasagar, Jeevan. 2012a. "A-level foreign languages decline alarm examiners". *The Guardian*, 16 Aug. 2012. (www.theguardian.com/education/2012/ang/16/alevel-foreign-languages-decline) (date of access: 3 May 2014).
- Walker, Lesley. 2001. "Learning strategies and learner", in: Arthur Lore and Stella Hurd (eds.), *Supporting lifelong language learning. Theoretical and practical approaches*. London: The Open University, 83-93.
- Walsh, Steve. 2011. *Exploring classroom discourse language in action*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Watanabe, Yukiko, John M. Norris and Marta González-Lloret. 2009. "Identifying and responding to evaluation needs in college foreign language programs", in: John M. Norris, John McE Davis, Castle Sinicrope and Yukiko Watanabe (eds.), *Toward useful program evaluation in college language education*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, National Foreign Language Resource Center, 5-56.
- Waters, Alan. 2011. "Advances in material design", in: Michael H. Long and Catherine J. Doughty (eds.), *The handbook of language teaching*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 311-326.
- Watkinson, Peter. 1982. *The sixth form college in practice*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Wehmeier, Sally (ed.). 2000. *Oxford advanced learner's dictionary of current English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Weiss, Carol H. 1986. "Toward the future of stakeholder approaches in evaluation", in: Ernest R. House (ed.), *New directions in educational evaluation*. Oxon: Routledge Falmer, 186-200.
- Weiss, Swanson Rowena. 1975. "Performing evaluation studies in information science", *The Journal of the American Society for Information Science* 26, 3: 140-156.
- Wilbur, Colburn S. 2004. "Self-evaluation", *New Directions for Philanthropic Fund-raising*, 45: 21-29.
- Wilczyńska, Weronika. 1999. *Uczyć się czy być nauczonym? O autonomii w przyswajaniu języka obcego* [Learn or be taught? About autonomy in acquiring a foreign language]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Wiley, Terence G. 1996. "Language planning and policy", in: Sandra Lee McKay and Nancy H. Hornberger (eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 103-147.
- Wlazło, Stefan. 2010. "Organizowanie ewaluacji wewnętrznej w celu doskonalenia jakości pracy szkoły" [Introducing internal evaluation with the view to improving the quality of school performance], in: Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (ed.). *Ewaluacja w nadzorze pedagogicznym. Autonomia* [Evaluation in pedagogical supervision. Autonomy]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, 109-126.
- Wodak, Ruth and David Carson (eds.). 1997. *Encyclopedia of language and education. Volume 1. Language policy and political issues in education*. Dordrecht, Boston, London: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Woodin, Jane. 2001. "The planning process", in: Arthur Lore and Stella Hurd (eds.), *Supporting lifelong language learning. Theoretical and practical approaches*. London: The Open University, 58-72.
- Woods, Anthony, Paul Fletcher and Arthur Hughes. 1986. *Statistics in language studies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Woods, Philip A. 2005. *Democratic leadership in education*. London: Sage Publications.
- Worthen, Blaine R. and James R. Sanders. 1973. *Educational evaluation: Theory and practice*. Worthington: OH: C. A. Jones Publishing Company.
- Wragg, Edward C. 2012. *An introduction to classroom observation*. London: Routledge.

- Wright, Vicky and Su White. 2001. "The role of technology", in: Arthur Lore and Stella Hurd (eds.), *Supporting lifelong language learning. Theoretical and practical approaches*. London: The Open University, 97-105.
- Zaczyński, Władysław P. 1997. *Statystyka w pracy badawczej nauczyciela* [Statistics in teacher's research practice]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo "Żak".
- Zohrabi, Mohammad. 2012. "An introduction to course and/or program evaluation", *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics* 15, 2: 59-70.

Appendix



The Post of Principal – Job Description

Introduction

The Mission of the College is twofold:

to develop as a distinguished major provider of the highest quality academic and vocational education, leading to Higher Education opportunities and employment, and contributing to the government's targets for education and training; and

to develop the lively and caring community of the College, enriching the lives of all students and equipping them with the qualifications and skills to meet the demands of a changing world with confidence and assurance.

Single Corporate Objective

Within the context of the Mission, the Single Corporate Objective of the College, and thus the key focus of the Principal and all staff, is:

to improve students' achievements

Under the Articles of Government of The Sixth Form College Farnborough, the Principal is responsible for:

- Making proposals to the Corporation about the educational character and mission of the College, and for implementing the decisions of the Corporation;
- The organisation, assignment, grading, appraisal, suspension, dismissal, and determination within the framework set by the Corporation, of the pay and conditions of service, of all staff other than the holders of senior posts;
- The determination of the College's academic activities, and for the determination of its other activities;
- Preparing annual estimates of income and expenditure for consideration and approval by the Corporation, and the management of the budget and resources within the estimates approved by the Corporation;
- The maintenance of student discipline and, within the rules and procedures provided for within the articles of Government for the suspension or expulsion of students on disciplinary grounds and for implementing decisions to expel students for academic reasons.

Under the terms of the Learning and Skills Council's Financial Memorandum (revision anticipated under MoG), the Principal is responsible for -

- Ensuring that any funds from the Council are used only for the purpose for which they are given, and in accordance with any terms and conditions laid down by the Council;
- Taking personal responsibility, which shall not be delegated, to assure the Corporation that there is compliance with the Financial Memorandum and all terms and conditions referred to within.
- Advising the Corporation if at any time any action or policy under consideration by them is incompatible with these terms and conditions;
- Ensuring the proper and effective operation of the controls established by the Corporation to safeguard public funds;
- Giving effect to the Corporation's policies for securing the efficient, economical and effective management of all the Colleges' resources and expenditure.

Job Description

1. Delivery of the strategic objective – clarity on the direction of travel

- Propose and advise on the continuing development of the College mission in the context of a changing external environment
- Develop, together with governors and stakeholders, comprehensive strategic plans to position the College successfully in a changing environment
- Implement, manage and assess the results of the strategic plan and actions
- Promote the mission and strategy, and lead in their implementation
- Establish appropriate and effective relationships and networks within the sector and wider community to ensure linkage of College activity to stakeholders

2. Leadership – from the front

- Provide effective leadership for the College, its Senior Management Team, staff, and students
- Maintain an atmosphere of trust and engagement of students and staff, to develop the understanding and pursuit of a Learning Community
- Lead on maintaining the high reputation of the College by celebrating its achievements locally and nationally
- Maintain a clear understanding of the external environment for an incorporated sixth form college in order to provide authoritative advice to governors and staff in the best interests of the students, particularly in the light of regulatory changes
- Inspire outstanding teaching and learning in the College, and the capacity to innovate
- Consult widely and communicate effectively with staff, students and stakeholders
- Establish and develop appropriate management structures and processes
- Ensure that the College follows best practice in all matters relating to equality and diversity because of understanding and commitment, not merely statutory duty

3. Partnerships – better together

- Maintain and develop strong relationships with heads of partner and link schools, and with the Principal of Farnborough College of Technology
- Build on existing partnerships with other providers locally to ensure young people are able to access their learning entitlement
- Ensure that young people are provided with a safe environment for learning and that appropriate arrangements are in place to safeguard the vulnerable by working closely with other agencies through a Young People's Trust
- Ensure that the College contributes to the well-being of the local area
- Develop and strengthen links with the local community and civic leaders, participating in civic events as appropriate
- Maintain and build links with wider partners in the local, regional and national context, particularly with the local authorities in which College students reside, national representative organisations and government bodies.

4. Continual Improvement – tomorrow will be better than today

- Lead on the pursuit of the College's single corporate objective: improving students' achievements
- Encourage innovative approaches to curriculum delivery
- Maintain and further develop quality assurance processes to support improvement at all levels within the College
- Commit to personal and professional self-development
- Encourage personal and professional development in all staff

5. Management of Resources – lack of resources will never hinder the learning experience

- Perform Chief Accounting Officer responsibilities
- Ensure the College is financially sound on an ongoing basis
- Ensure that the risk management strategy is transparent, effective, well-understood and responsive to students' needs
- Ensure achievement of value for money in all disbursements
- Ensure appropriate development of the College premises, facilities and infrastructure

6. Management within Regulatory Framework – insulation of learners from turbulence of government

- Manage College operations according to plans and policies approved by the Corporation and within the limits of the Principal's delegated authority, in the best interests of the students
- Advise on, and facilitate the business of the Corporation, its Committees, and governors
- Ensure that College activities are compliant with the provisions of the Instrument and Articles of Government, and with the Learning and Skills Council's or successor body's Financial Memorandum
- Ensure that College activities are carried out within the law and provisions of external regulators
- Ensure that College processes and procedures keep abreast of new regulatory requirements – and, where possible, seek to frame and develop the regulations through providing advice to national decision-makers.

The Post of Principal – Person Specification

A. Education, qualifications & self development – a passion for learning

Essential Requirement	Desirable requirement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First degree or equivalent • Qualified teacher • Evidence of commitment to personal / professional development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher degree or equivalent • Professional training relevant to the role of Principal

B. Leadership track record – setting the tone

Essential Requirement	Desirable requirement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Track record of working successfully in a senior management role in a teaching institution • Evidence of the promotion of outstanding teaching and learning • Evidence of the promotion of the culture and enjoyment of learning and personal development, with students and staff • Evidence of leading a team to manage change effectively • Commitment to quality and continuous improvement • Ability to make difficult decisions • Ability to identify the right priorities and delivers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Track record experience specifically in 16 to 19 education • Active involvement in developing leadership qualities in others • Evidence of leading a team in delivering a significant project

C. Big picture thinker – looks beyond the horizon

Essential Requirement	Desirable requirement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to identify with, and to deliver, the College mission and priorities • Ability to provide new perspective on old issues • Evidence of personal, significant, contribution to the development and review of vision and strategy • Evidence of achievement turning strategy into effective action • Experience of curriculum development • Ability to use performance management to deliver strategic objectives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evidence of significant contribution to the development and delivery of strategy in 16 to 19 education, both within and outside a college environment • Appreciation of the need for quality resources in promoting effective teaching and learning

D. Inspirational communicator – ability to influence

Essential Requirement	Desirable requirement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Outstanding ability as a communicator, both verbally and in writing Experience, as a senior manager, of communicating effectively with students, parents and staff (teaching and support) An open style of working that encourages colleagues to share ideas and develop team solutions Ability to demonstrate well developed negotiating skills Ability to instil, in staff and students, high standards of integrity and conduct Experience of working with a governing body and its members 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Experience of communicating effectively with partners and community (partner schools and colleges, LAs, LSC, parents, press, neighbours, local business etc) An enthusiasm to promote the success of our students and the college generally in the outside world.

E. Customer focus – in touch with student needs

Essential Requirement	Desirable requirement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enthusiasm for working with students to raise quality and improve standards Empathy with student concerns and dilemmas, and, equally, those of their parents Knowledge of how students like to communicate and ability to adapt to their style 	

F. Business acumen – driving results today to sustain future performance

Essential Requirement	Desirable requirement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Financially astute, with proven ability to manage college finances and meet budgeted goals Demonstration of entrepreneurial spirit in running the college and maximising the use of its resources Ability to interpret complex business information and explain the key elements in simple terms Experience of responsibility for, and effective delivery of, the allocation of resources at a senior management level Commitment to using technology to improve management and learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understanding of the ways ICT can increasingly be used to enhance and improve management, teaching, and learning Evidence of personal initiative promoting the use of ICT to improve teaching, learning, and/or management

The Sixth Form College Farnborough

Application Form

Post of Principal



Please complete this form, the Equality & Diversity Form and Healthcheck Questionnaire.

Please email completed documentation as attachments to jpearson@farnboroughsfc.ac.uk

If for any reason you are completing the application by hand, please return to Jenny Pearson, HR Administrator, Farnborough Sixth Form College, Prospect Avenue, Farnborough, Hampshire GU14 8JX

All applications will be acknowledged

Personal Information

Surname:	Forenames:
Title (Dr, Mr, Mrs, Miss, Ms etc):	Previous Surname:
Permanent Address:	Present Nationality:
Postcode:	If you have ever possessed any other nationality or citizenship, please give full details with dates:
Telephone No. (home):	
Telephone No. (work):	Do you have the right to work in the UK?
Mobile Number:	National Insurance No:
E-mail:	
Address for correspondence (if different from above):	Teacher's Reference No:
Postcode:	How many days illness have you had in the last 2 years?
Telephone No:	

Secondary Education

Secondary School/College	Dates (Optional)	Qualifications/Courses GCSE/O and A level grades or equivalent

Higher Education/Professional and other relevant Qualifications

University Professional Body/Awarding Institute	Title, Class & Division of any Degrees Obtained; Membership (Associate, Fellow, etc.)	Date Awarded (Optional)

Employment Information

Current Employment

Job Title: Name of Employer/College: Salary: Date started:

Please list previous employment:

Name/College	Date from	Date to	Job Title/Main Duties	Reason for Leaving

Interests

Please list any additional duties, interests or responsibilities you hold or have held within the educational or other fields:

Referees

Please give details of two referees. One of your referees must be your current employer and the other should be someone who knows you well in a professional capacity. Referees will only be contacted after a short-list has been drawn up and you have been informed.

Name: Telephone No: In what context does the referee know you? Address: Email:
Name: Telephone No: In what context does the referee know you? Address: Email:

Appendix 4. THE PILOT TOOLS: A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE BRITISH PRINCIPAL, THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE POLISH PRINCIPAL, THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE BRITISH TEACHERS, THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE POLISH TEACHERS, THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE BRITISH STUDENTS, THE QUESTIONN

Dear Principal of the Sixth Form College,

I am handing you over a questionnaire concerning the dissertation "Investigation and comparison of the sixth form college system with the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system in terms of structure and management" with the request to complete it.

The questionnaire was compiled by the author of the dissertation. The main purpose is to indicate the validity of implementing some changes in the structure and the management in both types of schools. The results of the questionnaire will be used to define which points of the systems require transformation and they will also help with proposing specific changes. Most of the "a" answers regard the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system. Whereas most of the "b" answers regard the sixth form college system.

Please read all the points of the questionnaire before you start to complete it.

Please complete the questionnaire.

1. Which system of carrying out final exams do you consider more beneficial for students (circle only one answer please):
 - a) final exams undivided in time: the whole procedure takes place at the end of the 3-year cycle of the education in liceum ogólnokształcące; students can improve the results or change the subject the following year
 - b) final exams divided in time: students take exams after some part of the education; they can improve results or change the subject under fixed regulations

2. Which current, semester and year assessment system do you think is more informative and motivating for students (circle only one answer please):
 - a) the system in which teachers give students numerous number of partial grades to assess different forms of students' activities in the form of current grades, semester grades and year grades
 - b) the system in which teachers give students reviews of progress including grades.

3. Which way of assigning students to particular courses is more efficient for them (circle only one answer please)?
 - a) all the courses covered by school curriculum are obligatory for students within the whole education cycle. The time span of particular courses depends on law regulations and the time of a particular lesson is 45 minutes.

- b) all the subjects (the required minimum number) are chosen by students voluntarily; following some law regulations students can change subjects; the time of the lesson is 90 minutes
4. Which way of assigning students to forms/groups do you consider the most beneficial for students in the sixth form college (circle only one answer please)?
- a) assigning students to forms that attend classes together for most of the courses
- b) assigning students to course groups
5. Do current law regulations allow you to use your initiative and creativity in developing varied aspects of school environment in a systematic way (circle only one answer please)?
- a) yes
- b) partly yes
- c) no
6. How do you assess the principal person specification for the sixth form college (leadership skills, charisma, interpersonal skills) as far as systematic improving of school performance is concerned (circle only one answer please)?
- a) the present state is efficient enough
- b) It is necessary to improve the principal person specification range for the sixth form college
7. What is your opinion about the role and the range of responsibilities of the principal as far as the school efficiency is concerned (circle only one answer please)?
- a) the Polish liceum system in which the principal deals with his/her responsibilities with the help of deputy/deputies. The number of deputies is regulated by educational laws and there is no possibility for the principal to appoint managerial staff with monthly salary supplement.
- b) The sixth form college system in which the principal deals with his/her responsibilities with the help of a deputy/deputies and managerial staff with monthly salary supplement
8. Which system of assessing the level of the independence in functioning a post-secondary school would you consider more efficient and enabling a principal focusing on the school life and needs (circle only one answer please)?
- a) the system in which most strategic decisions are taken by supervising authorities, for instance, the district authorities
- b) the system in which most strategic decisions are taken by a principal of the school and the school is a very independent unit functioning similar to higher education institutions

9. Which, in your opinion, role of a tutor would be more beneficial for the students (circle only one answer please)?
- a) a tutor of a particular form of students as well as a regular teacher; the teacher performs his/her duties without special training; the meetings with the students take place once a week and they are devoted to dealing with current affairs and curriculum; the materials are prepared by a tutorial team; the teacher deals with all other issues related to school life
 - b) a tutor who performs his/her duties after completing special training; there is a separate tutorial department in the school; the meeting with the students take place once a week; the materials are prepared by a tutorial team; current affairs are dealt with at individual meetings with a tutor
10. Which, in your opinion, is better for the sixth form college student (circle only one answer please)?
- a) a teacher introducing new material and checking students' performance with the help of varied and numerous forms of continuous assessment (oral performance, homework, quizzes, tests etc.)
 - b) a teacher introducing new material, highlighting how to improve knowledge and find more information and assessing students' knowledge with the help of less numerous forms of assessment but involving more problematic and complicated issues
11. Do you feel that the sixth form college student is comprehensively prepared to challenge the adult life; can make most of their decisions independently and simultaneously bearing the consequences of their choices (circle only one answer please)?
- a) definitely yes
 - b) mostly yes
 - c) to minimum degree yes
 - d) definitely no
 - e) I don't have an opinion
12. Which model of law regulations would prepare the sixth form college student to make independent life decisions and functioning in the community (circle only one answer please)?
- a) the model in which the students' choices are limited and most decisions are made by their parents, the limited role of students' association, delegating the responsibility for students' actions on their parents
 - b) the currently existing system in the sixth form college is sufficient enough

13. In what way the systematically modernised teaching facilities influence the quality and efficiency of students' education in the sixth form college (circle only one answer please)?
- a) it is indispensable and necessary
 - b) it is important but a well prepared teacher is enough
 - c) it is irrelevant to students' education
14. What do you think about the validity of providing each teacher appointed work surface (other than a classroom or the staff room, but not separate for each teacher) with the access to the Internet and some storage space for school documents and teaching materials (circle only one answer please)?
- a) I am absolutely for
 - b) it is a good solution but not indispensable
 - c) I am absolutely against
15. Which model of promoting teachers would you implement if you had a choice (circle only one answer please)?
- a) the system in which there is a fixed number of levels: a trainee teacher, a contract teacher, a designated teacher and a professionally qualified teacher; the teachers have to come through a legally regulated process to achieve each level
 - b) the system in which the principal appoints managerial staff including the financial gratification; the teachers are appointed and dismissed based on the results of their performance
 - c) combination of the two systems would be the best
16. Which element affecting the general school performance do you consider the most important (circle only one answer please)?
- a) clear and precise law regulations
 - b) charismatic, experienced and a competent principal
 - c) modern and efficient school structure and facilities
17. If you have any knowledge related to the structure and managing the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system, please say what would be, in your opinion, worth implementing in the system of the sixth form college and why (say "I don't have sufficient information" otherwise)

.....

.....

.....
.....

18. Factual questions (circle only one answer please)?

- a) gender: male female
- b) age group:
 20-25,
 26-30,
 31-35,
 36-40,
 41-45,
 46-50,
 51 and more
- c) work experience as the principal
 0-5,
 6-10,
 11-15,
 more:
- d) location of the workplace: city town village

Thank you very much for your participation in this survey!

Drodzy Dyrektorzy Liceum Ogólnokształcącego

Przekazuję Państwu kwestionariusz opracowany dla potrzeb rozprawy doktorskiej pt. "Przeanalizowanie i porównanie brytyjskiej szkoły ponadgimnazjalnej typu *the sixth form college* z polskim *liceum ogólnokształcącym* pod kątem struktury i zarządzania" z prośbą o jego wypełnienie.

Ankieta została opracowana przez autorkę rozprawy. Celem badania jest wskazanie zasadności wprowadzenia zmian w zakresie struktury i zarządzania w obu typach szkół. Wyniki ankiety posłużą do wyciągnięcia wniosków, które punkty struktury i zarządzania szkołami typu *the sixth form college* i *liceum ogólnokształcącym*, w ocenie dyrektorów, nauczycieli i uczniów, mogłyby zostać zmodyfikowane. Wszelkie propozycje zmian oparte byłyby na sięgnięciu po istniejące w obu szkołach rozwiązania.

Większość odpowiedzi „a” dotyczy systemu obowiązującego w polskim liceum ogólnokształcącym. Natomiast większość odpowiedzi „b” dotyczy systemu obowiązującego w *the sixth form college*

Uprzejmie proszę o wypełnienie ankiety i pełną szczerłość.

1. Który system przeprowadzania egzaminów maturalnych uważa Pan/Pani ogólnie za bardziej korzystny dla ucznia? *(proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)*
 - a) egzaminy końcowe; po ukończeniu 3-letniego cyklu kształcenia w liceum ogólnokształcącym
 - b) egzaminy cząstkowe; po każdym roku nauki, z możliwością każdorazowej poprawy wyników oraz z możliwością zmiany wybranych przedmiotów maturalnych; ocena na świadectwie maturalnym jest średnią wyników z trzech lat

2. Proszę o opinię, który system oceniania bieżącego, semestralnego i rocznego byłby bardziej informacyjny i motywujący dla ucznia (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
 - a) znany Państwu system stawiania ocen cząstkowych, semestralnych i rocznych w postaci ocen (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
 - b) system, w którym nauczyciele oceniają na bieżąco, semestralnie oraz rocznie ucznia w postaci opisowej oraz ocen

3. Według Państwa oceny, który sposób przydzielania zajęć przedmiotowych uważacie za bardziej korzystny w rozwijaniu potencjału intelektualnego uczniów?
(proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)
 - a) uczniowi przydziela się wszystkie wymagane w liceum przedmioty nauczania jako obowiązkowe w przeciągu trzech lat nauki (okres nauczania zależy od uregulowań prawnych); ilość godzin dydaktycznych poszczególnych przedmiotów w tygodniu jest taka jak funkcjonuje obecnie w liceum
 - b) uczniowi przydziela się przedmioty nauczania na zasadzie wyboru (musi wybrać przynajmniej minimalnie wymaganą ilość); w trakcie trwania nauki po spełnieniu wymogów formalnych uczeń może zmienić wybrany/e przedmioty nauczania; ilość godzin dydaktycznych poszczególnych przedmiotów w tygodniu jest zwiększona

4. Który system przydziału uczniów do grupy, wydaje się Państwu bardziej korzystny?
(proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)
- a) przydział uczniów do klas, które uczęszczają wspólnie na większość lekcji; średnia ilość uczniów stanowiących klasę jest taka obecnie funkcjonujące
 - b) przydział uczniów do grup przedmiotowych zgodnych z wyborem przedmiotów przez ucznia; średnia ilość uczniów stanowiących grupę przedmiotową jest niższa niż klasy
5. Czy obecne uregulowania prawne i stan faktyczny umożliwiają Panu/Pani wykazywanie własnej inicjatywy i kreatywności w systematycznym rozwijaniu różnorodnych aspektów funkcjonowania szkoły (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)
- a) tak
 - b) częściowo tak
 - c) nie
6. Jak oceniacie Państwo zakres wymagań dla kandydatów na dyrektora liceum ogólnokształcącego dotyczący jego predyspozycji osobowościowych (zdolności przywódcze, charyzma, umiejętności interpersonalne itp.) umożliwiający systematyczne podnoszenie wydajności pracy w szkole (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)
- a) obecny stan rzeczy jest wystarczający i skuteczny
 - b) należy zwiększyć zakres wymagań dla kandydatów na dyrektora liceum ogólnokształcącego dotyczący jego predyspozycji osobowościowych
7. Według Państwa opinii, która rola i zakres obowiązków dyrektora szkoły są bardziej korzystne dla rozwoju i funkcjonowania liceum (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)
- a) obecnie funkcjonujący system, w którym dyrektor spełnia wszystkie stawiane mu wymagania przy pomocy istniejącego systemu powoływania pomocnych mu osób funkcyjnych (którym przysługuje dodatek funkcyjny)
 - b) system, w którym dyrektor spełnia wszystkie stawiane mu wymagania samodzielnie decydując o ilości i rodzaju potrzebnych w danej szkole stanowisk funkcyjnych (którym przysługuje dodatek funkcyjny)
8. Który system określający stopień niezależności funkcjonowania szkoły ponadgimnazjalnej uznałby/aby Pan/Pani za skuteczniejszy i umożliwiający dyrektorowi pełną koncentrację na życiu i potrzebach szkoły (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)
- a) system, w którym większość decyzji strategicznych jest prowadzona przez organ prowadzący np. starostwo
 - b) system, w który szkoła jest jednostką niemal całkowicie niezależną i funkcjonuje na zasadach zbliżonych do szkolnictwa wyższego, a dyrektor jest główną osobą decyzyjną

9. Państwa zdaniem, która rola nauczyciela wychowawcy byłaby korzystniejsza dla uczniów *(proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)*
- a) wychowawca konkretnej klasy i jednocześnie nauczyciel jakiegoś przedmiotu; spotkania z młodzieżą odbywają się raz w tygodniu i są poświęcone na załatwianie spraw bieżących i regulaminowych; nauczyciel prowadzi zajęcia przygotowane wspólnie przez zespoły wychowawcze; pełni również inne znane Ci z doświadczenia funkcje
 - b) wychowawca jako osoba pełniąca tę funkcję jako główne zadanie w szkole; odbywa cotygodniowe spotkania z grupą przydzielonych mu uczniów podczas których prowadzi zajęcia przygotowane przez zespoły wychowawcze; sprawy bieżące i regulaminowe są załatwiane podczas indywidualnych spotkań z wychowawcą
10. Co według Pani/Pana jest lepsze dla ucznia liceum *(proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)*
- a) nauczyciel wprowadzający nowy materiał podczas zajęć i sprawdzający stopień jego opanowania poprzez różnorodne i liczne formy odpytywania (odpowiedzi ustne z bieżących lekcji, zadania domowe, kartkówki, sprawdziany, prace klasowe itp.)
 - b) nauczyciel wprowadzający nowy materiał podczas zajęć, wskazujący gdzie i w jaki sposób można uzupełnić i poszerzyć swoją wiedzę oraz sprawdzający stopień opanowania materiału poprzez wyznaczanie mniej licznych zadań problemowych za to obejmujących szerszy wycinek wiedzy z danego przedmiotu
11. Czy ma Pan/Pani poczucie, że w uczeń liceum jest wszechstronnie przygotowywany do stawiania czoła wyzwaniom życia dorosłych; może podejmować większość decyzji samodzielnie i równocześnie ponosi konsekwencje swoich wyborów *(proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)*
- a) zdecydowanie tak
 - b) często tak
 - c) minimalnie tak
 - d) zdecydowanie nie
 - e) nie mam zdania
12. Który model uregulowań prawnych przygotowałby ucznia liceum bardziej do samodzielnego i odpowiedzialnego podejmowania życiowych decyzji i funkcjonowaniu w społeczeństwie *(proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)*
- a) istniejący i znany z doświadczenia model funkcjonujący już w Twojej szkole
 - b) system, w którym zwiększona jest możliwość samodzielnych decyzji podejmowanych przez ucznia; zwiększenie roli ucznia w życiu szkoły (zwiększenie zakresu działań samorządu uczniowskiego); zmniejszenie roli rodziców w podejmowaniu decyzji; klarowne i zwiększone wymagania wobec odpowiedzialności uczniów za swoje działania

13. W jaki sposób systematycznie unowocześniana baza dydaktyczno-naukowa wpływa na jakość i skuteczność kształcenia uczniów w liceum (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) jest niezbędna i konieczna
- b) jest ważna lecz dobrze przygotowany nauczyciel wystarczy
- c) jest mało istotna dla skuteczności zdobywania wiedzy

14. Jak Państwo oceniają zasadność zapewnienia każdemu nauczycielowi wyznaczonego stanowiska pracy (poza klasą i pokojem nauczycielskim, ale nie musi być to pomieszczenie tylko dla jednej osoby) z dostępem do komputera, Internetu oraz miejscem do przechowywania dokumentów i materiałów szkolnych (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) jestem zdecydowanie za
- b) jest to dobre rozwiązanie lecz nie jest niezbędne
- c) jestem zdecydowanie przeciw

15. Na który model awansu dla nauczyciela zdecydowałibyście się, gdybyście mieli Państwo wybór (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) znany system awansu obowiązujący obecnie: nauczyciel stażysta, nauczyciel kontraktowy, nauczyciel mianowany, nauczyciel dyplomowany
- b) system , w którym nauczyciele pełnią określone funkcje kierownicze i otrzymują za to wyższe wynagrodzenie; funkcje są przyznawane i odbierane na podstawie wyników pracy nauczyciela

16. Który element składający się na funkcjonowanie szkoły uważa Pani/Pan za najważniejszy w jej skutecznym i sprawnym zarządzaniu (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) klarowne i precyzyjne uregulowania prawne
- b) charyzmatyczny, doświadczony i kompetentny dyrektor
- c) nowoczesna i efektywna struktura szkoły oraz jej baza dydaktyczno-naukowa

17. Jeśli posiadacie Państwo wiedzę na temat zarządzania i struktury brytyjskiej szkoły ponadgimnazjalnej typu *the sixth form college* napisz co Twoim zdaniem byłoby przydatne do wprowadzenia w polskim liceum ogólnokształcącym i dlaczego (proszę wpisać „nie posiadam” jeśli nie macie wystarczających informacji na ten temat):

.....

.....

.....

.....

18. Metryczka (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną odpowiedź w każdym podpunkcie)

- a) płeć: kobieta mężczyzna
- b) wiek:
- 20-25,
 - 26-30,
 - 31-35,
 - 36-40,
 - 41-45,
 - 46-50,
 - 50 i powyżej
- c) staż pracy na stanowisku dyrektorskim:
- 0-5,
 - 6-10,
 - 11-15,
 - inne (jakie?)
- d) Miejsce pracy: duże miasto – małe miasto – wieś

Dziękuję za poświęcony czas i wypełnienie ankiety!

Dear teachers of the Sixth Form College,

I am handing you over a questionnaire concerning the dissertation “Investigation and comparison of the sixth form college system with the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system in terms of structure and management” with the request to complete it.

The questionnaire was compiled by the author of the dissertation. The main purpose is to indicate the validity of implementing some changes in the structure and the management in both types of schools. The results of the questionnaire will be used to define which points of the systems require transformation and they will also help with proposing specific changes. Most of the “a” answers regard the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system. Whereas most of the “b” answers regard the sixth form college system.

Please read all the points of the questionnaire before you start to complete it.

Please complete the questionnaire.

1. Which system of carrying out final exams do you consider more beneficial for students (circle only one answer please):
 - a) final exams undivided in time: the whole procedure takes place at the end of the 3-year cycle of the education in liceum ogólnokształcące; students can improve the results or change the subject the following year
 - b) final exams divided in time: students take exams after some part of the education; they can improve results or change the subject under fixed regulations

2. Which current, semester and year assessment system do you think is more informative and motivating for students (circle only one answer please):
 - a) the system in which teachers give students numerous number of partial grades to assess different forms of students' activities in the form of current grades, semester grades and year grades
 - b) the system in which teachers give students reviews of progress including grades.

3. Which way of assigning students to particular courses is more efficient for them (circle only one answer please)?
 - a) all the courses covered by school curriculum are obligatory for students within the whole education cycle. The time span of particular courses depends on law regulations and the time of a particular lesson is 45 minutes.

- b) all the subjects (the required minimum number) are chosen by students voluntarily; following some law regulations students can change subjects; the time of the lesson is 90 minutes
4. Which way of assigning students to forms/groups do you consider the most beneficial for students in the sixth form college (circle only one answer please)?
- a) assigning students to forms that attend classes together for most of the courses
- b) assigning students to course groups
5. What is your opinion about the role and the range of responsibilities of the principal as far as the school efficiency is concerned (circle only one answer please)?
- a) the Polish liceum system in which the principal deals with his/her responsibilities with the help of deputy/deputies. The number of deputies is regulated by educational laws and there is no possibility for the principal to appoint managerial staff with monthly salary supplement.
- b) The sixth form college system in which the principal deals with his/her responsibilities with the help of a deputy/deputies and managerial staff with monthly salary supplement
6. Which system of assessing the level of the independence in functioning a post-secondary school would you consider more efficient and enabling a principal focusing on the school life and needs (circle only one answer please)?
- a) the system in which most strategic decisions are taken by supervising authorities, for instance, the district authorities
- b) the system in which most strategic decisions are taken by a principal of the school and the school is a very independent unit functioning similar to higher education institutions
7. Do you think that personal qualities of the principal (leadership skills, charisma, interpersonal skills etc.) affect school performance and efficiency (circle only one answer please)?
- a) yes
- b) no
- c) I don't have an opinion
8. Which, in your opinion, role of a tutor would be more beneficial for the students (circle only one answer please)?
- a) a tutor of a particular form of students as well as a regular teacher; the teacher performs his/her duties without special training; the meetings with the students take place once a week and they are devoted to dealing with current affairs and curriculum; the materials are prepared by a tutorial team; the teacher deals with all other issues related to school life

- b) a tutor who performs his/her duties after completing special training; there is a separate tutorial department in the school; the meeting with the students take place once a week; the materials are prepared by a tutorial team; current affairs are dealt with at individual meetings with a tutor
9. Which, in your opinion, is better for the sixth form college student (circle only one answer please)?
- a) a teacher introducing new material and checking students' performance with the help of varied and numerous forms of continuous assessment (oral performance, homework, quizzes, tests etc.)
- b) a teacher introducing new material, highlighting how to improve knowledge and find more information and assessing students' knowledge with the help of less numerous forms of assessment but involving more problematic and complicated issues
10. Do you feel that the sixth form college student is comprehensively prepared to challenge the adult life; can make most of their decisions independently and simultaneously bearing the consequences of their choices (circle only one answer please)?
- a) definitely yes
- b) mostly yes
- c) to minimum degree yes
- d) definitely no
- e) I don't have an opinion
11. Which model of law regulations would prepare the sixth form college student to make independent life decisions and functioning in the community (circle only one answer please)?
- a) the model in which the students' choices are limited and most decisions are made by their parents, the limited role of students' association, delegating the responsibility for students' actions on their parents
- b) the currently existing system in the sixth form college is sufficient enough
12. In what way the systematically modernised teaching facilities influence the quality and efficiency of students' education in the sixth form college (circle only one answer please)?
- a) it is indispensable and necessary
- b) it is important but a well prepared teacher is enough
- c) it is irrelevant to students' education

13. What do you think about the validity of providing each teacher appointed work surface (other than a classroom or the staff room, but not separate for each teacher) with the access to the Internet and some storage space for school documents and teaching materials (circle only one answer please)?

- a) I am absolutely for
- b) it is a good solution but not indispensable
- c) I am absolutely against

14. Which model of promoting teachers would you implement if you had a choice (circle only one answer please)?

- a) the system in which there is a fixed number of levels: a trainee teacher, a contract teacher, a designated teacher and a professionally qualified teacher; the teachers have to come through a legally regulated process to achieve each level
- b) the system in which the principal appoints managerial staff including the financial gratification; the teachers are appointed and dismissed based on the results of their performance
- c) combination of the two systems would be the best

15. Which element affecting the general school performance do you consider the most important (circle only one answer please)?

- a) clear and precise law regulations
- b) charismatic, experienced and a competent principal
- c) modern and efficient school structure and facilities

16. If you have any knowledge related to the structure and managing the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system, please say what would be, in your opinion, worth implementing in the system of the sixth form college and why (say "I don't have sufficient information" otherwise)

.....

.....

.....

.....

17. Factual questions (circle only one answer please)?

- a) gender: male female
- b) education: BA BSc MA MSc
- c)

d) age group:

20 – 25,

26 – 30,

31 – 35,

36 – 40,

41 - 45,

46 – 50,

51 and more

e) seniority:

0 – 5,

6 – 10,

11 – 15,

16 – 20,

21 – 25,

26 – 30,

31 and more

f) location of the workplace: city town village

Thank you very much for your participation in this survey!

Drodzy Nauczyciele Liceum Ogólnokształcącego

Przekazuję Państwu kwestionariusz opracowany dla potrzeb rozprawy doktorskiej pt. "Przeanalizowanie i porównanie brytyjskiej szkoły ponadgimnazjalnej typu *the sixth form college* z polskim *liceum ogólnokształcącym* pod kątem struktury i zarządzania" z prośbą o jego wypełnienie.

Ankieta została opracowana przez autorkę rozprawy. Celem badania jest wskazanie zasadności wprowadzenia zmian w zakresie struktury i zarządzania w obu typach szkół. Wyniki ankiety posłużą do wyciągnięcia wniosków, które punkty struktury i zarządzania szkołami typu *the sixth form college* i *liceum ogólnokształcącym*, w ocenie dyrektorów, nauczycieli i uczniów, mogłyby zostać zmodyfikowane. Wszelkie propozycje zmian oparte byłyby na sięgnięciu po istniejące w obu szkołach rozwiązania.

Większość odpowiedzi „a” dotyczy systemu obowiązującego w polskim liceum ogólnokształcącym. Natomiast większość odpowiedzi „b” dotyczy systemu obowiązującego w *the sixth form college*

Uprzejmie proszę o wypełnienie ankiety i pełną szczerłość.

1. Który system przeprowadzania egzaminów maturalnych uważa Pani/Pan ogólnie za bardziej korzystny dla ucznia (*proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość*):
 - a) egzaminy końcowe; po ukończeniu 3-letniego cyklu kształcenia w liceum ogólnokształcącym
 - b) egzaminy częściowe; po każdym roku nauki, z możliwością każdorazowej poprawy wyników oraz z możliwością zmiany wybranych przedmiotów maturalnych; ocena na świadectwie maturalnym jest średnią wyników z trzech lat

2. Jak Państwo sądzicie, który system oceniania bieżącego, semestralnego i rocznego byłby bardziej informacyjny i motywujący dla ucznia (*proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość*):
 - a) znany Państwu system stawiania ocen częściowych, semestralnych i rocznych w postaci ocen (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
 - b) system, w którym nauczyciele oceniają na bieżąco, semestralnie oraz rocznie ucznia w postaci opisowej oraz ocen

3. Jak Pani/Pan myśli, który sposób przydzielania zajęć przedmiotowych w liceum jest bardziej efektywny dla ucznia (*proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość*):
 - a) uczniowi przydziela się wszystkie wymagane w liceum przedmioty nauczania jako obowiązkowe w przeciągu trzech lat nauki (okres nauczania zależy od uregulowań prawnych); ilość godzin dydaktycznych poszczególnych przedmiotów w tygodniu jest taka jak funkcjonuje obecnie w liceum
 - b) uczniowi przydziela się przedmioty nauczania na zasadzie wyboru (musi wybrać przynajmniej minimalnie wymaganą ilość); w trakcie trwania nauki po spełnieniu wymogów formalnych uczeń może zmienić wybrany/e przedmioty nauczania; ilość godzin dydaktycznych poszczególnych przedmiotów w tygodniu jest zwiększona

4. Który system przydziału uczniów do grupy wydaje się Państwu korzystniejszy dla uczniów w liceum jeśli chodzi o efektywność nauczania (*proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość*):
- a) przydział uczniów do klas, które uczęszczają wspólnie na większość lekcji; średnia ilość uczniów stanowiących klasę jest taka obecnie funkcjonujące
 - b) przydział uczniów do grup przedmiotowych zgodnych z wyborem przedmiotów przez ucznia; średnia ilość uczniów stanowiących grupę przedmiotową jest niższa niż klasy
5. Jak Państwo uważacie, która rola i zakres obowiązków dyrektora szkoły są bardziej korzystne dla rozwoju i funkcjonowania liceum (*proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość*):
- a) obecnie funkcjonujący system, gdzie dyrektor spełnia wszystkie stawiane mu wymagania przy pomocy istniejącego systemu powoływania pomocnych mu osób funkcyjnych (którym przysługuje dodatek funkcyjny)
 - b) system, gdzie dyrektor spełnia wszystkie stawiane mu wymagania samodzielnie decydując o ilości i rodzaju potrzebnych w danej szkole stanowisk funkcyjnych (którym przysługuje dodatek funkcyjny)
6. Który system określający stopień niezależności funkcjonowania szkoły ponadpodstawowej uznałby/aby Pan/Pani za skuteczniejszy i umożliwiający dyrektorowi pełną koncentrację na życiu i potrzebach szkoły:
- a) system, w którym większość decyzji strategicznych jest prowadzona przez organ prowadzący np. starostwo
 - b) system, w który szkoła jest jednostką niemal całkowicie niezależną i funkcjonuje na zasadach zbliżonych do szkoły wyższej, a dyrektor jest główną osobą decyzyjną
7. Czy sądzi Pan/Pani, że cechy osobowościowe dyrektora szkoły (zdolności przywódcze, charyzma, umiejętności interpersonalne itp.) wpływają znacząco na zwiększenie wydajności pracy w szkole (*proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość*):
- a) tak
 - b) nie
 - c) nie mam zdania
8. Państwa zdaniem, która rola nauczyciela wychowawcy byłaby korzystniejsza dla uczniów (*proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość*):
- a) wychowawca konkretnej klasy i jednocześnie nauczyciel jakiegoś przedmiotu; spotkania z młodzieżą odbywają się raz w tygodniu i są poświęcone na załatwianie spraw bieżących i regulaminowych; nauczyciel prowadzi zajęcia przygotowane wspólnie przez zespoły wychowawcze; pełni również inne znane Ci z doświadczenia funkcje

- b) wychowawca jako osoba pełniąca tę funkcję jako główne zadanie w szkole; odbywa cotygodniowe spotkania z grupą przydzielonych mu uczniów podczas których prowadzi zajęcia przygotowane przez zespoły wychowawcze; sprawy bieżące i regulaminowe są załatwiane podczas indywidualnych spotkań z wychowawcą
9. Co według Pana/Pani jest lepsze dla ucznia liceum pod względem skutecznego przygotowania do egzaminów końcowych (*proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość*):
- a) nauczyciel wprowadzający nowy materiał podczas zajęć i sprawdzający stopień jego opanowania poprzez różnorodne i liczne formy odpytywania (odpowiedzi ustne z bieżących lekcji, zadania domowe, kartkówki, sprawdziany, prace klasowe itp.)
- b) nauczyciel wprowadzający nowy materiał podczas zajęć, wskazujący gdzie i w jaki sposób można uzupełnić i poszerzyć swoją wiedzę można oraz sprawdzający stopień opanowania materiału poprzez wyznaczanie mniej licznych zadań problemowych za to obejmujących szerszy wycinek wiedzy z danego przedmiotu
10. Czy macie Państwo poczucie, że w uczeń liceum jest wszechstronnie przygotowywany do stawiania czoła wyzwaniom życia dorosłych; może podejmować większość decyzji samodzielnie i równocześnie ponosi konsekwencje swoich wyborów (*proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość*):
- a) zdecydowanie tak
- b) często tak
- c) minimalnie tak
- d) zdecydowanie nie
- e) nie mam zdania
11. Który model uregulowań prawnych przygotowałby ucznia liceum bardziej do samodzielnego i odpowiedzialnego podejmowania życiowych decyzji i funkcjonowaniu w społeczeństwie (*proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość*):
- a) istniejący i znany Państwu z doświadczenia model funkcjonujący już w szkole
- b) system, w którym zwiększona jest możliwość samodzielnego podejmowania decyzji przez ucznia; zwiększenie roli ucznia w życiu szkoły (zwiększenie zakresu działań samorządu uczniowskiego); zmniejszenie roli rodziców w podejmowaniu decyzji; klarowne i zwiększone wymagania wobec odpowiedzialności uczniów za swoje działania

12. W jaki sposób systematycznie unowocześniana baza dydaktyczno-naukowa wpływa na jakość i skuteczność kształcenia uczniów w liceum (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość):
- a) jest niezbędna i konieczna
 - b) jest ważna lecz dobrze przygotowany nauczyciel wystarczy
 - c) jest mało istotna dla skuteczności zdobywania wiedzy
13. Jak oceniacie Państwo zasadność zapewnienia każdemu nauczycielowi wyznaczonego stanowiska pracy (poza klasą i pokojem nauczycielskim, ale nie musi być to pomieszczenie tylko dla jednej osoby) z dostępem do komputera, Internetu oraz miejscem do przechowywania dokumentów i materiałów szkolnych w celu podniesienia wydajności i skuteczności pracy nauczyciela (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość):
- a) jestem zdecydowanie za
 - b) jest to dobre rozwiązanie lecz nie jest niezbędne
 - c) jestem zdecydowanie przeciw
14. Na który model awansu nauczyciela zdecydowałoby się Państwo, gdybyście mieli wybór (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość):
- a) znany system awansu obowiązujący obecnie: nauczyciel stażysta, nauczyciel kontraktowy, nauczyciel mianowany, nauczyciel dyplomowany
 - b) system , w którym nauczyciele pełnią określone funkcje kierownicze i otrzymują za to wyższe wynagrodzenie; funkcje są przyznawane i odbierane na podstawie wyników pracy nauczyciela
 - c) Połączenie obu systemów
15. Który element składający się na funkcjonowanie szkoły uważa Pani/Pan za najważniejszy w jej skutecznym i sprawnym zarządzaniu (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną możliwość):
- a) klarowne i precyzyjne uregulowania prawne
 - b) charyzmatyczny, doświadczony i kompetentny dyrektor
 - c) nowoczesna i efektywna struktura szkoły oraz jej baza dydaktyczno-naukowa
16. Jeśli posiadacie Państwo wiedzę na temat zarządzania i struktury brytyjskiej szkoły ponadgimnazjalnej typu *the sixth form college* napisz co Państwa zdaniem byłoby przydatne do wprowadzenia w polskim liceum ogólnokształcącym i dlaczego (proszę wpisać „nie posiadam” jeśli nie ma wystarczających informacji na ten temat):
-

17. Metryczka (proszę zakreślić tylko jedną odpowiedź w każdym podpunkcie):

a) płeć: kobieta mężczyzna

b) wykształcenie: wyższe zawodowe - wyższe

c) wiek:

20-25,

26-30,

31-35,

36-40,

41-45,

46-50,

50 i powyżej

d) staż pracy:

0-5,

6-10,

11-15,

16-20,

21-25,

26-30,

31 i powyżej

e) Miejsce pracy: duże miasto (powyżej 100 tys.) – małe miasto (poniżej 100 tys.) – wieś

Dziękuję za poświęcony czas i wypełnienie ankiety!

Dear students of the Sixth Form College,

I am handing you over a questionnaire concerning the dissertation "Investigation and comparison of the sixth form college system with the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system in terms of structure and management" with the request to complete it.

The questionnaire was compiled by the author of the dissertation. The main purpose is to indicate the validity of implementing some changes in the structure and the management in both types of schools. The results of the questionnaire will be used to define which points of the systems require transformation and they will also help with proposing specific changes. Most of the "a" answers regard the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system. Whereas most of the "b" answers regard the sixth form college system.

Please read all the points of the questionnaire before you start to complete it.

Please complete the questionnaire

1. Which system of conducting finals exams would you choose if you had the following choice?
Choose the one you consider more informative and motivating to achieve the highest results (circle only one answer please):
 - a) final exams undivided in time: the whole procedure takes place at the end of the 3-year cycle of the education in liceum ogólnokształcące; students can improve the results or change the subject the following year
 - b) final exams divided in time: students take exams after some part of the education; they can improve results or change the subject under fixed regulations

2. Which current, semester and year assessment system do you think is more informative and motivating for you (circle only one answer please):
 - a) the system in which teachers give students numerous number of partial grades to assess different forms of students' activities in the form of current grades, semester grades and year grades
 - b) the system in which teachers give students reviews of progress including grades.

3. Which way of assigning students to particular courses is more efficient for you (circle only one answer please)?
- a) all the courses covered by school curriculum are obligatory for students within the whole education cycle. The time span of particular courses depends on law regulations and the time of a particular lesson is 45 minutes.
 - b) all the subjects (the required minimum number) are chosen by students voluntarily; following some law regulations students can change subjects; the time of the lesson is 90 minutes
4. If you had a choice, which system of assigning students to forms/groups you consider the most beneficial for students in the sixth form college (circle only one answer please)?
- a) assigning students to forms that attend classes together for most of the courses
 - b) assigning students to course groups
5. Which, in your opinion, role of a tutor would be more beneficial for the students (circle only one answer please)?
- a) a tutor of a particular form of students as well as a regular teacher; the teacher performs his/her duties without special training; the meetings with the students take place once a week and they are devoted to dealing with current affairs and curriculum; the materials are prepared by a tutorial team; the teacher deals with all other issues related to school life
 - b) a tutor who performs his/her duties after completing special training; there is a separate tutorial department in the school; the meeting with the students take place once a week; the materials are prepared by a tutorial team; current affairs are dealt with at individual meetings with a tutor
6. Which, in your opinion, is better for the sixth form college student (circle only one answer please)?
- a) a teacher introducing new material and checking students' performance with the help of varied and numerous forms of continuous assessment (oral performance, homework, quizzes, tests etc.)
 - b) a teacher introducing new material, highlighting how to improve knowledge and find more information and assessing students' knowledge with the help of less numerous forms of assessment but involving more problematic and complicated issues

7. Do you feel that the sixth form college student is comprehensively prepared to challenge the adult life; can make most of their decisions independently and simultaneously bearing the consequences of their choices (circle only one answer please)?
- a) definitely yes
 - b) mostly yes
 - c) to minimum degree yes
 - d) definitely no
 - e) I don't have an opinion
8. Which model of law regulations would prepare the sixth form college student to make independent life decisions and functioning in the community (circle only one answer please)?
- a) the model in which the students' choices are limited and most decisions are made by their parents, the limited role of students' association, delegating the responsibility for students' actions on their parents
 - b) the currently existing system in the sixth form college is sufficient enough
9. In what way the systematically modernised teaching facilities influence the quality and efficiency of students' education in the sixth form college (circle only one answer please)?
- a) it is indispensable and necessary
 - b) it is important but a well prepared teacher is enough
 - c) it is irrelevant to students' education
10. Which element affecting the general school performance do you consider the most important (circle only one answer please)?
- a) clear and precise law regulations
 - b) charismatic, experienced and a competent principal
 - c) modern and efficient school structure and facilities
11. If you have any knowledge related to the structure and managing the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system, please say what would be, in your opinion, worth implementing in the system of the sixth form college and why (say "I don't have sufficient information" otherwise)

.....

.....

.....

12. Factual questions (circle only one answer please)?

a) gender: male female

b) age group: 16 – 17 – 18 – 19 years old

c) location of your permanent address: city town village

Thank you very much for your participation in this survey!

Drodzy Uczniowie Liceum Ogólnokształcącego

Przekazuję Państwu kwestionariusz opracowany dla potrzeb rozprawy doktorskiej pt. "Przeanalizowanie i porównanie brytyjskiej szkoły ponadgimnazjalnej typu *the sixth form college* z polskim *liceum ogólnokształcącym* pod kątem struktury i zarządzania" z prośbą o jego wypełnienie.

Ankieta została opracowana przez autorkę rozprawy. Celem badania jest wskazanie zasadności wprowadzenia zmian w zakresie struktury i zarządzania w obu typach szkół. Wyniki ankiety posłużą do wyciągnięcia wniosków, które punkty struktury i zarządzania szkołami typu *the sixth form college* i *liceum ogólnokształcącym*, w ocenie dyrektorów, nauczycieli i uczniów, mogłyby zostać zmodyfikowane. Wszelkie propozycje zmian oparte byłyby na sięgnięciu po istniejące w obu szkołach rozwiązania.

Większość odpowiedzi „a” dotyczy systemu obowiązującego w polskim *liceum ogólnokształcącym*. Natomiast większość odpowiedzi „b” dotyczy systemu obowiązującego w *the sixth form college*

Uprzejmie proszę o wypełnienie ankiety i pełną szczerść.

1. Na który system przeprowadzania egzaminów maturalnych zdecydowałbyś/abyś się, gdy by był taki wybór; jako bardziej informacyjny i motywujący cię do systematycznego zdobywania i poszerzania swojej wiedzy pod kątem uzyskania jak najlepszego wyniku na egzaminach końcowych (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
 - a) egzaminy końcowe; po ukończeniu 3-letniego cyklu kształcenia w *liceum ogólnokształcącym*
 - b) egzaminy cząstkowe; po każdym roku nauki, z możliwością każdorazowej poprawy wyników oraz z możliwością zmiany wybranych przedmiotów maturalnych; ocena na świadectwie maturalnym jest średnią wyników z trzech lat

2. Który system oceniania bieżącego, semestralnego i rocznego byłby dla Ciebie najbardziej informacyjny i motywujący (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
 - a) znany Ci system stawiania ocen cząstkowych, semestralnych i rocznych w postaci ocen (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
 - b) system, w którym nauczyciele oceniają na bieżąco, semestralnie oraz rocznie ucznia w postaci opisowej oraz ocen

3. Który sposób przydzielania zajęć przedmiotowych w *liceum* uważasz za bardziej korzystny dla rozwoju potencjału intelektualnego ucznia (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
 - a) uczniowi przydziela się wszystkie wymagane w *liceum* przedmioty nauczania jako obowiązkowe w przeciągu trzech lat nauki (okres nauczania zależy od uregulowań prawnych); ilość godzin dydaktycznych poszczególnych przedmiotów w tygodniu jest taka jak funkcjonuje obecnie w *liceum*
 - b) uczniowi przydziela się przedmioty nauczania na zasadzie wyboru (musi wybrać przynajmniej minimalnie wymaganą ilość); w trakcie trwania nauki po spełnieniu wymogów formalnych uczeń może zmienić wybrany/e przedmioty nauczania; ilość godzin dydaktycznych poszczególnych przedmiotów w tygodniu jest zwiększona

4. Gdybyś miał możliwość wyboru, na który system przydziału uczniów do grupy byś się zdecydował jeśli chodzi o efektywność nauczania (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
- a) przydział uczniów do klas, które uczęszczają wspólnie na większość lekcji; średnia ilość uczniów stanowiących klasę jest taka obecnie funkcjonująca
 - b) przydział uczniów do grup przedmiotowych zgodnych z wyborem przedmiotów przez ucznia; średnia ilość uczniów stanowiących grupę przedmiotową jest niższa niż klasy
5. Jak myślisz, która rola nauczyciela wychowawcy byłaby korzystniejsza dla uczniów (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
- a) wychowawca konkretnej klasy i jednocześnie nauczyciel jakiegoś przedmiotu; spotkania z młodzieżą odbywają się raz w tygodniu i są poświęcone na załatwianie spraw bieżących i regulaminowych; nauczyciel prowadzi zajęcia przygotowane wspólnie przez zespoły wychowawcze; pełni również inne znane Ci z doświadczenia funkcje
 - b) wychowawca jako osoba pełniąca tę funkcję jako główne zadanie w szkole; odbywa cotygodniowe spotkania z grupą przydzielonych mu uczniów podczas których prowadzi zajęcia przygotowane przez zespoły wychowawcze; sprawy bieżące i regulaminowe są załatwiane podczas indywidualnych spotkań z wychowawcą.
6. Co według Ciebie jest lepsze (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
- a) nauczyciel wprowadzający nowy materiał podczas zajęć i sprawdzający stopień jego opanowania poprzez różnorodne i liczne formy odpytywania (odpowiedzi ustne z bieżących lekcji, zadania domowe, kartkówki, sprawdziany, prace klasowe itp.)
 - b) nauczyciel wprowadzający nowy materiał podczas zajęć, wskazujący gdzie i w jaki sposób można uzupełnić i poszerzyć swoją wiedzę można oraz sprawdzający stopień opanowania materiału poprzez wyznaczanie mniej licznych zadań problemowych za to obejmujących szerszy wycinek wiedzy z danego przedmiotu
7. Czy masz poczucie, że w liceum jesteś wszechstronnie przygotowywany do stawiania czoła wyzwaniom życia dorosłych; możesz podejmować większość decyzji samodzielnie i równocześnie ponosisz konsekwencje swoich wyborów (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
- a) zdecydowanie tak
 - b) często tak
 - c) minimalnie tak
 - d) zdecydowanie nie
 - e) nie mam zdania

8. Który model uregulowań prawnych przygotowałby Cię bardziej do samodzielnego i odpowiedzialnego podejmowania życiowych decyzji i funkcjonowaniu w społeczeństwie (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
- istniejący i znany Ci z doświadczenia model funkcjonujący już w Twojej szkole
 - system, w którym zwiększona jest możliwość samodzielnych decyzji podejmowanych przez ucznia; zwiększenie roli ucznia w życiu szkoły (zwiększenie zakresu działań samorządu uczniowskiego); zmniejszenie roli rodziców w podejmowaniu decyzji; klarowne i zwiększone wymagania wobec odpowiedzialności uczniów za swoje działania
9. W jaki sposób systematycznie unowocześniana baza dydaktyczno-naukowa wpływa na jakość i skuteczność kształcenia uczniów w liceum (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
- jest niezbędna i konieczna
 - jest ważna lecz dobrze przygotowany nauczyciel wystarczy
 - jest mało istotna dla skuteczności zdobywania wiedzy
10. Który element składający się na funkcjonowanie szkoły uważasz za najważniejszy w jej skutecznym i sprawnym zarządzaniu (zakreśl tylko jedną możliwość):
- klarowne i precyzyjne uregulowania prawne
 - charyzmatyczny, doświadczony i kompetentny dyrektor
 - nowoczesna i efektywna struktura szkoły oraz jej baza dydaktyczno-naukowa
11. Jeśli posiadasz wiedzę na temat zarządzania i struktury brytyjskiej szkoły ponadgimnazjalnej typu *the sixth form college* napisz co Twoim zdaniem byłoby przydatne do wprowadzenia w polskim liceum ogólnokształcącym i dlaczego (wpisz „nie posiadam” jeśli nie masz wystarczających informacji na ten temat):
-
-
12. Metryczka (zakreśl tylko jedną odpowiedź w każdym podpunkcie):
- Płeć: kobieta mężczyzna
 - Wiek: 16 – 17 – 18 – 19 lat
 - Miejsce stałego zamieszkania: duże miasto (powyżej 100 tys.) – małe miasto (poniżej 100tys)– wieś

Dziękuję za poświęcony czas i wypełnienie ankiety!

Appendix 5. LESSON OBSERVATIONS SHEETS

Lesson observation sheet

General Information:

- (1) Observer: _____
- (2) Date: _____
- (3) School: _____
- (4) Class/group: _____
- (5) Lesson start: _____
- (6) Lesson end: _____
- (7) Observation: 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 - 6 - 7 - 8 - 9 - 10 - 11 - 12 - 13 - 14 - 15 - 16 - 17 - 18 - 19 - 20
- (8) Subject: _____

Area of focus	Needed information	Observation
Foreign languages team/teams performance	(1) What are the topics discussed during the foreign languages teams meetings?	
	(2) What is the atmosphere at the meetings and interpersonal relationships?	
	(3) Does the Principal attend foreign languages teams meetings? If yes, what his role is?	
The model of the foreign language lesson	(1) Is there one predominating model? Which one?	
	(2) What are the stages of the foreign language lesson?	

	<p>(3) What is the students' engagement in each stage of the lesson?</p> <p>(4) Are there any innovative elements of conducting a foreign language lesson that the observer has not met?</p>	
<p>Foreign languages teaching techniques and lesson aids</p>	<p>(1) What teaching techniques are applied?</p>	<p>Brainstorm, pair work, group work, mental maps, debates, panel discussions, sketches, other:</p>
	<p>(2) How do the students respond to each of them?</p>	
	<p>(3) What teaching aids are applied?</p>	
	<p>(4) How do the students respond to each of them?</p>	
	<p>(5) Has a teacher applied innovative teaching techniques or/and teaching aids unknown to the observer?</p>	

The foreign language coursebook	(1) How often does the teacher use the coursebook during the lesson?	
	(2) To which stages of the lesson does a teacher use a coursebook?	
	(3) How do the students respond to using the coursebook?	
	(4) Does the teacher use complimentary materials like an activity book or a script ?	
Assessing students at the foreign language lesson	(1) How are the students assessed during the foreign language lesson?	
	(2) How often are the students assessed?	
	(3) How do students respond to being assessed?	

Classroom interaction/discourse	(1) Do students know about the goal of the lesson?	Yes/No
	(2) Who is more in control of the classroom interaction?	Teacher:

	<p>In which situations?</p> <p>(3) Does the teacher use speech modification? If yes, in which situations? How do the students react to this?</p> <p>(4) What are the interactions during elicitation?</p> <p>(5) How are errors corrected? Who does that?</p>	<p>Students:</p> <p>Tone of voice:</p> <p>Gestures:</p> <p>Facial expressions:</p> <p>Other:</p>
Students' autonomy	(1) Are students let to make any decisions about their learning?	Yes/No If yes, examples:

ARKU/SZ OBSERWACYJNY

Ogólne informacje:

- (1) Obserwujący: _____
- (2) Data: _____
- (3) Nazwa szkoły: _____
- (4) Klasa: _____
- (5) Godzina rozpoczęcia lekcji: _____
- (6) Godzina zakończenia lekcji: _____
- (7) Kolejność obserwowanych lekcji: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10 – 11 – 12 – 13 – 14 – 15 – 16 – 17 – 18 – 19 – 20
- (8) Temat lekcji: _____

Obszar zainteresowań	Potrzebne informacje	Obserwacja
Działalność zespołu metodycznego z języków obcych	(1) Jaka jest tematyka spotkań zespołów metodycznych z języków obcych?	
	(2) Jaka jest atmosfera spotkań i relacje interpersonalne?	
	(3) Czy Dyrektor uczestniczy w pracach zespołu? Jeśli tak, to na czym polega jego uczestnictwo?	
Model lekcji języka obcego	(1) Czy dominuje jeden model lekcji? Jaki?	
	(2) Z jakich etapów składa się prowadzona lekcja?	
	(3) Jakie jest zaangażowanie uczniów w poszczególne	

Techniki nauczania języka obcego i pomoce dydaktyczne na lekcji języka obcego	etapy lekcji?		
	(4) Czy są nowatorskie elementy prowadzenia lekcji, z którymi nie spokoił się obserwujący?		
	(1) Jakie techniki nauczania stosuje nauczyciel?		Burza mózgów, praca w parach, praca w grupach, debaty, dyskusje panelowe, inscenizacje, inne:
	(2) Jak uczniowie reagują na stosowane techniki?		
	(3) Jakie pomoce naukowe stosuje nauczyciel?		
	(4) Jaka jest reakcja uczniów na stosowane pomoce?		
	(5) Czy nauczyciel zastosował nowatorskie metody nauczania lubi pomoce naukowe, nieznanie obserwującemu?		

Podręcznik nauczania języka obcego	(1) Jak często nauczyciel stosuje podręcznik w czasie trwania lekcji?	
	(2) Do, których etapów lekcji nauczyciel korzysta z podręcznika?	
	(3) Jak uczniowie reagują na pracę z podręcznikiem?	
	(4) Czy nauczyciel korzysta z materiałów uzupełniających podręcznik np. zeszyt ćwiczeń, skrypty?	
Ocenianie ucznia podczas lekcji języka obcego	(1) W jaki sposób nauczyciel ocenia uczniów podczas lekcji?	
	(2) Jak często nauczyciel ocenia uczniów podczas lekcji?	
	(3) Jak uczniowie reagują na ocenianie przez nauczyciela?	
Interakcje w klasie/dyskurs edukacyjny	(1) Czy uczniowie zmagają cel lekcji?	Tak/Nie
	(2) Kto bardziej kontroluje interakcje językowe podczas lekcji? W jakich sytuacjach?	Nauczyciel: Uczeń:

	(3) Czy nauczyciel stosuje modyfikacje mowy? Jeśli tak, to w jakich sytuacjach? Jak reagują na to uczniowie?	Ton głosu: Gesty: Mimika twarzy: Inne:
	(4) Jaki interakcje językowe zachodzą podczas sprawdzania wiedzy?	
	(5) W jaki sposób poprawiane są błędy? Kto dokonuje poprawy?	
Autonomia ucznia	(1) Czy uczniom pozwala się na podejmowanie decyzji w sprawie procesu edukacyjnego?	Tak/Nie Jeśli tak, przykłady:

Appendix 6. QUESTIONNAIRES

Dear Foreign Language Teachers of the Sixth Form College

My name is Beata Kouhan I am an English teacher at the Liceum Ogólnokształcące in Sulechów, Poland, the school with which the College is twinned. I have visited Farnborough Sixth Form College on a number of occasions and I am currently carrying out projects with Marilyn Harris in your English department.

In my spare time, I am undertaking research for the degree of PhD at the University of Poznań and my dissertation is entitled "Investigation and comparison of the sixth form college system with the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system in terms of structure and management, with the special emphasis on foreign language teaching."

The main purpose is to indicate the validity of implementing some changes in the structure and the management in both types of schools, with the special interest in teaching foreign languages. The results of the questionnaire will be used to make recommendations as far as the changes in the structure and management are concerned, especially in the field of foreign language teaching.

Please be so kind as to read the information about Liceum Ogólnokształcące in Sulechów and all the points of the questionnaire before you start to complete it.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

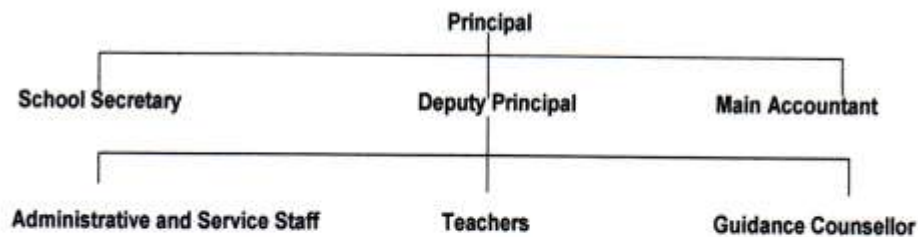
Beata Kouhan

Please complete the questionnaire.

The further part of the questionnaire is on the next page →



The structure of Liceum Ogólnokształcące in Sulechów



General information about Liceum Ogólnokształcące in Sulechów

- School ethos: "Creating supporting environment in order to enable students their comprehensive intellectual and emotional development including actions supporting the educational role of the family."
- There are 335 students
- There are 34 teachers
- The average number of students in a form: 24-34
- The average number of students in a interform group: 14-21
- Students have to cover on average 17 subjects within the three-year cycle
- Curriculum foreign languages: English, German and French
- The span of the lesson: 45 minutes
- Age span: 16-19
- Three-year cycle of education in Liceum Ogólnokształcące
- Students are encouraged to participate in enrichment activities
- Students can take two types of final examinations: basic level and extended level
- The governing authority: Zielona Góra County
- Pedagogical supervision: Lubuskie Education Office

The further part of the questionnaire is on the next page →



1. Please tick the foreign language teaching goals you follow in your school:

(Please tick all the appropriate responses)

- a) Developing communicative and practical skills
- b) Encouraging students to self-education
- c) Integrating knowledge from different fields of life
- d) Expanding the cultural component
- e) Other (please describe briefly)

2. Please tick the elements that constitute the structure of the foreign languages team in your school: *(Please tick all the appropriate responses)*

a) *The foreign languages team functions within one structure that covers all curriculum foreign languages:*

- Yes No

If **Yes**, is it guided by one senior manager?

- Yes No

Are there any discrete foreign languages teams within it?

- Yes No

b) *The foreign languages team functions as separate structures for each foreign language*

- Yes No

If **Yes**, is each guided by one leader person only?

- Yes No

c) *The foreign languages team functions as a different structure (please describe briefly):*

.....
.....
.....

3. What is the working schedule of your foreign languages team?

(Please tick all the appropriate responses)

- a) Regularly scheduled meetings
- b) Situation required meetings
- c) Other (please describe briefly)

The further part of the questionnaire is on the next page →



4. Indicate your agreement with the statement that having a Principal who is a strong and efficient leader in education is beneficial for the school's performance?

(Please tick only one appropriate response)

- a) Yes, I strongly agree
- b) Yes, I partly agree
- c) No, I partly disagree
- d) No, I strongly disagree
- e) I don't have an opinion

If **Yes (definitely or partly)**, how the Principal as a leader in education can influence the efficiency of the foreign languages team? *(Please tick the appropriate responses)*

- a) The more efficient leader, the better foreign language teaching facilities
- b) An efficient leader motivates to introduce pedagogical innovations
- c) A Principal as an efficient leader in education positively influences the interpersonal relationships in the foreign languages team
- d) A leader motivates the team to perform programme evaluation in order to increase efficiency
- e) Other (please describe briefly)
.....

5. Indicate your agreement with the statement that your foreign languages team plans the lessons according to the official model? *(Please tick only one appropriate response)*

- a) Yes, definitely
- b) Yes, partly
- c) No, partly
- d) No, definitely
- e) I don't have an opinion

If **Yes (definitely or partly)**, could you describe this scheme briefly:
.....

The further part of the questionnaire is on the next page →



If **No**, what do you take into consideration while planning a lesson?: *(Please tick all the appropriate responses)*

- a) Your knowledge from college/university
- b) The experience gained while working in the foreign languages team
- c) Ready made set of ideas from teacher's books
- d) Your own ideas
- e) Other (describe briefly)

6. **What makes the most optimal lesson plan in your opinion?***(Please tick only one appropriate response)*

- a) A balanced model: presentation/practice/production
- b) More emphasis on presentation (introducing the new material)
- c) More emphasis on practice (students practising new skills)
- d) More emphasis on production (students' own productive work)
- e) Other (describe briefly)

7. **What do you take into consideration while choosing the teaching techniques? :**

(Please tick all the appropriate responses)

- a) Your knowledge from college/university
- b) The experience gained while working in the foreign languages team
- c) The knowledge gained while taking part in external courses and trainings
- d) The knowledge gained from self-education e.g. reading professional literature
- e) Assessment of needs of a particular language group
- f) Final exams requirements
- g) Other (describe briefly)

The further part of the questionnaire is on the next page →



8. What teaching techniques do you apply in your foreign language lessons most often?:

(Please tick all the appropriate responses)

- a) Brainstorm activities
- b) Creating mental maps
- c) Pair work
- d) Group work
- e) Project method
- f) Panel discussions
- g) Stage productions
- h) Other (please specify)

9. What teaching aids do you apply in your foreign language lessons most often?:

(Please tick all the appropriate responses)

- a) Multimedia devices, e.g. an interactive board
- b) Authentic materials
- c) Audio recordings
- d) DVD data
- e) A course book
- f) Activity book
- g) Demonstrative boards
- h) Exemplary final exams sheets
- i) Dictionary
- j) Other (please specify)

The further part of the questionnaire is on the next page →



10. How do you choose a foreign language coursebook?: *(Please tick only one appropriate response)*

- a) The individual choice of a teacher
- b) The foreign languages team joint choice
- c) Other (Please specify)

11. What criteria do you/the foreign languages team apply while choosing a coursebook?

(Please tick all the appropriate responses)

- a) Clear layout
- b) Supplement teaching materials e.g. interactive CD
- c) Supplement materials for teachers e.g. teacher's book
- d) The content will prepare students for final exams in the most optimal way
- e) Variety of activities aimed at students with different learning strategies
- f) Other (specify)

12. Indicate your agreement with the statement that you create your own teaching aids/materials as a foreign languages team. *(Please tick only one appropriate response)*

- a) Yes, definitely
- b) Yes, partly
- c) No, partly
- d) No, definitely
- e) I don't have an opinion

If Yes, please specify

The further part of the questionnaire is on the next page →



13. What kinds of students' assessment on the foreign language lesson are applied in your school?: *(Please tick all the appropriate responses)*

- a) Partial grades covering material from 1-3 lessons
- b) Term grades, at the end of each term
- c) Grades in tests
- d) Descriptive assessment of students' particular skills
- e) Grades in projects that solve a particular problem e.g. students' surveys
- f) Self-assessment
- g) Other (please specify)

14. Indicate your agreement with the statement that students in your school are able to control their own learning process: *(Please tick only one appropriate response)*

- a) Yes, definitely
- b) Yes, rather
- c) No, rather
- d) No, definitely
- e) I don't have an opinion

If No/Rather no, what would improve the situation? (Please tick all the appropriate responses)

- a) Informing students about where to find sources of information
- b) Explaining how important their own involvement is
- c) Encouraging students to use modern technology tools
- d) Other (please specify)

The further part of the questionnaire is on the next page →



15. Indicate the proportion of controlling the language interaction in your second language classroom: (Please tick only one appropriate response)

- a) Full teacher's control
- b) Mostly teacher's control
- c) Half-and-half students' and teacher's control
- d) Mostly students' control
- e) Full students' control
- f) I don't have an opinion

16. How is the course evaluation performed in your school?:

(Please tick all the appropriate responses)

- a) Each foreign languages teacher individually
- b) The joint work by the whole foreign languages team
- c) Other (please specify)

17. How do you evaluate the foreign languages programme?

(Please tick all the appropriate responses)

- a) The teaching results are reviewed, and the development plan for the next year is prepared
- b) The final exams results are reviewed, and the development plan for the next year is prepared
- c) Other (please specify)

18. Factual questions (Please tick only one appropriate response)

a) **Gender:**

- female
- male

b) **Age group:**

- 20-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51 and more

c) **Years of teaching:**

The further part of the questionnaire is on the next page →



d) Permanent address:

- city (over 100,000)
- town (below 100,000)
- village

e) Education: BA BSc BE MA MSc Med PhD PGCE

Please be so kind as to check whether all questionnaire items have been completed

Thank you very much for your participation in this survey!



The further part of the questionnaire is on the next page →



Drodzy Nauczyciele Języków Obcych Liceum Ogólnokształcącego

Nazywam się Beata Kouhan i jestem nauczycielką języka angielskiego w Liceum Ogólnokształcącym w Sulechowie. W szkole pełnię funkcję koordynatora kontaktów z partnerską szkołą w Wielkiej Brytanii The Sixth Form College Farnborough.

W wolnym czasie prowadzę badania na potrzeby rozprawy doktorskiej pt. "Przeanalizowanie i porównanie brytyjskiej szkoły ponadgimnazjalnej typu *the sixth form college* z polskim *liceum ogólnokształcącym* pod kątem struktury i zarządzania, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem nauczania języków obcych".

Ankieta została opracowana przez autorkę rozprawy. Celem badania jest wskazanie zasadności wprowadzenia zmian w zakresie struktury i zarządzania w obu typach szkół ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem nauczania języków obcych. Wyniki ankiety posłużą do wyciągnięcia wniosków, które punkty struktury i zarządzania szkołami, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem nauczania języków obcych, typu *the sixth form college* i liceum ogólnokształcącego, w ocenie dyrektorów, nauczycieli i uczniów, mogłyby zostać zmodyfikowane. Wszelkie propozycje zmian oparte byłyby na sięgnięciu po istniejące w obu szkołach rozwiązania.

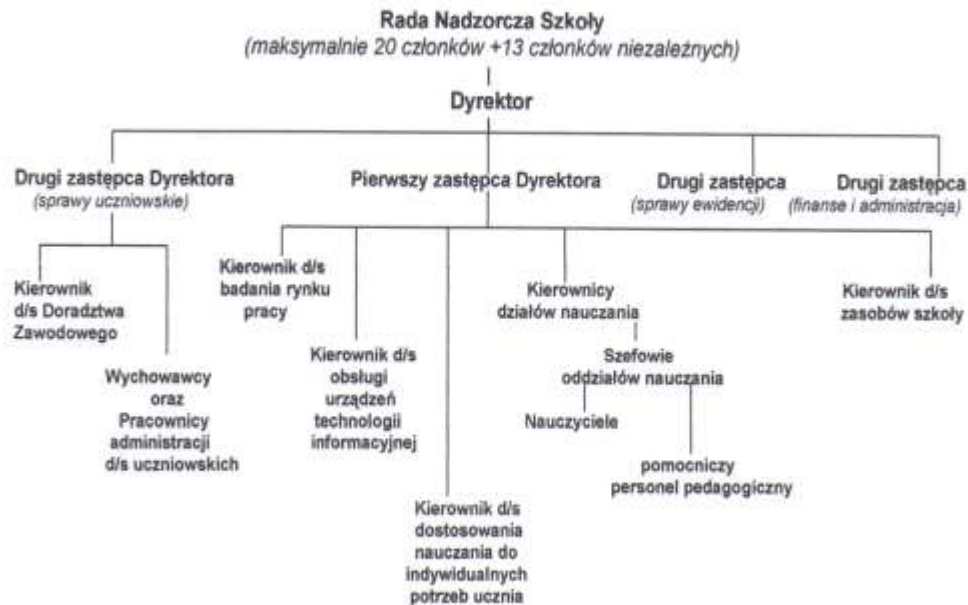
Bardzo proszę o wstępne przeczytanie informacji o The Sixth Form College Farnborough oraz wszystkich punktów ankiety zanim przystąpicie Państwo do zaznaczania odpowiedzi.

Uprzejmie proszę o wypełnienie ankiety i pełną szczerłość.

Ciąg dalszy kwestionariusza znajduje się na następnej stronie →



Struktura organizacyjna The Sixth Form College Farnborough



Ogólne informacje na temat The Sixth Form College Farnborough

- Etos szkoły to „Polepszanie osiągnięć uczniów”
- Do szkoły uczęszcza około 3200 uczniów
- Kadra nauczycielska to dwustu nauczycieli oraz stu pracowników pomocniczego personelu pedagogicznego
- Średnia ilość uczniów w grupie 10-20
- Uczniowie wybierają minimalnie 3 / 4 przedmioty nauczania. Do wyboru jest około 60 przedmiotów nauczania
- Nauczane języki obce to: język hiszpański, francuski, niemiecki, włoski (języki wiodące), język arabski, japoński, chiński, grecki (uzupełniające)
- Czas trwania jednej jednostki lekcyjnej to 90 minut
- Uczniowie są zachęceni do brania udziału w zajęciach nadobowiązkowych z różnych dziedzin np. zajęcia sportowe, sztuki dramatyczne itp.
- Wiek uczniów uczęszczających do szkoły to: 16-19
- Przeciętnie długość edukacji w szkole to dwa lata
- W placówce istnieje wyodrębniony wydział do spraw wychowawczych, w którym każdy uczeń ma przydzielonego nauczyciela wychowawcę
- Szkoła regularnie otrzymuje najwyższe oceny przyznawane przez „Ofsted” tzn. Biuro d/s Standardów w Edukacji
- W szkole można przystąpić do czterech różnych typów egzaminów: od kwalifikujących na wyższe uczelnie, po zawodowe

Ciąg dalszy kwestionariusza znajduje się na następnej stronie →



1. Proszę zaznaczyć te cele kształcenia językowego, które Pani/Pan realizuje:

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Rozwijanie u uczniów praktycznego porozumiewania się językiem obcym
- b) Doskonalenie umiejętności samodzielnego uczenia się
- c) Integrowanie elementów wiedzy z różnych dziedzin życia
- d) Poszerzanie komponentu kulturowego
- e) Inne (jakie?)
-

2. Proszę zaznaczyć te elementy, które stanowią strukturę zespołu metodycznego z języka obcego w Państwa szkole: (Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

a) Zespół metodyczny funkcjonuje, jako struktura obejmująca wszystkie języki obce

- Tak Nie

Jeśli Tak, to czy na czele zespołu stoi jedna osoba?

- Tak Nie

Czy w ramach takiego zespołu metodycznego istnieją zespoły metodyczne do poszczególnych języków obcych?

- Tak Nie

b) Zespół metodyczny funkcjonuje, jako struktura obejmująca tylko jeden język obcy

- Tak Nie

Jeśli Tak, to czy na czele zespołu stoi jedna osoba?

- Tak Nie

c) Zespół metodyczny funkcjonuje według innej struktury (jakiej?):

.....

.....

.....

3. Jaki jest harmonogram działań Państwa zespołu metodycznego z języków obcych?

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Regularne spotkania wynikające z opracowanego harmonogramu
- b) Spotkania wynikające z potrzeby sytuacji
- c) Inny (jaki?)

Ciąg dalszy kwestionariusza znajduje się na następnej stronie →



4. Proszę wskazać, do jakiego stopnia zgadza się Pani/Pan ze stwierdzeniem, iż Dyrektor jako silny i skuteczny lider w edukacji wpływa na działalność szkoły:

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) Tak, całkowicie
- b) Raczej tak
- c) Raczej nie
- d) Nie, całkowicie
- e) Nie mam zdania

Jeśli **Tak/Raczej tak** to, w jaki sposób dyrektor, jako lider w edukacji może wpływać na efektywność działań zespołu metodycznego z języków obcych? (Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Im skuteczniejszy lider, tym lepsza baza dydaktyczna nauczania języków obcych
- b) Skuteczny lider motywuje do wprowadzania innowacji pedagogicznych
- c) Dyrektor, jako skuteczny lider w edukacji wpływa pozytywnie na relacje interpersonalne w zespole
- d) Lider motywuje zespół do ewaluacji działań, w celu podniesienia efektywności pracy
- e) Inny (jaki?)

5. Proszę wskazać, do jakiego stopnia zgadza się Pani/Pan, iż w Państwa zespole metodycznym z języka obcego planowanie lekcji odbywa się według jednego schematu obowiązującego w Państwa szkole?

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) Tak, całkowicie
- b) Raczej tak
- c) Raczej nie
- d) Nie, całkowicie
- e) Nie mam zdania

Jeśli **Tak/Raczej tak**, to na czym ten schemat polega:

Ciąg dalszy kwestionariusza znajduje się na następnej stronie →



Jeśli **Nie**, to co Pani/Pan bierze pod uwagę przy planowaniu lekcji: (Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem **X** wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Wiedzę zdobytą podczas studiów
- b) Doświadczenia zdobyte podczas pracy zespołu metodycznego z języka obcego
- c) Gotowy zestaw propozycji dołączony do książki nauczyciela
- d) Własne pomysły
- e) Inne (jakie?)

6. Co według Pani/Pana stanowi najbardziej optymalny model lekcji języka obcego?

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem **X** tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) Zbalansowany model: prezentacja materiału/ćwiczenia/samodzielne używanie nowego materiału przez ucznia
- b) Większy nacisk na element prezentacji materiału
- c) Większy nacisk na ćwiczenia wprowadzonego materiału
- d) Większy nacisk na samodzielne używanie nowego materiału przez ucznia
- e) Inny (jaki?)

7. Na czym opieracie się Państwo dobierając techniki nauczania na lekcji języka obcego:

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem **X** wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Wiedzy wyniesionej ze studiów
- b) Wiedzy zdobytej podczas spotkań zespołu metodycznego z języka obcego
- c) Wiedzy zdobytej podczas zewnętrznych kursów i szkoleń
- d) Wiedzy zdobytej poprzez samokształcenie np. czytanie literatury fachowej
- e) Ocenie indywidualnych potrzeb danej grupy językowej
- f) Wymaganiach egzaminów końcowych z języka obcego
- g) Inne (jakie?)

Ciąg dalszy kwestionariusza znajduje się na następnej stronie →



8. Jakie techniki nauczania języków obcych Pań/Pan najczęściej stosuje w czasie swoich lekcji:

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Ćwiczenia typu „burza mózgów”
- b) Tworzenie map mentalnych
- c) Praca w parach
- d) Praca w grupach
- e) Metoda projektu
- f) Dyskusje panelowe
- g) Inscenizacje teatralne
- h) Inne (jakie?)
-
-

9. Jakie pomoce dydaktyczne stosujecie Państwo najczęściej na lekcji języka obcego:

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Urządzenia multimedialne np. tablicę interaktywną
- b) Materiały autentyczne
- c) Nagrania audio
- d) Nagrania DVD
- e) Podręcznik
- f) Zeszyt ćwiczeń towarzyszący podręcznikowi
- g) Plansze demonstracyjne
- h) Przykładowe arkusze egzaminacyjne
- i) Słowniki
- j) Inne (jakie?)
-
-

Ciąg dalszy kwestionariusza znajduje się na następnej stronie →



10. W jaki sposób dokonujecie Państwo wyboru podręcznika:

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) Wybór indywidualny danego nauczyciela
- b) Wybór całego zespołu metodycznego z języka obcego
- c) Inny (jaki?)
-

11. Jakimi kryteriami kierujecie się Państwo/Zespół przy wyborze podręcznika?

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Klarowny układ graficzny podręcznika
- b) Zestaw dołączonych dodatkowych materiałów dydaktycznych np. interaktywne CD
- c) Zestaw dodatkowych materiałów dla nauczyciela np. książka nauczyciela
- d) Zawartość merytoryczna optymalnie przygotowująca ucznia do egzaminów końcowych
- e) Różnorodność ćwiczeń skierowanych do uczniów o różnych strategiach uczenia się
- f) Inne (jakie?)
-

12. Proszę zaznaczyć, do jakiego stopnia zgadza się Pan/Pani ze stwierdzeniem, iż jako zespół metodyczny stworzyli Państwo autorskie materiały dydaktyczne:

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) Tak, całkowicie
- b) Raczej tak
- c) Raczej nie
- d) Nie, całkowicie
- e) Nie mam zdania
- Jeśli Tak, to jakie?
-

Ciąg dalszy kwestionariusza znajduje się na następnej stronie →



13. Jakiego rodzaju oceniania ucznia na języku obcym są stosowane w Państwa szkole?:

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Oceny cząstkowe z materiału obejmującego jedną do trzech lekcji
- b) Oceny semestralne, na koniec każdego semestru
- c) Oceny z szerszych partii materiału np. testy
- d) Oceny opisowe poszczególnych umiejętności ucznia
- e) Oceny projektów rozwiązujących jakiś szerszy problem np. prace badawcze ucznia
- f) Samoocena
- g) Inne (jakie?)

14. Proszę zaznaczyć, do jakiego stopnia zgadza się Pan/Pani ze stwierdzeniem, iż uczniowie w Państwa szkole są w stanie kontrolować własny proces uczenia się języka obcego:

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) Tak, całkowicie
- b) Raczej tak
- c) Raczej nie
- d) Nie, całkowicie
- e) Nie mam zdania

Jeśli **Nie**, co poprawiłoby ten stan? *(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)*

- a) Informowanie uczniów o dostępie do źródeł informacji
- b) Wyjaśnianie, jak ważne jest ich własne zaangażowanie
- c) Zachęcanie uczniów do korzystania z nowoczesnych technologii
- d) Inne (jakie?)

Ciąg dalszy kwestionariusza znajduje się na następnej stronie →



15. Proszę wskazać proporcje kontrolowania interakcji językowych na Państwa lekcji języka obcego: (Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X tylko jedną możliwość)

- a) Nauczyciel w pełni kontroluje
- b) Nauczyciel w większości kontroluje
- c) Pół-na-pół nauczyciel i uczniowie
- d) Uczniowie w większości kontrolują
- e) Uczniowie w pełni kontrolują
- f) Nie mam zdania

16. Jak odbywa się ewaluacja programu języków obcych w Państwa szkole?

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Każdy nauczyciel indywidualnie we własnym zakresie
- b) Praca całego zespołu metodycznego
- c) Inaczej (jak?)

17. Na czym polega ewaluacja programu języka obcego w Państwa szkole?

(Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X wszystkie odpowiednie rubryki)

- a) Analizie dotychczasowych wyników nauczania i opracowaniu zadań na następny rok szkolny
- b) Analizie dotychczasowych wyników egzaminów końcowych i opracowaniu zadań na następny rok szkolny
- c) Inne (jakie?)

18. Metryczka (Proszę zaznaczyć znakiem X tylko jedną możliwość)

a) Płeć:

- kobieta
- mężczyzna

b) Wiek:

- 20-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51 i powyżej

c) Staż pracy:

Ciąg dalszy kwestionariusza znajduje się na następnej stronie →



d) Miejsce zamieszkania:

- Duże miasto (powyżej 100 tys.)
- Małe miasto (poniżej 100 tys.)
- Wieś

e) Wykształcenie:

- Wyższe zawodowe (studia licencjackie)
- Wyższe (studia magisterskie)

Uprzejmie proszę o sprawdzenie kompletności kwestionariusza

Dziękuję za poświęcony czas i wypełnienie ankiety!



Ciąg dalszy kwestionariusza znajduje się na następnej stronie →



Appendix 7. THE INTERVIEW GUIDES

The interview guide

“Investigation and comparison of the sixth form college system with the Polish liceum ogólnokształcące system in terms of structure and management, with the special emphasis on foreign language teaching.”

(1) FOREIGN LANGUAGES TEAM/TEAMS PERFORMANCE

Do the members of the foreign languages team perform joint projects?

If 'yes': Could you give two examples of them?

If 'no': Why not?

What are the two strongest points of the foreign languages team performance?

Can you find two points of the team's performance that need improving?

(2) THE ETHOS OF A PRINCIPAL AS LEADER IN EDUCATION

Do you feel you have the Principal's support in your work?

If 'yes': What does it rely on?

If 'no': How does it affect your performance as a foreign language teacher?

(3) THE MODEL OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE LESSON

What elements does your lesson consist of?

(4) THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSEBOOK

How often do you change a foreign language coursebook?

Why do you change it?

How do you assess the reliance of the coursebook?

(5) ASSESSING STUDENTS AT THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE LESSON

What are the ways of assessment you use?

Do you think that the existing forms of assessing students at the foreign language lessons are sufficient?

If 'yes': Why?

If 'no': Why not?

(6) STUDENTS' AUTONOMY

Do you think that your students know how to control their own learning process?

If 'yes': What does their knowledge rely on? (examples?)

If 'no': Why is that?

(7) SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Do you use speech modification and body language as a means of teaching tool?

If 'yes': What do you do and why?

If 'no': Why is that?

(8) PROGRAMME EVALUATION

What does the course evaluation rely on in your foreign languages team?

Who does such evaluation?

Do you find the course evaluation effective in your school?

If 'yes': Why?

If 'no': Why not?

(9) FACTUAL QUESTIONS

a) *Gender:*

female

male

b) *Age group:*

20-30

31-40

41-50

51 and more

c) *Years of teaching:*.....

d) *Permanent address:*

city (*over 100,000*)

town (*below 100,000*)

village

e) *Education:* BA BSc BE MA MSc Med PhD PGCE

Thank you very much for your participation in this interview!

General comments about the interview:

- (1) Where the interview took place: _____

- (2) How the interview went: _____

- (3) The date: _____
- (4) Any other feelings about the interview: _____

Arkusz wywiadu

"Przeanalizowanie i porównanie brytyjskiej szkoły ponadgimnazjalnej typu the sixth form college z polskim liceum ogólnokształcącym pod kątem struktury i zarządzania, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem nauczania języków obcych"

(1) DZIAŁALNOŚĆ ZESPOŁU METODYCZNEGO Z JĘZYKÓW OBCYCH

Czy członkowie zespołu metodycznego z języków obcych przeprowadzają wspólne projekty?

Jeśli „tak”: Czy mogłaby Pani/Pan podać dwa przykłady takich wspólnych projektów?

Jeśli „nie”: Dlaczego nie?

Jakie są dwa najmocniejsze punkty działalności zespołu?

Czy mogłaby Pani/Pan podać dwa punkty działalności zespołu, które wymagają udoskonalenia?

(2) ETOS DYREKTORA JAKO LIDERA W EDUKACJI

Czy ma Pani/Pan poczucie wsparcia Dyrektora szkoły w swoich działaniach?

Jeśli „tak”: Na czym to wsparcie polega?

Jeśli „nie”: Jak wpływa to, na Pani/Pana pracę jako nauczyciela języka obcego?

(3) MODEL LEKCJI JĘZYKA OBCEGO

Z jakich elementów składa się Pani/Pana lekcja?

(4) PODRĘCZNIK NAUCZANIA JĘZYKA OBCEGO

Jak często zmienia Pani/Pan podręcznik do nauczania języka obcego?

Co jest powodem zmiany podręcznika?

Na jakiej podstawie ocenia Pani/Pan przydatność podręcznika?

(5) OCENIANIE UCZNIÓW NA LEKCJI JĘZYKA OBCEGO

Jakich form oceniania Pani/Pan używa?

Czy sądzi Pani/Pan, iż istniejące formy oceniania uczniów na lekcji języka obcego są wystarczające?

Jeśli „tak”: Dlaczego?

Jeśli „nie”: Dlaczego nie?

(6) AUTONOMIA UCZNIĄ

Czy Pani/Pan sądzi, iż Państwa uczniowie wiedzą, jak kontrolować swój proces uczenia się?

Jeśli „tak”: Na czym polega ich wiedza (przykłady)

Jeśli „nie”: Dlaczego tak jest?

(7) DYSKURS EDUKACYJNY

Czy używa Pani/Pan modyfikacji mowy i języka ciała, jako środka dydaktycznego?

Jeśli „tak”: Co Pani/Pan robi i dlaczego?

Jeśli „nie”: Dlaczego tak jest?

(8) EWALUACJA PROGRAMU

Na czym polega ewaluacja programu w Pani/Pana zespole metodycznym z języków obcych?

Kto przeprowadza taką ewaluację?

Czy według Pani/Pana ewaluacja kursu nauczania języków obcych w Państwa szkole jest skuteczna?

Jeśli „tak”: Dlaczego?

Jeśli „nie”: Dlaczego nie?

(9) METRYCZKA

a) **Płeć:**

- kobieta
- mężczyzna

b) **Wiek:**

- 20-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51 i powyżej

c) **Staż pracy:**.....

d) **Miejsce zamieszkania:**

- Duże miasto (powyżej 100 tys.)
- Małe miasto (poniżej 100 tys.)
- Wieś

e) **Wykształcenie:**

- Wyższe zawodowe (studia licencjackie)
- Wyższe (studia magisterskie)

DZIĘKUJĘ BARDZO ZA UDZIAŁ W WYWIADZIE!

(1) Gdzie wywiad miał miejsce: _____

(2) Przebieg wywiadu: _____

(3) Data: _____

(4) Inne odczucia związane z wywiadem: _____

Appendix 8. EXEMPLARY TRANSCRIPTIONS OF THE INTERVIEW CONDUCTED WITH FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

The following conventions have been used in the transcriptions of the interviews conducted for the purposes of this study:

- **T** indicates the teacher who was interviewed;
- **I** indicates the interviewer;
- **CAPITALS** indicate emphasis;
- **Single brackets ()** indicate unclear or probable items;
- **Three periods ...** indicate a pause or hesitation; if a pause exceeds one second, its approximate length in seconds is provided in single brackets, e.g. ... (3);
- (...) indicate that the utterance was not completed

Transcript One

An interview with the Head of the Modern Languages Department in Barton Peveril College, Eastleigh. The interview was conducted on 27.06.2011.

- (1) **I.** *Do the members of the foreign languages team perform joint projects? If yes, could you give two examples of them. If not, why not?*
- (2) **T.** *We produce schemes of work together. We put together any materials that could be used across three or four languages that we teach so: diagnostic tests, that kind of things. We do work as a team to do trips, we try to organise a trip to Germany, Spain and France most years. It's not always successful but we try as often as we can.*
- (3) **I.** *What are the two strongest points of the foreign languages team performance?*
- (4) **T.** *We get on very well together, so good personal relationships between teachers and we have excellent relationships with students. In terms of our results, I believe the results are good, however when we look at what is called value added, we do have difficulties getting students to get further than perhaps they might expect it to reach and THAT'S an issue.*
- (5) **I.** *Can you find two points of the team's performance that need improving?*
- (6) **T.** *The first point would be value added that is when statistic is given to how well a student has performed at GCSE level and that statistic then predicts what they should perform at AS or A2 level. We find it very hard in languages to get a very high value added statistic. And there are an awful lot of reasons for that. But we're working on improving that.*
- (7) **I.** *Do you feel you have the Principal's support in your work? If yes, what does it rely on? If no, how does it affect your performance as a foreign language teacher?*

- (8) **T.** ...*(2) The Principal is certainly interested in what we do. He is interested that a Department should run efficiently. As a consequence we've seen a reduction in staff sizes and larger sets. So he has taken interest in the staff of the Department. And obviously he is interested in the previous mentioned: grades or value added. I have a meeting with him once we have results and we discuss how, what the results are, how can things be improved, what we can do, we make an action plan.*
- (9) **I.** *What elements does your lesson consist of?*
- (10) **T.** *We are very much more fluid than presentation, practice, production model. We might start with a warming up exercise, then we might have some sort of presentation, and then practice: reading comprehension, or students working on listening comprehension, and students working on sound, and then conversation, so that would be practice. And then we'd sum up what we've done at the end. But for example you see, very different things are happening this afternoon: we are making presentation (...)*
- (11) **I.** *How often do you change a foreign language coursebook?*
- (12) **T.** *We tend to keep our foreign language coursebooks for quite a long time, for the duration of the course. The present A level came in 2008 and I think the government is thinking of changing it in 2013 and during this time we will use one coursebook. We could or not use a coursebook, we could create our own materials. We have three examination boards and each board for A level tends to suggest their own book. But there is more than one book, there are several books that we could use, but we've chosen that one which was recommended by our board.*
- (13) **I.** *Why do you change it? How do you assess the reliance of the coursebook?*
- (14) **T.** ... *(2) I suppose we assess it against the results at the end of the year, but the resource books mean to have the right level of the language they need to have, grammar support in them or with them, they need to have the right level of vocabulary, they need to be looking at correct issues, which are laid out in the specification of the exam board, so the resource books must reflect issues as well. So we need to look at the specification and look at the coursebook and compare those and if they fit that could be an OK book but we want to look and see if the material is interesting to young people.*
- (15) **I.** *What are the ways of assessment you use?*

- (16) **T.** *It's very complex. ... (2) First, we tend to test students: on vocabulary, and we test grammar so we might just give a mark e.g. if there were 15 words on the test it would be a mark out of fifteen. If we've done a grammar test, then there would be ten sentences to do, it might be a mark out of ten. Then we test other things e.g. listening: and again we tend to use a similar materials to those that would be used at the exam, so that the students would get used to using them. And we give them results of what if would have been if that was an exam. But we might not do the whole exam, we might just do a little portion of it in any particular lesson. We also test and assess writing at the A1 and the A2 level. Writing is assessed in two different ways. In the writing part of the exam, they have to do three things: they have to translate a short passage into French and that is a test of grammar. They have to write a discursive essay, freedom exploration ... (2) students have to write about that. And then, during the course of the year they would have studied a film or a period of history, or original geography. At the moment we are doing film and so they have to, for a film this year, describe an important theme. ... (2) and indicate why it's of interest to the modern day. Now, each of those essays are again assessed against criteria. The criteria are much more complex, so for the discursive essay: ten marks for language, five marks for the accuracy of the language, fifteen marks for understanding and response- the quality of what they say, an fifteen marks for organisation of their ideas. So that gives us a mark out of forty five. Again during the year, when students are writing, we mark their written work against those criteria so that they know (...) So our assessment is informant for students how they will be assessed at the end of the year in their examination. That's the easiest way to put it.*
- (17) **L.** *Do you think that existing forms of assessing students at the foreign language lessons are sufficient? Why yes/why not?*
- (18) **T.** *Because we work in a way that is not so structured as presentation, practice (...)* *It's very hard to assess what students are doing in terms of every single lesson. That's why we tend to use formal tests of grammar or vocabulary and testing written work so that we anchor our assessment on those three things.*
- (19) **L.** *Do you think this is sufficient for you and your students?*
- (20) **L.** *Yeah, ... (2) I think generally it is. It would be nice to find a way to assess oral production more accurately, and I think it is very difficult to do because we don't work with the language in an oral manner in exactly the same way as they do in the oral*

examination. We work much more free, normal conversational style, language or presentational style of language.

- (21) **I.** Do you think that your students know how to control their own learning process? If 'yes': What does their knowledge rely on? (examples?). If 'no': Why is that?
- (22) **T.** I WISH THEY DID! Some students DO, some students DON'T. We have to show them very carefully. What they need to do, what they need to learn. And students at A level are surprised by how much memory work they have to put in memorising how grammar systems work, and memorising vocabulary. So they need to become disciplined in doing that. So some students are very good at organising their own time and organising their own learning and other are not so good.
- (23) **I.** Do you use speech modification as a means of teaching tool? If 'yes': What do you do and why? If 'no': Why is that?
- (24) **T.** I think we tend to use our voices to indicate what we are looking at, why we want them to do it. You might see that this afternoon in French classes. We aim to cover as much at the class as possible in the language, so, yeah, we vary our voice. Yeah, I use gestures.
- (25) **I.** What does the course evaluation rely on in your foreign languages team? Who does such evaluation?
- (26) **Right ... (3)** That's a really interesting question. I'll show you an example. We do carry out what we call a self assessment review or we write a self assessment report. Now a self assessment report if I pull out an example of one (...) In our self assessment review we cover our scope of provision that is: what languages we teach, what staff we have, what group sizes we have, what materials we use, what classroom we have. All that covered. We then look at improvements we've made, key strengths and key areas that still need improving within the departments. Individually and as a team we then look at our results, the outcomes for learners. We look at those in terms of the pass rates, our retention of students: how many students stayed on the course, and our success: how many high grades we've got. High grades are: A+ or A and B. Then our value added grade: value added runs from 1 down to 9, 1 is the best, 9 is very bad. We are rank 6 which is not great and that's something we have to work off. So we look at that for all of our languages, of our performance in statistically, then we consider, that's French, Spanish and German, we consider the key strengths and key issues within the results and how they might be improved. We next look in our review at the

quality of our provision, how good our teaching is, we observe our teaching every year, we grade our lessons. And we also have internal quality reviews when other people come to grade our lessons. Grade 1 is excellent, a grade 4 is unsatisfactory. And out of the 7 lessons that we observed last year: 6 were grade 2 and 1 was grade 3. So good or satisfactory. We then look at the leadership and the management. And how useful and well that was being managed. It's very full. We look at the strengths and all our weaknesses. And eventually, having looked at all the strengths and all our weaknesses of these different areas, we create an action plan. We say, right, during that course at the next year. These are things that we've got to improve and this is how we're going to improve them. And this is how we're going to know how they're improved. So we have to measure that as. And at the end of the year when the results come out we see if the improves we put in place have had any effect. And if they had, we are happy and if they haven't, we wonder what to do best. The self assessment is a long process and it starts from about now, generally how the courses have been, both individually and as a department. And it gets finished off by the early October when we've had the results and have had a chance to analyse them.

- (27) **I.** Do you find the course evaluation effective in your school? If 'yes': Why? If 'no': Why not?
- (28) **T.** I find it a very hard wish. ... (4) Yes, it shows us areas that we need to improve, and the action plan is the most important. What we put in that and if it works.
- (29) **I.** Thank you very much for the interview.